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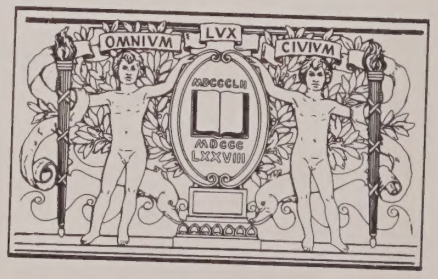

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 2, 1873.

The Week.

MR. BOUTWELL has appeared before the Committee of Ways and Means to explain his dealings with the Syndicate, and obtain from it an expression of opinion as to the propriety of his disposing of the remainder of the five per cent. loan on the same terms and through the same machinery. His account added little or nothing to what was already known; he made no attempt to deny that he had broken the law, but pleaded the necessity of the case. He at first appointed a great number of bankers, including the whole of the national banks in this country, as agents for the sale of the loan at the legal commission of a quarter per cent.; but none of them except the national banks did anything, and they only took sixty millions, which Mr. Boutwell says was largely due to "a feeling of patriotism," but no "patriotism" could get them beyond this amount without more inducement in the shape of filthy lucre. He, therefore, tried what he called the "new system," or in plain English disregarded the Act of Congress, and offered terms to the Syndicate which he had not offered to the banks. He gave the Syndicate new bonds in exchange for old ones—but the old ones were not deliverable for three months after the subscription of the new ones, and during these three months interest amounting in all to eleven per cent. per annum ran against the Government on both bonds; in other words, the Syndicate got one and a half per cent. commission for placing the loan in the shape of interest in the first instance, then one-eighth commission, besides whatever remained out of the one-half per cent. allowed by law, after the expenses, such as the printing and engraving and advertising of the whole loan of $200,000,000, had been paid, and what was left of the commission which *might* have been paid, but was not, on the $60,000,000. The question, of course, will suggest itself to everybody's mind, now that he proposes to repeat this process—why does he not go into the market, and offer to the whole world the terms he offers the Syndicate? He has never tried this; why not try it now?

Mr. Boutwell has offered his resignation, and Judge Richardson bids fair to succeed him, though Mr. E. D. Morgan, of this city, is talked of; and some people say there is a strong probability that the State Department will be offered to Mr. Adams, as a sort of concession to the Liberals. Mr. Morgan would bring to the Treasury the strong common sense and experience of a successful business man, whose head has never been ravaged by political nostrums, but even he is unfit to "move the crops." Mr. Adams's appointment would be very valuable to the country, if his advice were taken on matters outside his own office, in which there is at present nothing very important going on. Judge Hoar is talked of for the same place, and with some probability. Mr. Boutwell's administration of his office is admitted on all hands to have been eminently honest; but he has been one of those honest men who, in this world, prepare the way for thieves. His views of the civil service, of the force of law, and of the value of human experience, and of statistics, are those in which thieves delight, as they afford the fullest play to their ingenuity. Nothing has, however, more amused and excited all the loose fishes of the community than his views on the subject of "moving the crops." Since he has revealed his opinion of the duty of the Treasury in this particular, his place has become an object of passionate longing to thousands of "financiers," who never cared a cent for it before. The idea of being able to issue greenbacks every fall "for the relief of the community," is one that fills their imaginations as no earthly dream has ever done before. Hundreds of men in Wall Street would give ten years of life to be allowed "to move the crops" for even one year, and look on Judge Richardson as one of the luckiest dogs that ever drew a check.

The Louisiana Committee have published an address to the people of the United States describing the recent occurrences at New Orleans. It is on the whole a clear and temperate document, and its statement of facts leaves, in our opinion, nothing to be desired. The facts are these—and we commend them to the earnest attention of our readers. There was an election on the 4th of November of Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and members of the State Legislature, besides the Federal officers. The candidates for the governorship and lieutenant-governorship were Kellogg and Antoine on one side, and McHenry and Penn on the other. It passed off quietly, and the returns were duly made to the Board of Canvassers. This Board consisted, under the State law, of the Governor (Warmoth), Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, and two other persons named Lynch and Anderson. The Secretary of State was then a person named Heron, who had been put in the place by Warmoth in place of one Bovee, removed several months before, and the legality of this removal was in litigation before the State courts. When the Board met, the majority resolved that Pinchback, the Lieutenant-Governor, and Anderson were disqualified, as being themselves candidates for office, and Warmoth removed Heron, the Secretary of State, "as a defaulter," and appointed one Wharton in his place. The Board then consisted of Warmoth and Wharton and Lynch, Lynch forming a hostile minority. The excuse Warmoth made for removing Heron was that he had detected him in a plot to falsify the returns, which may or may not have been true; but it was true, and looks suspicious, that Heron had got a duplicate of the great seal of the State engraved several days before in preparation for a possible removal. The majority then proceeded to fill up the vacancies by electing Hatch and Dupont; but Lynch, allying himself with Heron, also proceeded to fill the same vacancies by electing Longstreet and Hawkins. There were then two boards—one presided over by the Governor and in possession of the returns, and the other composed of Lynch, Heron, Longstreet, and Hawkins. Things were in this position when the State Court decided that the removal of Bovee and appointment of Heron to the Secretaryship of State by Warmoth were illegal. This brought Bovee back into office and into Board No. 1, and left Heron "out in the cold." The state of things was now pretty bad, but it was one with which the State law was abundantly competent to deal.

Now comes the usurpation complained of: Kellogg and Antoine, the two candidates on one ticket, without *waiting for either Board of Canvassers to make its count or announce its decision*, rushed into the Federal Circuit Court and filed a bill in equity under the Enforcement Act, making Board No. 1 defendants, alleging that they had a majority at the polls, that 10,000 of their voters had been prevented from voting, and praying to have Warmoth's Board restrained from acting. Pending the suit, an *ex-parte* order was granted in Kellogg's suit based on the charge that Warmoth's Board had improperly made a proclamation and return, directing the United States Marshal to seize and hold the State House, and prevent all persons assembling there under or by virtue of the Warmoth canvass, but to permit the entry of such persons as he (the Marshal) thought entitled to it; in other words, a United States Judge directed the Marshal to seize the State House and pass himself on the qualifications of all persons presenting themselves at the door and professing to be State legislators. Another order issued in Antoine's suit enjoined the Governor of the State from counting the State votes except in the presence of officers appointed by the Court, or from organizing the State Legislature or the Senate, or from interfering in any way with the returns of the Bovee Board; forbid-

ding twenty persons by name from taking seats in the Senate unless they were returned by the Bovee Board, and one hundred persons in like manner from taking seats in the Lower House; forbidding the clerks and officers of both Houses and the Secretary of State from recognizing as members any persons whose names were not on Bovee's list; forbidding the Metropolitan Police from interfering with the assembling of persons returned on Bovee's list; and forbidding the Governor's Board from acting in any manner. Under these orders, the Marshal, in command of a body of United States troops, took and held the State House as directed. All comment on this is unnecessary; but it must be borne in mind that all this was done under that little clause of the Enforcement Act which gives persons the right to sue for the recovery of an office of which they allege themselves to have been deprived by reason of the denial to some person or persons of the right to vote by reason of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. The State government thus set up was promptly recognized by telegraph by the President.

The only answer to the address of the Louisiana Committee from the friends of the Administration appears in the New York *Times*, in the shape of a "dissection" of that document, in two anonymous letters. The main points the writer makes against the committee is an allegation of the moral badness of the Warmoth party, which we suppose there is no denying, and the somewhat sophistical statement that, as Judge Durell's injunctions were levelled against certain individuals by name, they could not be said to be directed against the State Government. "The bill," he says, "was drawn by one of the most experienced chancery lawyers in Louisiana, and the proceedings were in all respects in conformity with the law and practice of the court"; and he evidently thinks that with these securities the people of the United States ought to be fully satisfied. All that Judge Durell has done, it appears, is "to decide that the returns of the election should be deposited in his court with the clerk thereof, that they might be counted by the legal returning officers." Unfortunately, as the Judge decided himself who were the legal returning officers, and employed armed force to prevent the meeting of any legislators not returned by these officers, he may be said to have organized the whole State Government himself, and he did this because some one swore before him that he believed that a wrong was *going to be committed* against him by a board which had not yet acted. Under this "chancery practice," Judge Blatchford could take charge of the entire election machinery of this State on the morning of the election every year, for there are hundreds who would "file bills" declaring their belief that somebody was going to cheat him out of an office or vote. At the pace at which we are now travelling, every District Judge in the country will be converted into a French prefect in about five years, and his "law" would be the queerest mixture ever administered.

We have received a letter from an advocate of the Postal Telegraph who is disappointed that, in our discussion of the subject lately, we both admitted that the Government could cheapen messages and showed that this could not be done by reducing tariffs. He professes to have read Sir James Anderson, and admits his authority; but his recollections of the work differ from our statements. He also calls attention to errors in estimates made some years ago as to the number of messages transmitted in this country. We need only say that we took pains to get at the facts, and have ascertained our own figures to be correct; that in quoting Sir James we spoke from the book, which emphasizes by capitals, italics, and separate paragraphs the *résumé* of principles to which we referred; and that only a very hasty reading could have led him into his error. The *Nation* is trying to give its readers the material for an impartial and intelligent judgment on this subject, and our correspondent will probably be better pleased when we examine wherein a Government telegraph is cheap.

After a brief period of calm following on Mr. Greeley's death, "journalistic circles" are again agitated by wars and rumors of wars. The recovery of the editor of the *World* from what the *Times* believed to be a fatal illness appears to have exasperated the latter paper exceedingly, and he had hardly begun to show himself once more in public when it called him "Mantilini Marble," and accused him of accepting a house on Fifth Avenue as a bribe from the Ring. To which the *World* responded by calling the editor of the *Times* "Jennings" and an "unconscionable ass," and accusing him of ceasing his attacks on the Dock Commissioners in consideration of the appointment of his father-in-law to an office. This seems to have staggered the *Times* a little, but "it came up smiling," and acknowledged the appointment of the father-in-law, but denied that it was made at its request or with its knowledge or approval. Whereupon the *World* uttered a whoop of triumph, and called for the name of "Jennings's" uncle, in order that he too might have an office. To which the *Times* made answer by reproducing a letter of the editor of the *World*, published some months ago in his own paper, as that of "a lunatic," and announced that the author was "off to Bloomingdale." On the other hand, a treaty of peace and amity has been concluded between the *Times* and *Sun*, the latter having been moved by the spectacle of the *Times's* efforts in behalf of "the poor children"; and the two editors, each of whom has repeatedly within a year made public proclamation of his belief that the other was a frightful scoundrel, are now supposed to be co-operating in works of philanthropy. The *Tribune*, in the meantime, maintains its attitude of decorous calm, and surveys the field with "rapt prophetic gaze." But it must often feel, as it hears the rattle of the mud and stones on the tin armor of the combatants, like the pious young man who exclaimed, on his return from his travels, "Ah! what a good time I might have had in Paris if I had never experienced a change of heart."

The snow-storm which followed upon the heels of Christmas promises to give character to the season, of whose severity, indeed, we had unmistakable premonitions in November. The obstructions to travel, however, have not been in proportion to the magnitude and vast extent of the storm—embracing the eastern half of the Mississippi Valley, and the coast—except in the large cities, where a heavy snow-fall has always about the same effect as the horse-distemper for corresponding periods; and except on our suburban lines of railroad, whose managers seem to regard the snow-plough either as an invention of the adversary, or else as an instrument very convenient in the West or in Canada, but not worth keeping on hand in this part of the world. Their superstitious dread of the telegraph, too, in such emergencies as overtook them on Thursday last, is equally noticeable. They permit the suburban resident doing business in New York to cross a great river full of floating ice, in a dense fog, and to spend half a day in a close and crowded waiting-room, without making any effort to inform him of what is being done to clear the road, when the first train will start, or what his chances are of getting home that night. All this might be posted conspicuously for his benefit on a blackboard this side the ferry, with a great saving of his time and peace of mind. But such forethought would be almost miraculous.

Somebody is writing in the New York *Times* about the Erie-Gould transaction in a state of gross ignorance, to which we beg to call the attention of the editor. To talk as he talks about the Erie directors "compounding a felony," in accepting Gould's money, is to make a sad display of mental darkness. The suit of the Erie directors against Gould was a *civil suit*—and had the Erie directors prosecuted it to the last extremity, and got a verdict, they could not have obtained from Gould anything but a sum of money, no larger at the outside than $9,726,541 26 and costs. A few minutes' reading of the New York Code, or a few minutes' conversation with any lawyer, would therefore have prevented the *Times* from indulging in the "moral" blatherskite to which it has been treating its readers on this subject for the last fortnight. The Erie directors have got all from Gould they could have hoped to get by their suit;

whether they ought to have him indicted is another matter, which has not yet come up for discussion.

The stokers of the Gas Company in London recently struck, not for any dispute about wages or hours, but simply because a "union man" had been dismissed, and they hoped to succeed by leaving the city in sudden darkness. The movement was, however, a total failure. Light was supplied in a sufficient degree for three nights by the help of candles, lamps, and calcium lights, and on the fourth the company had filled the places of the strikers completely and were doing full work, and refused to take back any of the old hands. As this strike was followed within a few days by a partial strike among the city police, the question is being vigorously discussed in England whether men filling places in the public service or in the service of companies supplying a public want under a practical monopoly, should not be held under semi-military rules, and be denied permission to resign without a month's notice. The classes of laborers whom the discussion affects more immediately are municipal police, gas stokers, letter-carriers, engine-drivers, and firemen. It is one of the points in the labor question which the continued massing of population on small areas, and in total dependence on little knots of men for certain conditions of safety and sustenance, must bring into greater and greater prominence. A strike of police, or gasmen, or telegraphers, or firemen begins to assume somewhat the character of a strike of the crew of a ship at sea, or of an army in the presence of the enemy. But it is recognized in England that if any class of laborers be required to give up the privilege of striking, they must be compensated for it either by increased wages or increased security, or by pensions.

It is admitted that we shall probably hear within a few weeks of the capture of Khiva by the Russian forces now advancing on it, and this will bring the Czar's frontier close to that of the British in India, and will give them the navigation of the Amu River, and the range called Bolor Dagh in which it takes its rise, and along the base of which a pass leads directly to the Indus north of Cashmere. There is consequently the liveliest discussion going on in the English and Continental papers as to the possible effect that this "rapprochement" will have on English rule in India, but it would appear that a good deal of the talk on the subject is wasted, and that the only effect which the Russian advance is likely to have on Indian politics, for a great many years at least, is a pacific one. The Russian force at Khiva will at best be a small one. An enormous desert lies, and will for ever lie, between it and home; and even after Russia becomes possessor of all Central Asia, as it is to be hoped, in the interests of civilization, she will be before long, it would take a generation to make it a basis for operations against so well organized a military empire as British India now is, even if it is to be believed that the barbarous view of the relations of civilized powers to each other is to be indefinitely maintained. That the approach of the Russians must excite the Hindoos in some degree there is little doubt; but against this must be set the fact that it will probably dishearten the Mussulman Crescentaders, of whom we gave some account a few weeks ago, and who have given the British more trouble of late years than all the Hindoos put together.

One hundred and five members of the "Left," in the French Assembly, almost the entire number of this wing, have published an address to the French people, in which they declare the moderation of their sentiments, their horror of violence in any form, their desire for peaceful reform, and urge once more the lawfulness and expediency of a dissolution of the Assembly, and an appeal to the country. What the programme of the Right is does not yet appear, and it seems as if they did not know themselves. The work of the committee which is engaged in defining the relations of the Executive to the Assembly will clearly amount to nothing permanent, as it will not in any way quiet the radical agitation or render the position of the Right more logical. The leaders of the latter say that whatever the indications of popular sentiment afforded by the election, they are determined to resist, inasmuch as a Radical majority might, under present auspices, be sent back to the next Assembly, and then the Commune would be set up legally by the regular government, and property put in peril. So they will probably wait "for something to turn up"—Thiers to die or resign, for instance—and then, with a man of their own way of thinking in the Presidency, they will order an election, and produce a sweeping Conservative majority, and frame a constitution that will answer their purpose. Whatever the real merits of this programme, nobody who remembers the result of the Napoleonic "plébiscites" can call it a wild one.

Kamehameha V., whose death in Honolulu, on the 11th of last month, is announced, was the elder brother of his predecessor in the miniature sovereignty of the Hawaiian Islands. He and his brother were the sons of Kekuanaoa, the late Governor of the island of Oahu. Their mother, the Governor's wife, had been in her youth the queen, or rather the mistress, of the first Kamehameha, the founder of the line of kings that have borne his name. An old legal maxim intimates, in quaint Latinity, that it is easier to name a man's mother than his father. This principle held in determining the succession of the Hawaiian kings, the noble mother ennobling her progeny. The last two Kamehamehas, though they were not the sons of a king, thus succeeded to the throne on account of the rank which their mother had held. The elder of the two, lately dead, came last to the throne on account of the greater popularity of his predecessor, the younger brother, who was a man of education, and even of culture, in certain departments of English literature. The late king displayed, upon his accession to the throne, not a little of the tyrannical bent, curtailing some important privileges which his people had enjoyed under their constitution of 1840. He was to the last a Hawaiian in all his sympathies, and even in his religion: unlike his younger predecessor, he was unfriendly to the foreign influence in his kingdom; and of the two largest classes of foreigners there, he disliked the Americans rather more than the English—having been, while travelling in this country, grossly insulted on account of his color. He died without naming a successor, and the islands remain at present, and until the reassembling of their honorary representatives, without a ruler. Whether native or foreign influences are to gain the ascendancy in their government, it is at present impossible to say.

Forefathers' Day was celebrated at Peking by the assumption of government by the Emperor in person, with formal ceremonies in the Chinese fashion. The Dowager Empresses relinquished the reins of power in a proclamation issued shortly after the youth's marriage (he is only sixteen), which took place on October 16. All that the public was allowed to see of the wedding pageant was the procession despatched from the Imperial palace to fetch the bride, and which, though not long nor having far to go, made a magnificent show of rich uniforms, banners, horses, trappings, lamps, fans, and umbrellas. Previous to the coming and going of this escort, for several days in fact, there was an open transfer of Imperial furniture to the palace, including some of the wedding presents. While ambassadors from Corea, Annam, and Loochoo were admitted intimately to the ceremony, the resident foreign ministers were excluded, owing to their well-known reluctance to *kotow—i.e.*, to get down on their knees and knock their foreheads against the ground. In the programme of the festivities which commenced immediately after the wedding day, as minutely set forth in an official pamphlet-guide, a place was indeed reserved for the ministers in the balcony at the grand banquet; and if this may be taken to imply a conciliatory disposition on the part of the Emperor as concerns the vexed audience question, his accession to the head of affairs is already an event of some significance for foreign nations having intercourse with China. The anti-foreign influence among his counsellors would have delayed still longer his marriage, which is therefore regarded in itself as a happy omen.

THE MODE OF ELECTING THE PRESIDENT.

THE Convention which assembled at Philadelphia on the 14th day of May, 1787, and adjourned on the 17th of September, consisting of fifty-five members, representing twelve States, is generally conceded to have done its work well. Considering that in those four months it not only solved the most difficult problem that was ever given to a constitutional convention—the problem of devising a new form of government to be adapted to what were essentially new elements of nationality, under conditions in the highest degree perplexing and involved—and that it not only accomplished this chief end of its task, but that it performed its work with such exactitude of detail as to require no subsequent revision, and withal in such clearness and simplicity of language that the modern schoolboy may study the instrument understandingly, its labors seem Titanic when compared with those of recent conventions and legislatures. It is true that immediately after the adoption of the Constitution, certain addenda in the nature of "declaratory and restrictive clauses" were adopted, but these in no manner affect the general plan of government, and it can hardly be doubted now that the government would have gone on substantially as it has gone if the first ten amendments had never been proposed. The men of that day, indeed, had but two ideas of a government, which were an absolute and a limited monarchy; and although their new government was established by themselves, and each Executive head was limited to the brief period of four years, they still could not but look upon government as a power distinct from the people, and to be watched with the same suspicion that their fathers had shown to an hereditary monarchy. It was really sixteen years, October, 1803, before the first amendment in the nature of an alteration was proposed by Congress, and it related to a provision which it is now proposed to alter again—the election of the President.

This amendment of 1803 was, strange to say, little more than a matter of form. As the Constitution originally stood, the electoral colleges, then supposed to be deliberative bodies acting upon their own judgment and exercising discretion in the matter of choosing a President, voted for two persons, not designating either. When all of the electoral votes were counted by the Senate, the person who received the largest number was declared President, and the person receiving the next number Vice-President, provided, however, that each was voted for by a majority of the electors. If two persons received an equal number of votes, the House of Representatives was to select one of them for President, and the other was to become Vice-President. If no one was voted for by a majority of the electors, then the election was to go into the House of Representatives substantially as at present. The operation under the old provision in our late canvass would have been this: all of the Grant and Wilson electors would have voted for Grant, and all but one for Wilson. Grant, thereupon, having the highest number of votes cast, would have been elected President; and Wilson, having the next highest, would have been elected Vice-President. If by some misunderstanding all of the electors had voted for Wilson, so that his number would have equalled Grant's, then the House voting by States would have selected, of the two, Grant as President; and Wilson would become Vice-President in virtue of the votes he received. Apparently for no other reason than to prevent this chance of the two candidates of the victorious party receiving precisely the same number of votes, the amendment known as the twelfth was adopted. In these days of party organization and telegraphic communication, it would probably have been thought a needless precaution.

Two amendments, as we understand the newspaper statements, are now proposed for the election of the President. The first is designed merely to do away with the work of the electors. But as the vote is still to be cast by States, and the proportion which each State is to contribute toward a result is still to include its Senatorial representation, the amendment will leave it still possible that a decided minority of the people of the United States can elect the President—an assertion that will be better appreciated when we remind our readers that a minority of the population is now represented in the Senate by fifty-eight members, and a majority by only sixteen. There is, therefore, no substantial alteration to be effected by this amendment. The electoral colleges have proved a harmless and not expensive part of the machinery, composed generally of respectable gentlemen not in quest of more lucrative offices, and duly submissive to the decree of the party convention which designated the candidate for whom they vote. Such an amendment at this time is indeed chiefly noticeable as an illustration of the manner in which some minds take hold of trivial matters of form, and seem incapable of comprehending that real and substantial improvement may be needed.

But a second and much more important proposition is to extend not only the form of directly electing the President to the people, but to have the President elected by a majority of the people at large, irrespective of State representation; in other words, to throw down all State lines, and to have a majority of the people of the United States elect their executive without regard to States, just as the people of a State now elect the Governor without regard to counties. Apart from the element of what we have termed Senatorial representation, it is apparent that a minority of the people reckoned *per capita* may still elect the President. That is to say, if we should reduce the electoral colleges by striking off the two electors who are generally termed electors at large, and leave the number equal to that of our representatives in the Lower of the two Houses of Congress, it would not follow that a majority of all the voters in the United States could elect a President. This is apparent, if we reflect that in a number of States the electors may receive an almost unanimous vote, while in others they may be chosen by a bare majority. In such a case, every vote cast beyond the necessary majority is a vote thrown away. Fifty thousand majority for A in Massachusetts would not neutralize five thousand majority for B in Connecticut. Under our present system it is possible for less than one-fourth of the voters in the United States to elect their candidate against nearly four-fifths of the votes thrown solidly against him; and if the Senatorial representation were taken away from the electoral colleges, it would still be possible for less than one-third to effect the same result. Thus, if the nine largest States, with Maine, representing a population of 21,175,450, had voted unanimously for Grant, while the remainder, representing a population of only 13,029,503, had given small majorities for Greeley, the latter would have been elected against the expressed intent of more than three-fourths of the people of the United States.

Something may also be said in favor of a direct vote by the whole people from the historic point of view. When the question of choosing the President first came before the Convention, the general opinion seems to have been favorable to his election by the National Legislature, and but two States, Pennsylvania and Maryland, voted in favor of an election by the people. When, however, the Convention came to annex to the office the veto and appointing powers, it was seen that the President should not be the creature of the Legislature, but an independent officer, or rather department, of the Government. The question of his appointment was therefore reconsidered, and it was soon determined that it must proceed, directly or indirectly, from the people. But here the Convention was met by that diversity of suffrage which existed and continued to exist until the "Fifteenth Amendment" came to establish manhood suffrage. The property qualification in one State, the absence of it in another, and the disproportion of slaves in the South, were insuperable difficulties to a direct vote of the people. The Convention therefore determined to do two things: first, to resort to a special representative body which should embrace both the representation of States and the representation of population; second, to leave the method of the appointment of these representatives to be determined by each State for itself. The commonly received notion, that the object of resorting to electors was to secure a deliberative body, was not

the primary idea, nor the controlling reason for establishing the system.

By the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment, and the system of leaving the choice of candidates to the deliberation of two political conventions, about every reason which originally existed for the intervention of electors has been swept away. So far as State rights and State representation are concerned, it is also manifest that with the downfall of the rebellion those ideas have been relinquished by even their old advocates. The growing tendency of the public mind is against them, and our greater means of intercommunication, and closer business and social relations, lead people to regard State diversities if not State lines as inconveniences. Nevertheless, there remains the fact that our country is to a certain extent sectional, having still a South, an East, and a West, with a marked diversity of products, interests, and ideas, and something of sectional pride, prejudice, and jealousy; and that every political incident of the day warns us that the independence of the States has more to do with the maintenance of free government on this continent than some of us have for the last fifteen years been allowing ourselves to believe. It is well for those who value it most, however, to beware of subjecting it to too great a strain, and the present system of Presidential election constitutes a very serious strain.

"THE CARNIVAL OF CRIME."

THERE are said to be about twenty prisoners in the Tombs awaiting or undergoing trial for murder, and every day adds to the list of homicides of greater or less atrocity and audacity, for which there is a general feeling that a number of persons ought to be hanged. This has of course revived the old discussion as to the morality and expediency of the death penalty; in fact, this discussion is renewed every five years, apparently without producing much impression on the public mind, or adding much to our knowledge of the best mode of dealing with crime. There is this that is striking in the present discussion, however—that those of the opponents of the death penalty who take part in it clamor, above all things, for *certainty* in punishment, and are, it would seem, willing, for the sake of certainty, that murderers now in custody should be hanged, leaving the general question of the lawfulness of hanging open for future consideration. This, we think, exhibits a considerable advance upon previous states of mind, and will help, whenever the public turns its attention seriously to the subject of criminal jurisprudence, in bringing it down to the kernel of the whole controversy. We have evidently gone far towards getting rid of the influence of one phrase which has done a good deal to surround the question with a fog, viz., "the sacredness of human life"—a phrase to which probably the great majority of those who use it never attach any definite meaning, and which yet has had a good deal to do with hindering the administration of justice in criminal cases. There is probably not one man in a million who considers life "sacred"—that is, a thing never under any circumstances to be destroyed, or who would not gladly take life to save his own or the lives of his family, or to save female relatives from insult, or to save his country from invasion or conquest. One never hears of it except when society proposes to kill a man as a means of preventing murder, and we hear of it then owing to the deep impression made on the nerves by the spectacle of killing in cold blood, which, with people of sensitive organization, is so strong as to overpower completely all large considerations of remote effects or of general interests. It ought to be observed, however, that this hostility to judicial killing is found most widely diffused in communities in which the horror of assassination is very slight. The Italian dislike of capital punishment is always strongest in districts in which the knife plays the largest part in settling quarrels, and in which the manslayer has least to fear from public opinion. It shows itself also in communities in which, owing to education or circumstances, the manners are gentle, the temptations to violence few, and murder rarely heard of. No American State, so far as our knowledge goes, can at present boast that any such Arcadian peace prevails within its borders, or pretend that it is likely to do so. This country now contains, or is likely for half a century at least in every part of it to contain, the most enterprising and audacious men of the most enterprising and audacious breeds of men on earth—men whom opinion influences little, on whom habits sit lightly, whose roots strike slowly into any soil or society, and whose fierce will finds a ready minister in a strong and cruel hand. There are thousands of such in every city in the Union; and there will be thousands on thousands of them whom we cannot reach by school, or church, or any other civilizing influence, and who will plague us until a change has come over the country which nobody now living will ever see. We could not give their fierce passions a stronger stimulus, or do more to rouse their unbridled imagination, than by making formal proclamation that they might kill their enemies, and kill all who in any way gainsaid them, without any fear of being killed in turn, and without exposure to worse consequences than temporary imprisonment.

The arguments against this view of the matter would fill anybody with astonishment who was not familiar with the working of the Sentimentalist mind and its views as to the nature of proof. One of them is that the fear of being hanged does not deter a man of low moral organization from committing murder, because when he commits the crime he is so intent on the business in hand that he never thinks of the penalty. But, then, if he never thinks of being hanged, he will never think of being imprisoned either; so that, if this doctrine be sound, there is no use in affixing any penalty at all to the commission of crime, and we should occupy ourselves solely in removing all temptation to murder out of everybody's way. This little task, however, we must remind our Sentimentalist friends, is one of those to which nobody but the Supreme Being is equal. To keep a man out of temptation, you have to know the secrets of his heart and to be able to govern his will. In the meantime, it is a fact palpable to the human eye that the attaching of penalties to the commission of certain acts does make people afraid to commit them, inasmuch as most crimes are committed in secret in law-governed communities, and the perpetrators run away and hide themselves immediately afterwards. In short, criminals, like honest men, govern themselves by a consideration of consequences. This is not a novel doctrine certainly, but every little while one has to produce it with as much parade as if it were a new and valuable discovery. Whether hanging impresses the criminal imagination as much as other penalties for the commission of murder is a question about which good men differ, but we believe there is a perfect agreement on the subject among the criminal population. If you ask any criminal whether he would sooner be hanged or be imprisoned, even for life, he will joyfully choose the latter, and it is to be presumed that on this subject he knows his own mind. If we are told, in answer to this, that hanging does not prevent murder, we reply that no penalty would put a stop to any species of crime, and that this argument, if good, would lead to the abolition of jails and police. The efficacy of a penalty is question of more or less, simply. There is some uncertainty in all human justice, and this uncertainty would of itself, even if no men were ever overpowered by their passions, prevent the total disappearance of crime. The question is whether hanging will not wear in the eyes of the criminal a greater look of certainty and irrevocableness than any other punishment; and we think that there can be no doubt that it does. You would have to change human nature to rob it of its terrors. You cannot by any solemnities or enactments make imprisonment anything like as terrible in any country; and in this country, in which governors change, public opinion is forgiving, and the longest terms of imprisonment notoriously short, it is useless to talk of it.

Moreover, even if we resolved to-morrow that imprisonment for life was an adequate penalty for deliberate murder, the question of the educating influence of criminal justice would still stare us in the face, and have to be met. That is, we should still have to consider the effect on persons criminally disposed of affixing to the slaughter

of a human being the same consequences that we affix to highway robbery, arson, rape, and forgery. This was the great and crying defect of the English system of hanging people both for petty theft and for murder. Society is bound to announce its estimate of the gravity of offences in some way, and the only distinct and efficacious way is in the enactment of penalties for various crimes. With what face can it say to a man: "If any person breaks into your dwelling-house in the night, and gags you while he packs up and carries off your valuables, we shall lock him up for life, or until he grows sorry; if, however, he cuts your throat, so as to destroy your evidence, we shall serve him in precisely the same manner"? Or to a criminal: "It makes no difference to us whether, when you commit a robbery, you murder the victim or not. You ought not to do so; but if you do, as we have given up torture in all its forms, and estimate human life very highly, we shall treat you simply as a robber. No matter for which offence you are convicted, your term of imprisonment will probably be the same"? The fact is, that after turning the question over in every light, we are drawn to the conclusion that the very best thing to be done with a deliberate murderer is to remove him from the earth, and that the great problem we have to solve at this moment is not the provision of a new penalty for murder, but the accomplishment of such improvements in criminal procedure as shall make murder trials speedy and conviction certain. The first step in this is to improve the jury law, and the second is to have cases of murder tried before a sufficient number of judges to make appeals unnecessary, and the third is to make trials speedy. If every case of homicide came before the full bench, it would be entailing no hardship on the prisoner to make their rulings on points of law final, or at all events to leave the allowing of a writ of error to their discretion; and if trials were prompt, criminals would not get the benefit of the indifference or pity which takes possession of the public when a long interval elapses between the commission of the offence and the arraignment of the prisoner. Mr. Clinton, a leading criminal lawyer of this city, announces his intention of bringing two bills before the Legislature this winter—one improving the classification of homicides, and the other hastening the trial of appeals—which will be valuable changes, if he secures consideration for them.

THE MORALS AND MANNERS OF THE KITCHEN.

MR. FROUDE'S attempt to secure from the American public a favorable judgment on the dealings of England with Ireland has had one good result—though we fear only one—in leading to a little closer examination of the real state of American opinion about Irish grievances than it has yet received. He will go back to England with the knowledge—which he evidently did not possess when he came here—that the great body of intelligent Americans care very little about the history of "the six hundred years of wrong," and know even less than they care, and could not be induced, except by a land-grant, or a bounty, or a drawback, to acquaint themselves with it; that those of them who have ever tried to form an opinion on the Anglo-Irish controversy have hardly ever got further than a loose notion that England had most likely behaved like a bully all through, but that her victim was beyond all question an obstreperous and irreclaimable ruffian, whose ill-treatment must be severely condemned by the moralist, but whom no sensible man can be expected to weep over or sympathize with. The agencies which have helped to form the popular idea of the English political character are well known; those which have helped to deprive the Irish of American sympathy—and which, if Mr. Froude had judiciously confined himself to describing the efforts made by England to promote Irish well-being *now*, would probably have made his lectures very successful—are more obscure. We ourselves pointed out one of the most prominent, and probably most powerful—the conduct of the Irish servant-girl in the American kitchen. To this must, of course, be added the specimen of "home rule" to which the country has been treated in this city; but we doubt if this latter has really exercised as much influence on American opinion as some writers try to make out. A community which has produced Butler, Banks, Parker, Bullock, Tweed, Tom Fields, Oakey Hall, Fernando Wood, Barnard, and scores of others whom we might name, as the results of good Protestant and Anglo-Saxon breeding, cannot really be greatly shocked by the bad workings of Celtic blood and Catholic theology in the persons of Peter B. Sweeny, Billy McMullen, Jimmy O'Brien, Reddy the Blacksmith, or Judge McCunn. Let us give the devil his due, and refrain from all sham and hypocrisy. It is in the kitchen that the Irish iron has entered into the American soul; and it is in the kitchen that a great triumph was prepared for Mr. Froude had he been a judicious man. The memory of burnt steaks, of hard-boiled potatoes, of smoked milk, would have done for him what no state-papers, or records, or correspondence of the illustrious dead can ever do; it had prepared the American mind to believe the very worst he could say of Irish turbulence and disorder. Not one of his auditors but could find in his own experience of Irish cooking circumstances which would probably have led him to accept without question the execution of Silken Thomas, the massacre of Drogheda, or even the Penal Laws, as perfectly justifiable exercises of authority, and would certainly have made it easy for him to believe that English rule in Ireland at the present day is beneficent beyond example.

Nevertheless, we are constrained to say that in our opinion a great deal of the odium which surrounds Bridget, and which has excited so much prejudice not only against her countrymen, but against her ancestors, in American eyes, has a very insufficient foundation in reason. There are three characters in which she is the object of public suspicion and dislike—(1) as a cook; (2) as a party to a contract; (3) as a member of a household. The charges made against her in all of these have been summed up in a recent attack on her in the *Atlantic Monthly*, as "a lack of every quality which makes service endurable to the employer, or a wholesome life for the servant." And the same article charges her with "proving herself, in obedience, fidelity, care, and accuracy, the inferior of every kind of servant known to modern society." Of course, there is hardly a family in the country which has not had, in its own experience, illustrations of the extravagance of these charges. There is probably nobody who has long kept servants who has not had Irish servants who were obedient, faithful, careful, and even accurate in a remarkable degree. But then it must be admitted that this indictment is a tolerably fair rendering, if not of the actual facts of the case, at least of the impression the facts have left on the mind of the average employer. This impression, however, needs correction, as a few not very recondite considerations will show.

As a cook, Bridget is an admitted failure. But cooking is, it is now generally acknowledged, very much an affair of instinct, and this instinct seems to be very strong in some races and very weak in others, though why the French should have it highly developed and the Irish be almost altogether deprived of it, is a question which would require an essay to itself. No amount of teaching will make a person a good cook who is not himself fond of good food and has not a delicate palate, for it is the palate which must test the value of rules. We may deduce from this the conclusion, which experience justifies, that women are not naturally good cooks. They have had the cookery of the world in their hands for several thousand years, but all the marked advances in the art, and indeed all that can be called the cultivation of it, have been the work of men. Whatever zeal women have displayed in it, and whatever excellence they have achieved in it, have been the result of influences in no way gastronomic, and which we might perhaps call emotional, such as devotion to male relatives or a desire to minister to the pleasure of men in general. Few or no women cook a dinner in an artistic spirit, and their success in doing it is nearly always the result of affection or loyalty—which is of course tantamount to saying that female cookery as a whole is, and always has been, comparatively poor. As a proof of this, we may mention the fact—for fact we think it is—that the art of cooking among women has declined at any given time or place—in the Northern States of the Union, for instance—*pari passu* with the growth of female independence. That is, as the habit or love of ministering to men's tastes has become weaker, the interest in cookery has fallen off. There are no such cooks among native American women now as there were fifty years ago; and passages in foreign cookery books which assume the existence among women of strong interest in their husbands' and brothers' likings, and strong desire to gratify them, furnish food for merriment in American households. Bridget, therefore, can plead, first of all, the general incapacity of women as cooks; and, secondly, the general falling off in the art under the influence of the new ideas. It may be that she *ought* to cultivate assiduously or with enthusiasm a calling which all the other women of the country ostentatiously despise, but she would be more than human if she did so. She imitates American women as closely as she can, and cannot live on the same soil without imbibing their ideas; and unhappily, as in all cases of imitation, vices are more easily and earlier caught than virtues.

She can make, too, an economical defence of the most powerful kind to the attacks on her in this line, and it is this: that whether her cooking be bad or good, she offers it without deception or subterfuge, at a fair rate, and without compulsion; that nobody who does not like her dishes need eat

them; and that her defects of taste or training can only be fairly made a cause of hatred and abuse when she does work badly which somebody else is waiting to do better, if she would get out of the way. She has undertaken the task of cooking for the American nation, not of her own motion, but simply and solely because the American nation could find nobody else to do it. She does not, therefore, occupy the position of a broken-down or incompetent artist, but of a volunteer at a fire, or a passer-by when you are lying in the ditch with your leg broken. The plain truth of the matter is, that the whole native population of the United States has almost suddenly and with one accord refused to perform for hire any of the services usually called "menial" or indoor. The men have found other more productive fields of industry, and the women, under the influence of the prevailing theory of life, have resolved to accept any employment at any wages sooner than do other people's house-work. The result has been a demand for trained servants which the whole European continent could not supply if it would, and which has proved so intense that it has drawn the peasantry out of the fields *en masse* from the one European country in which the peasantry was sufficiently poor to be tempted, and spoke or understood the American language. No such phenomenon has ever been witnessed before. No country before has ever refused to do its own "chores," and called in an army of foreigners for the purpose. To complain bitterly of their want of skill is therefore, under the circumstances, almost puerile, from an economical point of view; while, to any one who looks at the matter as a moralist, it is hard to see why Bridget, doing the work badly in the kitchen, is any more a contemptible object than the American sewing-girl killing herself in a garret at $3 a week, out of devotion to "the principle of equality."

As a party to a contract, Bridget's defects are very strongly marked. Her sense of the obligation of contracts is feeble. The reason why this particular vice excites so much odium in her case is, that the inconveniencies of her breaches of contract are greater than those of almost any other member of the community. They touch us in our most intimate social relations, and cause us an amount of mental anguish out of all proportion to their real importance. But her spirit about contracts is really that of the entire community in which she lives. Her way of looking at her employer is, we sincerely believe, about the way of looking at him common among all employees. The only real restraint on laborers of any class among us nowadays is the difficulty of finding another place. Whenever it becomes as easy for clerks, draughtsmen, mechanics, and the like to "suit themselves" as it is for cooks or housemaids, we find them as faithless. Native mechanics and seamstresses are just as perfidious as Bridget, but incur less obloquy, because their faithlessness causes less annoyance; but they have no more regard in making their plans for the interest or wishes of their employer than she has, and they all take the "modern view" of the matter. What makes her so fond of change is that she lives in a singularly restless society, in which everybody is engaged in a continual struggle to "better himself"—her master, in nine cases out of ten, setting her an example of dislike to steady industry and slow gains. Moreover, domestic service is a kind of employment which, if not sweetened by personal affection, is extraordinarily full of wear and tear. In it there is no real end to the day; and in small households, the pursuit and oversight, and often the "nagging," of the employer, or, in other words, the presence of an exacting, semi-hostile, and slightly contemptuous person is constant. This and confinement in a half-dark kitchen produce that nervous crisis which sends male mechanics and other male laborers engaged in monotonous callings off "on a spree." In Bridget's case it works itself off by a change of place, with a few days of squalid repose among "her own people" in a tenement-house.

As regards her general bearing as a member of a household, she has to contend with three great difficulties—ignorance of civilized domestic life, for which she is no more to blame than Russian mouzhiks; difference of race and creed on the part of her employer (and this is one which the servants of no other country have to contend with); and lastly, the strong contempt for domestic service felt and manifested by all that portion of the American population with which she comes in contact, and to which it is her great ambition to assimilate herself. Those who have ever tried the experiment of late years of employing a native American as a servant, have, we believe, before it was over, generally come to look on Bridget as the personification of repose, if not of comfort; and those who have to call on native Americans, even occasionally, for services of a quasi-personal character, such as those of expressmen, hotel clerks, plumbers, we believe are anxious to make their intercourse with these gentlemen as brief as possible. Most expressmen are natives, and are freemen of intelligence and capacity, but they carry your trunk into your hall with the air of convicts doing forced labor for a tyrannical jailer. If the spirit in which they discharge their duties—and they are specimens of a large class—were to make its way into our kitchens, society would go to pieces.

In short, Bridget is the legitimate product of our economical, political, and moral condition. We have called her, in our extremity, to do duties for which she is not trained, and having got her here have surrounded her with influences and ideas which American society has busied itself for fifty years in fostering and spreading, and which taking hold of persons in her stage of development work mental and moral ruin. The things which American life and manners preach to her are not patience, sober-mindedness, faithfulness, diligence, and honesty, but self-assertion, discontent, hatred of superiority of all kinds, and eagerness for physical enjoyment. Whenever the sound of the new gospel which is to win the natives back to the ancient and noble ways is heard in the land, it is fair to expect that it will not find her ears wholly closed, and that when the altar of duty is again set up by her employers, she will lay on it attractive beefsteaks, potatoes done to a turn, make libations of delicious soup, and will display remarkable fertility in "sweets" and an extreme fondness for washing, and learn to grow old in one family.

PHOTOGRAPHY IN ENGLAND.

London, Nov. 16, 1872.

AMONGST the scientific advances of the year which fall within my proper line of notice are two shown in the annual exhibition of the Photographic Society. The first and most gratifying is an improvement in the heliotype process, by which a delicacy and brilliancy rivalling the silver print is obtained. I am not enabled to say in what the improvement consists, or whether it be a mechanical or chemical discovery on which it depends. Whichever it may be, it is due to Lieutenant Abney of the Royal Engineers, who has charge of the photographic instruction at Woolwich, one of the best of the non-professional photographers of the day, as well as the most accomplished chemist amongst the practical photographers; an indefatigable experimenter; and, by the intelligence of his Government, placed in a position to make his tastes and talents available for public interests. A little landscape of his in heliotype hangs with the silver prints, and scarcely the most careful scrutiny can detect any difference. Its shadows are as rich and transparent and its gradation as delicate as silver work, and the subject is such an one as has hitherto been found to present the greatest difficulty to callographic rendering. I do not know if I stated in a former letter on photography what I will in any case briefly restate, that the main and only important difference between the heliotype and the Albert-type is that the printing film, which in either case is of chromatized gelatine exposed under a negative and then washed until it forms a relief of the subject, is in the latter attached to a plate of glass, and in the former is made so substantial that it is removable from the support. The laboratory under the charge of Lieut. Abney works under license from the Heliotype Company, but in several prints exhibited this year has attained results which are not equalled by the original workers of the process; and for the first time since I have been acquainted with its results, we see work which promises to supplant the slow, uncertain, and by the common method unstable photo-print. In the copying of engravings, maps, and drawings, in line or grain, it has long been equal to the older methods; and if the new attainment marks a standard of work and is not a single happy hit, we may soon hope to see a purely mechanical reproduction of photographic impressions; but a happy hit, even, must depend on a principle, whose application once made makes absolute success quite feasible. The difficulty in all the results I have hitherto seen (with the exception of some few prints by Albert of subjects of peculiar character), has been a granulation too visible and too little under control to be pleasant, compared to the subtle gradation of the photo-print; and this little print of Lieut. Abney's is like a sign of land to men who had begun to fear they had missed the aim of their voyage.

The other result I allude to is one which will be more generally appreciable and popular, the enlargement by the Autotype Company of small negatives of a suitable character to large ones, from which prints are made in carbon, which are absolutely indistinguishable from prints from an original negative, the minutest details in a negative 8 by 10 inches being reproduced in a print 24 by 30, with a delicacy which the naked eye cannot analyze. In a pictorial point of view this is a great advantage, enabling the tourist photographer to carry with him a suitable apparatus of great delicacy, whose work shall be enlarged to rival the results of the ponderous apparatus of the photographer-in-large, who travels with a van and assistants. Size is not a merit *per se*, but for certain purposes the power to enlarge the little negative of 5 by 4 inches to one 25 by 20 is of unquestionable value, as for instance for educational uses, and to supplant the huge direct views of the great monuments of the Old World which have attained a certain popularity even in America.

The autotype mechanical process has also some notable press-work, by a modification of the Albert-type, particularly one interior of Norwich Cathedral, which, though it has not the richness and depth of a silver print, seems quite as satisfactory in its rendering of gradations. On the whole, therefore, the year's photographic results are full of promise of mercantile usefulness. As to the artistic results, there are some examples of landscape, portraiture, and of the combination printing in which Messrs. Robinson & Cherrill have so long led the way, which it were well worth while to see in our own atmosphere. There are two landscapes by Mr. Hudson of Ventnor, of a large size (as nearly as I can guess, about 20 by 25 inches), which are absolute marvels of exquisite rendering of landscape details in a broad, tasteful manner, with a perfection of manipulation which leaves no apparent room for advance beyond, and, as *pure* photography, as near the standard of perfection as anything I can conceive.

What, perhaps, would interest the general art public, not technically artistic, is the array of dry-plate work, of which there are samples of several kinds of plates sold commercially, and of which it may be said, that though the results are short of the best wet-collodion work, they are better than the average, and but little behind the best, dry-plate work of men who exercise their utmost skill and experience in the preparation of their plates.

In the progress of photography this is a most notable fact, that a hurried and round-the-world voyager may carry with him from his point of departure a stock of prepared plates, and, without any previous training beyond that necessary to enable him to judge of the intensity of light and its effect on a sensitive preparation of standard quality, photograph any objects on his way which may strike his attention, repack and keep his plates until his return to civilization, and hand them over to a practical photographer to be developed, and secure nearly as good (and quite as valuable) results as if he had been an experienced photographer. I have in a previous letter alluded to this fact, but the display in this year's exhibition of the Photographic Society of the fruits of these commercial preparations can but strike any one in the least conversant with such subjects with the importance in an illustrative point of view of this new facility.

In point of fact, photography is in England reaching a commercial importance and productiveness well merited by the care and enterprise devoted to it. Numbers of intelligent amateurs give a large portion of their time to it; many of the public educational institutions have chairs of lecture devoted to it, whose occupants, accomplished photographic chemists, elaborate and employ the formulas and make the discoveries which have laid the basis of this mercantile success. Photography is as essential a part of a complete technical education for an engineer or surveyor as drawing; no scientific expedition is complete now without a photographer, and the recent improvements in mechanical and chemical appliances make his work far more certain and far less laborious than it has been hitherto. I don't know what has been done in America in late years, but I presume that we manage as we do in the civil service—take the first sufficiently well-recommended applicant and trust to his finding out the business if he is able, and trust equally to the chance of his being able.

Across the Channel there have been some interesting discoveries made; one of which, a printing process by the aid of a plate photographically impressed and exposed to the vapor of mercury, seems to have a basis of practical utility, but has not thus far attained it; but another, which depends on the power of certain metals of decomposing nitrate of silver by contact, even when dry, has a minor value of a positive character, especially in printing complicated and delicate patterns on cloth; but neither has yet come fairly into the field of artistic cognizance. On the whole, therefore, we may say that photography has kept pace in advance with the sciences, rather than lagged behind with the arts.

W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

THE GREENBACK MYSTERY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Will the *Nation* oblige a very old reader by answering the following questions? I think it will be conceded that the points raised are worthy of intelligent discussion:

1. What would be the effect of making greenbacks and United States bonds convertible, the one form of indebtedness into the other, at the pleasure of the holder of either? Would such an arrangement cause a rise in the value of greenbacks or a fall in the value of bonds, or would there be an advance in the one and a decline in the other to a common and intermediate level?

2. What effect would such mutual convertibility of greenbacks and bonds immediately have on the National Bank note currency?

3. Is there anything wrong morally or economically in the Government's allowing its creditors to choose whether the evidences of its indebtedness to them shall be in the form of bonds with interest or greenbacks without interest?

4. If the option to convert greenbacks into bonds, and *vice versa*, should result in making greenbacks as valuable as gold, would or would not this be equivalent substantially to a resumption of specie payments, and with less disturbance than any other mode of resuming?

5. If such option should cause a decline in the value of the bonds below par, could they be restored to par by an increase in the rate of interest?

6. What advantage does the Government derive from endorsing the National Bank notes in preference to issuing its own notes directly?

7. What advantage do the people derive from the issue and use of National Bank note currency in preference to greenbacks so-called?

8. What advantages would the banks lose if the existing privilege of issuing the National currency or any kind of credit currency were withdrawn, provided the Government should agree to furnish convertible greenbacks, in lieu of all existing credit currency; and provided that all other interference on the part of Government in their internal affairs should cease? In other words, that banking should hereafter be free except in the matter of issuing currency?

H. M. F.

Bay City, Dec. 25, 1872.

[1. If you mean convertible at par, it would after all amount simply to an offer of the Treasury to sell U. S. bonds at about 88, and it is upon the probable effect of this you must speculate. The bonds would doubtless go off rapidly, and if payment in greenbacks was insisted on, and the greenbacks so paid were withheld from circulation or destroyed, the remainder would undoubtedly rise in value; that is, there would be a contraction of the currency with its usual consequences. Conversion above par is already within everybody's reach who chooses to buy or sell bonds in Wall Street.

2. The effect would be the effect of a contraction of the currency; that is, the purchasing power of all money would be increased.

3. None that we know of; its creditors already possess this option.

4. No; greenbacks might have as much purchasing power as gold, and yet specie payments be a long way off. To resume specie payments, the community has to *buy* specie with commodities, and either add it to or substitute it for the existing currency. Nothing is "equivalent to specie payments" which leaves paper money irredeemable on demand.

5. Most likely; but the rate of interest is only one element in the public credit.

6. It got rid of a certain amount of its bonds without having to increase the volume of legal tenders.

7. None that we know of. Irredeemable paper issued by the Government, and irredeemable paper of other people that the Government agrees to see paid in its own irredeemable paper, are, humanly speaking, the same thing to all holders.

8. It would depend on what the banks gave for the "convertible greenbacks," or, in other words, on what terms the Government furnished them. It is to be presumed that the Government would not supply money to banks for the asking.—Ed. Nation.]

WHAT SHOULD WE PAY FOR LIFE INSURANCE?

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: On the 30th day of November last the Mutual Life Insurance Company, the largest life insurance company on this continent, if not in the world, announced officially its purpose to reduce the premiums for its policies by from 11 to 22 per cent., according to the class of insurance. This announcement kindled a blaze of discussion in the public prints which has, for the mass of the people, thrown much valuable light into the dark places of life insurance, its theories, its foundations, its mathematics.

The controversy was begun and continued by twenty-two other mutual life insurance companies, which contended that such a reduction was unsafe, a proposition the maintenance of which was an unequivocal confession of their own inability to make a similar reduction. But the failure to show that

the Mutual could not safely do business at the proposed rates was as conspicuous as the attempt to show it was desperate.

The contending companies further argued that the reduction would be unjust to the present policy-holders or co-partners in the Mutual. This was, for reasons which I shall presently give, true; and they succeeded on *this* issue in arousing so formidable an opposition that the Mutual abandoned its project, at the same time reiterating its ability to carry out the plan of reduced premiums.

It is supposed by the contending parties that the question is thus settled and further discussion stopped. But the intense interest and enquiry which were awakened cannot be so easily satisfied and dismissed. Life insurance our people must have. Life is a venture upon which all men stake their entire capital, of whatsoever that capital consists. To the average man it is a venture on which are staked, not alone *his* capital, but the security, the comfort, and the hopes of those dependent upon him. That venture should be protected, as other and less important ones are protected, by insurance. It is, therefore, a question of vital consequence to the individual and to the community whether life insurance can be furnished at a lower premium than has heretofore been exacted by the majority of companies. This question is now, for the first time, fairly sprung upon our people, and they sadly mistake the temper of mankind who believe that discussion of it can be silenced by any such cowardly truce as that now declared by the late contending companies.

Whatever the Mutual Life may do, or agree *not* to do, it cannot blot out its own record, and that record proves beyond dispute or cavil that the company, in common with other mutual companies, has been charging for its policies from twenty to twenty-five per cent. more than under a prudent management its policies need have cost. Strenuous efforts are being made to close the controversy provoked by the Mutual; but it has already gone far enough to prove to the public that the experience of mutual life insurance companies flatly contradicts their theories; that high premiums are justified by no consideration either of safety or equity. Why, then, shall we continue to pay them?

It is alleged that to make its policies secure against all the possible adverse contingencies of the future, it was necessary to make the false assumptions of mortality and interest from which have resulted the excessively high premiums charged by the Mutual, and, indeed, the laws of certain States now compel life insurance companies to make extravagant provision against extraordinary and almost impossible contingencies. In so doing, the business and the beneficence of life insurance have been greatly circumscribed, for here, as elsewhere, it is the first step that costs, and the exaction of these unnecessarily high premiums has put life insurance out of the reach of those who most need it.

There should, no doubt, be provision made for a greater mortality and a less rate of interest than have been experienced, for "assurance" here should be made "doubly sure." But who shall make that provision?

In a mutual company it is made by the insured. They are virtually co-partners who invest all their overpayments in the conduct of their business. Thus it is that none but capitalists—those who can afford to pay more than the cost of life insurance—can under the mutual system avail themselves of its benefits.

In a stock life insurance company there is charged only the premium necessary to meet all the probable contingencies of the business, and, for those dangers which are imagined to exist somewhere on the shadowy boundary between the remotely possible and the utterly impossible, ample provision is made by the pledge of capital stock.

The injustice which defeated the purpose of the Mutual Life to reduce its rates, which it could safely have done, was the injustice of withholding the overpayments of its present policy-holders and capitalizing them for the security of new entrants. Low premiums are incompatible with mutual life insurance—the theory of which is that its patrons shall act the double part of insurers and insured.

The disadvantages of the mutual plan of life insurance are thus apparent:

1. It is *uncertain*. If you pay a fixed premium, you get a variable insurance. If you buy a fixed amount of insurance, you pay a variable premium, always too large, and always yourself supplying the capital to which you pay tribute.

2. It is *expensive*. It is a business where thousands or tens of thousands of copartners are represented by agents whose fidelity no one watches because no one can afford to watch it, and whose extravagance no one rebukes because no one has sufficient interest to detect it, or, if he has detected it, finds it impossible to awaken his copartners to the fact.

3. It is *dangerous*. Because the immunity from inspection and criticism enjoyed by its officers, together with the opportunity for unsafe expenditure which its extravagant premiums afford, are temptations to which the custodians of trust funds ought never to be exposed.

4. It is *delusive*. Because, although it promises to afford insurance at cost by returning to the insured their overpayments, it does not and cannot do this. Under the best management, the expenses must bear a constant ratio to the premiums paid, for the chief outlay is in procuring the business. Take the case of the Mutual Life. It has received cash premiums of $64,677,770, to procure which it has paid on the average a commission of 9.25 per cent., or $5,984,789. If the lower premium had been charged, it would have received about $50,500,000, a commission of 9.25 per cent. upon which would have been $4,671,250. Thus in the single item of commissions the policy-holders of the Mutual have paid out at least $1,300,000 unnecessary expenses to support the high-rate mutual plan. And all mutual policy-holders, in addition to these unnecessary expenditures which go to make up that fictitious "cost" at which they are promised their insurance, if they suffer their policies to lapse (as, disgusted by the false promises and sorry performances of such companies in the matter of dividends, seven-tenths of them do), lose the sum of their several overpayments also—that is, they not only furnish the capital which gives them security, paying liberally for the privilege, but also in certain contingencies which often arise, sink the capital they have loaned beyond hope of recovery. The annual loss to the policy-holders in the mutual life insurance companies of this country from this cause alone is not less than $5,000,000.

If any business is worth doing, it is worth doing in a business way. The business way of doing life insurance is, to charge a rational price, give a clear contract and a definite amount of insurance. This is done only by the low-rate stock companies, which have these advantages:

1. The stock system is *economical*. Capital is invested, and those who invested it are sure to enforce care in the selection of risks, prudence in the making of investments, and economy in expenditures. Every dollar handled is their own dollar, and not the money of a careless client. It will by this token be hazarded, invested, or expended with the utmost caution. In point of fact, the stock life insurance companies have for some years past been furnishing insurance from twenty to twenty-five per cent. cheaper than the mutuals, for many of the latter have made no returns whatever to their customers, and cannot hope to make any while their present management continues. The silent influence of this fact has created a wholesome public opinion which the Mutual Life was shrewd enough to detect, but was precluded from obeying because of the inherent weakness and injustice of its system.

2. Stock life insurance is *safe*. If the Mutual, without a capital, could safely reduce its rates, how much more are those companies safe which have pledged to the protection of their clients in extremities hundreds of thousands of dollars in the shape of capital stock? As a class these, the stock companies, have to-day a standing and a record, achieved by years of honorable dealing, which put their safety as much beyond doubt or peradventure as the safety of the Mutual itself.

The Mutual Life failed in its proposed reduction of rates, because it could not abandon the false theory which makes a false premium necessary. But the reform is not stayed by the surrender of the Mutual. It will not stop for theories or theorems. It must continue until life insurance is founded on the solid rock of actual experience, and is offered to men in a plain, straightforward way and at a reasonable price.

A Business Man.

JOHNSON AND JOHNSTONE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Unless I am greatly mistaken, not only is *Johnson* an English and *Johnston* a Scotch name, but they are entirely different names with a different meaning. *Johnson* is an ordinary patronymic, *John's son; Johnston, Johnstone,* or, in old Scotch, *Johnstoun,* is a Gentile name (if that be the proper technical adjective), and means *John's Town.*

Carl Benson.

December 28.

Notes.

Holt & Williams have made arrangements to republish in this country the *Fortnightly Review*, at $6 per annum, or 50 cents a number—one-half the price at which it has heretofore been sold here.

—It would seem as if the new birth of the American Ethnological Society a couple of years ago, when it became the Anthropological Institute of New York, had spent itself in the publication of the first number of the journal of

the Institute, containing the transactions of two or three meetings. In November last, some of the members of the parent society, wishing to revive the memories of it, called a social meeting in this city, at which there was so much interest manifested that it was resolved to revive the Ethnological Society under its old title. This has been done, and the society, retaining its collections and records, will doubtless soon resume its activity. We think it a pity that there must be two societies instead of one, and cannot say that we anticipate a very brilliant career for either of them.

—One of the most useful departments of that excellent paper, the *Railroad Gazette*, is its monthly record of train accidents, a record giving all the essential particulars of cause and effect, together with the amount of injury to life and limb. That for November is the latest published, and shows 103 accidents, of which nearly one-half were collisions, and less than a dozen not preventible by human foresight, and which brought death to 37 persons, and various degrees of injury to 114. The summary of accidents since February exhibits a steady increase beginning with July. Before that month they numbered successively 21, 27, 22, 27, 44; then 31, 63, 71, 90, 103—a total in ten months of 499, or more than $1\frac{3}{5}$ a day, including Sundays. In the same time 246 persons were killed and 809 injured—or between 3 and 4 every day; and the dreadful accidents last month will swell these figures considerably. We may point out to the *Gazette* its omission to take for its summary the corrected statistics for August as given on p. 416 of its issue of September 21. Owing to this circumstance, its totals are too small for the ten months ending November 30. As these are the only records kept for the whole United States, the greatest possible accuracy is desirable; especially since the returns are not official, and at best must fall short of the truth.

—We print the following as a specimen of a kind of work of which the New York *Times* does a great deal; it must be remembered in reading it that the proceeding against Jay Gould was a civil suit, not a criminal prosecution.

[*The "Nation," Dec.* 26.]

"The suit of the Erie Railroad against Jay Gould for $9,000,000 has had a singular termination, in the restitution by Gould of property valued at $6,000,000, if forced to sale, but at $9,000,000 if properly handled. The proposition came from Gould himself, and was promptly accepted by the directors, and the proceedings abandoned. The newspapers denounce the Board fiercely for sacrificing the interests of justice to the interests of the road, and accuse them of 'compounding a felony,' and declare that Gould has made enough by the rise in stock to compensate him for his display of virtue. This last theory, however, is absurd; he could only have made comparatively a small sum by the rise in the stock. His motives it is difficult to speculate about profitably. They were, probably, as usual, mixed. Nobody who has watched a long and heavy litigation can believe that he had much to fear from the results of the lawsuit; but he is cowardly, fickle, and impressionable, and was probably sick of the Erie game, and intent on some other field of action. The conduct of the directors is not so easily passed on as it seems. They *might* have punished Gould severely in the courts, but the chances were against them, and they have now certainly fined him in an enormous sum."

[*Rendering of the above by the New York "Times," Dec.* 26.]

"If we had defended the recent little transaction between Jay Gould and the Erie directors, the *Nation* would certainly have opposed it. As we opposed it, the *Nation*, of course, defends it, and it does so on the following 'high moral grounds,' to wit: Mr. Gould could not have made 'enough by the rise in stock to compensate him for his display of virtue.' Thus, we see that the principle involved goes for nothing—everything turns on the question, how much did Jay Gould make? Again, the *Nation* pleads in behalf of Gould that his motives in making the 'restitution' were 'mixed,' and that the Erie directors could not have brought Gould to justice without great difficulty. Therefore, if you cannot bring a criminal to justice easily, let him go. Gould has now the *Nation* and the *Tribune* on his side, so we are inclined to think those people must be wrong who say that Gould is a swindler, and that it is a public scandal to see the corporation which he has plundered making terms with him."

["*Times*," *Dec.* 28.]

". . . We have found those eminent authorities, S. L. M. Barlow, Esq., the *Tribune*, and the *Nation*, to be *of opinion that to assist a swindler to escape justice is quite right.*"

The italics in the above are ours. The indulgence of the public for this sort of thing, provided it be done in the name of "reform," or some other good cause, explains in part how it is that reform movements so often end, in morals, by substituting one form of knavery for another, and in politics by substituting one set of rascals for another.

—Among those who did not see the close of the year now past, we regret to count John F. Kensett, one of our most refined landscape artists. Mr. Kensett died suddenly of heart disease on the 14th of December, at the untimely age of fifty-four years. He leaves his peculiar sphere of art entirely unoccupied, having had no rival in a certain delicate, purified, luminous representation of nature of which he kept and carried away the secret. His early apprenticeship as an engraver to his uncle, Alfred Daggett, taught him a clear and accurate touch; but his subsequent labors in color show no trace of that pedantry of drawing which sometimes gives unpleasant hardness to scenery of the kind he selected for his special work. He learned a graceful, capricious pencilling with the brush, which imprints upon all his outdoor compositions a singular airy charm. Most people who buy pictures at all possess one or more of these green mysteries of Kensett's, where there treating perspective of a forest is blotted with lights and tangled leaves, and the course of a transparent stream is effaced under curtains of interpenetrating boughs. Kensett never measured himself with solemn or tragical landscape; the faint reticulation of tossing leaves in a woodland distance, and the light push and resiliency of soft growths battling for the open sun, were the forms that Kensett sympathized with and never tired of describing. He hunted very keenly for the real effects of natural light and hue, and in his chosen thicket scenes he would represent the evanescent flutter among the branches in the true way by the *taches* and gleams of color rather than by any ineffectual attempts at drawing and after-tinting. Another very successful line of Mr. Kensett's was his representation of the ocean; he never committed himself to true marine, but he was very happy in studies of rocks where the ocean filled the distance as a tint or breadth of relief. In such compositions his keen truth of values and colors made the baldest scenery appear rich with the fragrance of nature; the air seemed salt and fresh, and the rocks pure with the simplicity and solitude of the shore. A sense of free ventilation was singularly apparent in all his pictures. The history of so-called panoramic art in this country swept over Mr. Kensett's career without affecting it in the smallest degree. He confined himself loyally to his chosen vignettes and perspectives, where the range never exceeds what can be taken in by the pupil of the eye without moving. Altogether, Mr. Kensett was a pastoral artist, who contrived to impress his own moral refinement upon his work. He was greatly beloved by young artists, whom he praised before crowds and criticised in dialogue. His action among his fellow-academicians was dictated by the urbanity and conciliatory delicacy of his temperament; what was reactionary in his counsels was due to a natural sanity and sense of balance that he had. He was a working member, and his practical guidance will be missed by the idler men. He died President of the Artists' Fund Charitable Society. His birth, March 22, 1818, was at Chester, Connecticut. He travelled in Europe from 1845 to 1850, and of late painted alternately in this city and in his studio near Darien, Connecticut. The sole public charge reported to have been confided to him was the superintendence of the ornamentation of the Capitol, as a member of the National Art Committee. His death, as a bereavement to the art-world for the year, must be added to that of Sully, who died at a great age in Philadelphia, after having portrayed two or three generations of his fellow-men in shadowy, Lawrence-like portraits, and to that of Catlin, whose hand has left conscientious documents of a great many Indian customs soon to be as obsolete as those of the Druids.

—Mr. Boughton's pictures have been attracting attention at Knoedler's gallery in this city, after a good deal of generous admiration spared for them in London. He calls them "The Idyl of the Birds," and shows in them the nest-builder, the migrating bird, and the songster dead, like Otway, in the cold. Appropriate human figures, watching the stages of the trilogy, extend the sympathies of the several compositions. The paintings are three in number. Mr. Boughton, when his conception first visited him, imagined a single picture, to be called "Summer is gone on Swallows' Wings," and now, indeed, seen as the central composition; but the thought has been enlarged to its advantage, and the figures of maidens on either side are very beautiful supporters. The pictures exhibit Mr. Boughton's success with an order of painted types which he has created, and which he needs to carry out his peculiar kind of thoughts. He almost calls up the illusion that we see his disembodied idea. His large-eyed women, slender and almost translucent, wrapped in reverie, clothed in robes that have forgotten fashion and are worn into softness of drapery and tenderness of color, seem less like women than like thoughts. They are carefully kept between real life and dreamland. It is the very special ability of Mr. Boughton to represent a class of figures which perfectly clothe his throng of delicate ideas, without reminding us of what is eccentric in humanity, or, on the other hand, wearying us with the high claims and tiresome perfections of allegory. In the principal of these pictures, the two forms that watch the migrating birds are in Mr. Boughton's well-known vein of intellectual, restrained, but profound emotion. They cling together as orphan sisters might do, the sitting figure leaning with homelike familiarity against the knees of the standing figure, the faces touched with desolation gathered from the dark sea, the barren broom, and the departing flocks. The distinction of their countenances, their family look, their simplicity and nobility, make them companions for

the best moments of a thoughtful man; at the same time, there is no temptation to criticise the idealization of their forms, or to wonder rudely at their throwing themselves into the attitudes of a parable. A painter or a poet, so long as he can imagine so beautiful and adequate a language, as it were, in which to express his fancies, need not fear that he will lose his hold on the public regard. Mr. Boughton claims our admiration, again, when he renders so subtly and intellectually the aspects of landscape. The backgrounds in the central picture and in the final one are, as pieces of nature, admirably painted, while they strengthen and nourish the beauty of the fable in a way unattainable to a mere landscapist. Mr. Boughton, like Mr. Vedder and some others of our painters, excites question among his old public and compeers by choosing to live in London instead of New York or his native Albany. If we think it hardly flattering when our more cultivated painters decline our company and prefer painfully to assimilate themselves with other civilizations, our remedy probably is to prepare as swiftly as we can the atmosphere in which the refinements of art can bloom, and the order of things in which atelier-study can be prosecuted.

—Under date of December 8, Mr. Sutton F. Corkran writes us as follows about the Cesnola collection of antiquities, then about to be shipped from London to New York, to be finally deposited in our Metropolitan Museum. It contains, says our correspondent, specimens of an art which, though often quoted, has as yet been little known. What may be the early Phœnician style is a question which will be answered practically by direct reference to the antiquities brought over from Cyprus by the indefatigable discoverer of the remains of the ancient city of Idalium and of the temple of Venus at Golgoi. Cyprus gave to the Grecian worship two divinities, Aphroditê, the Phœnician Astarte, and Heraklês, the Goddess of Love and the Ideal of Strength. Among the statues belonging to the Cesnola collection, special mention must be made of a life-size Heraklês, wearing the lion's skin head-dress, which covers at the same time his shoulders, and holding in his right hand a small knotted club, in his left the famous quiver of poisoned arrows which freed Dejaneira from the grasp of Nessus. From this rude art we see at once from whence sprang the later Hellenic art. We have now the Heraklês of a people not as yet fettered by the laws of design, but who represent their idea in all its roughness. We see no massive limbs, no awe-inspiring muscles; but we do find the tranquil appearance which Greek art took as a model from its Assyrian, Egyptian, and Phœnician masters. The chief interest in this collection is that it brings back to the memory the monuments which preceded, and it forms the missing link between the ancient Phœnician and what may be termed the Phidian art, and thus, thanks to General di Cesnola, another step has been added to the literature of sculpture. A small fresco, which General Cesnola caused to be sawn away from the base of the statue, is perhaps a better specimen of what might be termed Assyrian-Greek art than any possessed by the European museums. The total absence of perspective which, in the Nineveh marbles, causes the animals to walk over each other's backs, is here very remarkable, but at the same time we find the figure of Heraklês to be the same as that found on the earliest coins of Cyprus. "Perrupit Acheronta Herculeus labor" is the subject represented. A series of life-size figures represents the priests of Aphroditê, draped and bearded, wearing the curious Phœnician head-dress, under which appears the curled hair; they hold in their hands the dove, sacred to Cypris, the Phœnician Venus.

—The workmanship of these remarkable remains can only be determined after the most careful study. Their recovery furnishes a field of enquiry for years to come—ancient art, religion, and customs will each demand a careful investigation. The inscriptions do not as yet help by any means towards the elucidation of the subject, for who as yet can decipher them? Cuneiform, Phœnician, and Greek characters appear mixed together in what seems a hopeless jumble, more especially as the formation of the letters is not characteristic of any of the above types. The Duc de Luynes, M. de Vogüé, and others have attempted to decipher the Cyprian alphabet, but with but small satisfaction to themselves. It would take too much space to enumerate the many articles now being forwarded by Gen. di Cesnola and M. Feuardent to New York; but special mention may be made of the collection of iridescent glass, which radiates in colors only to be produced by centuries of interment; also of the many curious terra-cotta figures, not the least interesting being the bearded Venus, an hermaphrodite representation of the early worship of the Cyprian Goddess of Love. Gen. di Cesnola received lately a letter from Mr. Layard of Assyrian reputation, in which Mr. Layard states that he believes the discovery of this collection to be equal in value to that made by himself. Such a voucher will naturally have great weight with the New York public; and General di Cesnola himself must feel that his labors are appreciated, and his enthusiasm shared, by those who really love the study of archæology for its own sake, and not as a means of gaining popular applause. Another gentleman who has interested himself in the most untiring and zealous manner must also be mentioned. M. Feuardent, the eminent coin dealer, 61 Great Russell street, London, has made himself many American friends, since this collection has been under his roof, by his courteous readiness to answer all enquiries, and to facilitate the inspection of the antiquities placed by Gen. di Cesnola under his charge. M. Feuardent takes so much interest in the collection that he will offer, when the collection is finally unpacked, to help in the arrangement, and to place his services at the disposition of the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum at New York. We learn from the *Athenæum* that Mr. S. Thompson, who prepared the extensive series of photographs from objects in the British Museum, to which we have already referred once or twice, has undertaken to illustrate in a similar manner these antiquities from Cyprus. The accompanying letterpress will be from the pen of Mr. Sidney Colvin.

—The London Society of Biblical Archæology listened, on December 2, to a paper by Mr. George Smith on certain fragmentary stone tablets from Nineveh preserved in the British Museum, dating from the reign of Assurbanipal, King of Assyria, B.C. 668, and containing the text of the Deluge, lately deciphered by him. They are copies of still more ancient tablets, which Mr. Smith refers to the year 1600 B.C., and the Deluge text is but part of a series concerning the reign of a king named (apparently) Izdubar. It states of him that, falling ill, he went to see Sisit, who was supposed to have been translated, and who, in answer to a question from Izdubar, repeats the story of the Flood; how the gods warned him of its coming, and bade him build a ship, and put his family and all the seed of life into it, and then launch it in the sea. There is a break of fifteen lines, in which the particulars of its construction were probably described, and, when the narrative is resumed, Sisit is finishing the ark and coating it with bitumen, and places inside his family, his servants, and his treasures, and the beasts of the field; then enters it himself and closes the door on the commencement of the Flood. This is next described, and also the part which several deities had in bringing it about.

> "I was carried through the sea. The doer of evil,
> and the whole of mankind who turned to sin,
> like reeds their corpses floated."

The storm lasted six days and nights. The ship is stranded on a mountain in Nizir, east of Assyria, and Sisit sends out first a dove, next a swallow, and, lastly, a raven. Then follows the sending of the animals out of the ship, when Sisit builds an altar and offers sacrifices. His story told, Sisit rewards his listener with directions for curing himself of his malady; and, after carrying them out, Izdubar returns to his city, Erech. Sir H. C. Rawlinson, president of the society, in a letter to the *Athenæum*, written after the reading of Mr. Smith's paper, states his conviction that the twelve tablets of Izdubar represent the tewlve months, and all together constitute a "local rendering of the old universal solar myth"; and that each tablet will be found to embody a legend especially connected with the month, or zodiacal sign, to which it refers." The eleventh tablet treats of the Deluge, and the eleventh month is called in Babylonian "the rainy," corresponding to Aquarius of the Zodiac.

—A Shanghae reader of the *Nation*, writing at the close of the summer, requested of us an article on polar exploration as being appropriate to the season. When his letter reached us, however, the winter was already in sight, and our space prevented any extended account of the expeditions actually at work in the polar regions. Nor have we more space now than merely to enumerate them. In the Old World, the Swedish expedition under Prof. Nordenskjöld is to explore the sea to the east of Spitzbergen, winter in a portable cabin on one of the Seven Islands, and in the spring of next year push for the North Pole with reindeer and sledges. The Austrian expedition under Lieuts. Weyprecht and Payer will explore in a steamship the waters between Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla, and winter in the Gulf of Timour, spend a second year in the waters between Cape Severo-Vostotchnoy and the islands of New Siberia, and in the third year attempt to penetrate to the Pacific *via* Behring's Straits. This is the best equipped and the most promising of all the expeditions. The American are the U. S. exploration under Capt. C. F. Hall, which is striving to reach the Pole by the way of Baffin's Bay and Smith's Sound; and the private rubber-raft adventure of M. Octave Pavy, by the way of Behring's Straits and Wrangell's Land. Concerning both these, pains have been taken to deceive the public with false information. Last summer the N. Y. *Times* was hoaxed with pretended correspondence from St. Pierre, Newfoundland, bringing news of the *Polaris* as late as Feb. 8, 1872, and asserting that Capt. Hall had encountered many evidences of "a genial atmosphere and open seas in the extreme

and undiscovered North," including vegetable drift from hot climates, and a whale with a harpoon in him like those used in the South Pacific. The latest reports from Capt. Hall received at the Navy Department were dated at Tessiusak, the most Northern Danish settlement in Greenland, August 25, 1871. M. Pavy was given a reception by the California Academy of Sciences on June 5th, and left San Francisco for Petropaulovski about the middle of the month. Nevertheless we have a forged despatch to the French Geographical Society, representing him to have landed on the northern shore of Siberia, in Kuliutchin Bay, on June 18th, to have reached Wrangell's Land at the mouth of a large stream flowing from the N. W., "not laid down in the charts" of course, and "establishing the explorer's theory of a polar continent reaching far to the north, and warm enough to melt snow." The ocean currents, also, were just what M. Pavy expected to find them, the forger of the despatch being too good-natured to deny him anything, although both on this point and as to Wrangell's Land being a continent instead of a cluster of islands, Prof. Davidson (of the U. S. Coast Survey) frankly opposed M. Pavy at the reception referred to above, and with great show of reason.

A NEW SORT OF UNITY.*

THE first copy of this nicely printed volume which fell into our hands was accompanied by a printed notice showing it to have been presented to some one by the American Iron and Steel Association. The idea of an association with a name suggestive of nothing more scholastic than metallurgy, or more philosophical than a trip-hammer, engaging in the dissemination of a philosophy so elevated and abstract as that of "the unity of law," by the gratuitous distribution of goodly octavos, is certainly a little comical. Whether the love of learning thus displayed is or is not entirely disinterested, our readers can judge as well as we when they know that the basis of the work is a recast and abridgment of the author's 'Principles of Social Science.' It appears, however, that since the publication of the latter, Mr. Carey, studying the works of the great physicists, has been so struck by the unity between the law of the conservation of force and the orderly operation of a properly arranged galvanic battery in physics, and the philosophy and working of a protective tariff in social science, that he had to rewrite his book to provide a proper setting for the new idea. So he describes the structure and operation of the galvanic battery in a manner which does not at all encourage the belief that he would prove a valuable assistant in a telegraph office, and proceeds to show that the community "constitutes a great electric battery, to which each individual contributes his pair of plates." With a protective tariff these "human plates" arrange themselves in the proper manner for the production of the current, while every evil the human race has experienced happens to the "societary positives and negatives" if the free-trader is allowed to introduce himself among them.

The titles of the chapters after the first give the work an air of systematic and profound research. We have, in orderly succession, Science and its Methods, Man, the Subject of Social Science, the Physical and Social Laws, the Societary Organization, Matter and Mind, etc. But the text dashes the hopes founded on the titles. For instance, the chapter on Science and its Methods is a succession of platitudes in which nothing but the quotations from Comte and others would suggest a new and definite idea to any one intelligent enough to read the newspapers. The readers for whom the work is intended may be edified to learn that "the multiplication table enables the ploughman to determine the number of days contained in a given number of weeks," that "the sounding line enables the sailor," etc. But what will the thinker say to the opening proposition of the chapter, that the first man, after seeing the sun rise for a week, could not conceive of its rising again without being accompanied by light?

If we wished to expose only the amusing side of Mr. Carey's philosophy, we might confine ourselves to quotations descriptive of the operations of his societary battery. But the grave side of the question is worth looking at, for the reason that he uses a mode of reasoning which is very fascinating to a certain class of minds, and that class by no means low in the intellectual scale. It consists in drawing broad generalizations respecting the causes of national greatness, and the progress of nations in wealth and power, from the circumstances by which they were surrounded, the direction of their activity, or the statistics of their industry, without any enquiry into the sufficiency of these causes to produce the observed effects, or into the manner in which they may be supposed to operate. As an example, we may allude to the recent statement attributed to one of our most honored statesmen, that Mr. Seward was led to the purchase of Alaska by the thought that "the grandest achievements of man had been associated with the shores of the world's seas." "It was along the borders of the Mediterranean that the Byzantine empire flourished and was destroyed; that Rome attained her supremacy and fell," etc. Hence the United States must secure the largest possible foothold on the Pacific, the possible sea of the future. The complete fallacy of this mode of reasoning may be seen by comparing these views of Mr. Seward with those of Mr. Carey on the same subject. The former attributes the greatness of the maritime nations of the past to their having control of seas to trade upon, and thus holds them up as examples for our imitation. The latter attributes their downfall to their having made this use of their seas, and holds up their fate as terrible examples for us to avoid. The fact is that, splendid as this mode of investigation looks, it is one by which any one can prove anything he pleases, for the reason that the causes are so complex and so numerous, and the results so varied, that a seemingly ample support for any theory can be found by a proper co-ordination of the facts.

If this is the case when the utmost care is taken of the facts, how is it when a writer is so careless of them as Mr. Carey seems to be? Here we shall, to do him justice, begin with his strongest point. He and his followers look upon his law of the occupation of the earth as his greatest discovery, and it is perhaps that in which he has most strongly supported his case. The law in question is that the work of cultivation "invariably" commences on the poorer soils, and passes to those which are more rich as wealth and population increase. Let us begin by seeing exactly how far this general fact has been established, and on what ground it rests. To begin with the latter, it is quite clear that if the richer soils are swampy and require drainage, or are covered with heavy timber, or in any way offer obstacles to cultivation, to overcome which requires more labor than the early settler has to bestow, the latter must commence on some poorer soil which he can reclaim. Now, what Mr. Carey has done has been to search the history of all lands and examine the physical geography of all countries during the past two or three thousand years to find instances in which this condition was fulfilled. But this does not prove the law, nor can it be proved until he shows that by a universal and necessary rule soils are everywhere difficult to reclaim in exact proportion to their fertility, and this he cannot do, and, what is curious, does not directly attempt to do. It is certainly interesting to read his eloquent attempt to show that all the countries of the Old World were first settled in the least fertile portions, and that population gradually moved to those which were more fertile. The uncritical reader, confiding in the author's facts, must admire his seeming depth of historical research. But it will be different if he reflects that he is reading most circumstantial accounts of the movements of population during a period of which, by the common testimony of historians, we have no authentic record, presented with as much confidence as if the author had complete census tables before him. When he reads, "The Samnite hills were peopled, Etruria occupied, and Veii and Alba built before Romulus gathered together his adventurers on the banks of the Tiber," he must remember that not only is there no credible evidence that Romulus ever lived, but that we have nothing like an authentic record of Roman history for centuries after the time of that mythical personage. When he reads that "the mountainous Crete was occupied from a period when the Delta of the Nile was a wilderness," he must remember that the civilization of the fertile valley of the Nile is among the most ancient of which we have knowledge, while the whole of Grecian history, and of course that of Crete, becomes mythical a very few centuries before the Christian era. When he reads how India and Persia were settled, he must remember that the four great civilizations of the ancient world were those along the valleys of the Hoang-Ho, the Ganges, the Euphrates, and the Nile, and that it is to the fertility of the valleys of these rivers that historians attribute their early occupation. If, in addition to this, he will remember that it would require a vast amount of geographical research to judge exactly what spots were fertile and what were not in those times, that the "peaked islands" probably had fertile valleys in which population was thickest, and that Mr. Carey is quite unknown either in the literary world as a historian or in the scientific world as a geographer, he may well conclude that his brilliant and impressive descriptions of the constant movement of population from poor to rich soils are in large part the products of a poetical fancy.

It is easy to look with complacency on such liberties with ancient history. But Mr. Carey's attempts to deceive his countrymen with regard to the present state of European society are of a kind we can hardly trust ourselves to characterize. They are not the less inexcusable that they are made not so much by direct and specific statements as by implication and vague generalities. One of the principal objects of this treatise on the "unity of law" is to make its readers believe that English laborers are oppressed by their "masters" and degraded by the policy of their Government more than those of any other country, and that English society is generally in a deplorable state, owing to the free-trade policy of the country. This he does by searching the whole English literature of the century, and culling out odd paragraphs,

* 'The Unity of Law, as Exhibited in the Relations of Physical, Social, Mental, and Moral Science. By H. C. Carey.' Philadelphia: H. C. Baird. 1872. pp. xxiv.-433, 8vo.

sentences, and parts of sentences which favor his views, and then commenting on them as if they expressed the publicly avowed policy of the British Government. He has very judiciously scattered these through the entire book, so that one can hardly open it without finding the most dismal comments on a "wretched proletariat," "a dance of death," "a hundred hours a week," "power of matter over mind," "trading," "warfare," "arrest of civilization everywhere," and everything else bad which a diseased imagination could suggest. The men of England have so deteriorated that "throughout the whole realm of England there would now be found few, if any, capable of drawing to their heads those terrific shafts which, down even to the day of Flodden (1513), constituted the essential element of English warfare." Her missions to the benighted heathen have totally failed because so few have seemed to appreciate the idea that the blessed Gospel of work lay at the root of all morals.

For what class of readers such "unity of law" could have been written it is hard to say. Every man of wide intelligence knows that English laborers, as a class, are better provided for than those of any other country in Europe, that they are physically more powerful, as Mr. Brassey has recently shown by numerous examples, and that they are rather better fed and fully as well housed as the average of those on the Continent; that they have been continually improving during the last thirty years, and that that improvement was never so rapid as now. To compare them with the laborers of Russia, from any point of view, would be simply ludicrous. How amusing, then, to contrast Mr. Carey's descriptions of Russia with those of England! The former "carries steadily up the apex of her edifice," "Moscow will be the grand centre of commerce." Germany and Russia have been engaged in the effort at bringing into orderly arrangement their hundred millions of human positives and negatives. "Russia will make demands on Central Europe for its surplus population," etc. If our free-trade wits have never attempted to parody Mr. Carey's style of reasoning, it must be because they have found themselves unable to invent anything more ridiculous than the original. It would certainly require no mean talent to do it.

HENRI REGNAULT.*

THERE are no more striking works in the Luxembourg Museum than two large pictures recently placed there, side by side: one an immense equestrian portrait of General Prim, the Spanish revolutionist; the other a Moorish executioner, wiping on the hem of his garment the scimetar with which he has just dissevered the head and body which lie gushing blood at his feet. The pictures arrest attention by the singular brilliancy and audacity of their coloring, their massive breadth of execution, and, above all, a certain unmistakable glow of youth and genius. They are signed by Henri Regnault, a name already a little known in America, where one of the artist's few finished works—the "Automedon"—is owned, but deserving of a wider knowledge now that the volume whose title we have transcribed has established the record of his rapid, brilliant, and touching career. The portrait of Prim was painted in his twenty-sixth, and its companion in his twenty-seventh year. Six months later, on the 19th of January, 1871, Regnault fell at Buzenval, before the walls of Paris, victim of the last shot possibly fired before the surrender of the city. It could hardly have extinguished a life of greater promise. During the previous months of national distress he had written these lines:

"We have lost many men; we must supply their places with better and stronger ones. We must learn the lesson. We must cease to be relaxed by facile pleasures. We have no longer the right to live for ourselves alone. It was the fashion not long since to believe in nothing but enjoyment and in all the bad passions. Selfishness must depart, and take with it that fatal bravado of contempt for all that is honest and good. . . . The Republic now demands of us a pure, honorable, serious life, and we must all pay to our country, and beyond our country to free humanity, our debt of body and soul. We owe them what both these may produce together. All our energies must concur to the well-being of the great family, through the practice for ourselves, and the example for others, of the feelings of honor and the love of work."

In spite of its brevity, there is something singularly complete in Regnault's career, and we may almost expect that, as time goes on, it will become poetized and etherealized, and assume a sort of legendary hue. He had almost every gift, and his talent with the brush was but the finest of a dozen accomplishments. He was an excellent musician, and his beautiful voice was the delight of his friends. He relates in one of his letters from Rome that M. Hébert, the director of the French Academy there, giving a sort of official dinner to a company of princesses and duchesses, and having engaged for their entertainment certain operatic artists, who broke their contract at the eleventh hour, came to him in distress and begged him to furnish the whole musical diversion. Regnault consented modestly, but successfully. He was a devoted horseman, and an impassioned observer and painter of the animal. He was an accomplished gymnast, and not the least picturesque episode of his picturesque residence in Spain is his story of having *épaté* (flattened out) a company of Madrid *gitanos* by walking on his hands and leaping five chairs in a row. As a writer he is admirable, and even if his paintings were of much less value, his delightful letters would amply serve to keep his memory sweet. He made the utmost of his life while it lasted, for though at moments he bitterly accuses himself of recklessness and waste of time, yet he *lived* incessantly in a way altogether foreign to characters of a less generous temper—with an intensity of perception and enjoyment, and a rapidity of development, which make a kind of breathless effort of the perusal of his letters. He succeeded from the first, and made a brilliant impression. He travelled much, and when he had fairly got command of his talent, struck blow upon blow. He made innumerable friends, who speak of the charm of his talent as second only to that of his character. The reader receives from the volume before us an irresistible impression of both. At last, so that no touching and appealing point should be wanting in his history, he becomes engaged to a young girl whom he had long loved, and while waiting for a brighter day to marry receives a bullet through his brain for his country. One of his many friends has here collected his letters, which reflect his well-filled days with admirable vividness. The reader will thank us for allowing him to speak for himself.

In 1866 Regnault received a *prix de Rome* from the *Ecole des Beaux Arts*, and early in the following year took up his residence at that Villa Medici on the Pincian, a chance, however remote, of being promoted to whose academic shades ought to stand nowadays, it seems to us, against many prospective tribulations of *la jeune France*. His letters begin with his journey and are admirable from the first—full of observation and expression, alacrity and energy. Rome disappoints him—especially the churches and the small scale of certain famous buildings and ruins, the Capitol, the Forum, and the Arch of Titus, which he thinks altogether below the reputation of the Ancient Romans. He has a good word for the Coliseum, however, and many admiring ones for Michael Angelo.

"I'm back from the Vatican. I got on my knees to the paintings of the 'Sistine Chapel' and the 'Stanze.' I'm crushed. That giant of a Michael Angelo has left me half dead. That ceiling is a thunder-stroke. It's above everything conceivable by the imagination of a painter, a sculptor, and a poet, and can never lose its fascination. I confess that in the presence of this ceiling, the wonder of wonders, I was unable to look at the 'Last Judgment.'"

It was some time before he got to work. In reply to some remarks from his father on the subject of his delay, he declares that he is intentionally idle; that he wishes to take a general view, to absorb impressions, to prepare his mind. He makes innumerable excursions, takes long rides on the Campagna, talks music with the Abbé Liszt, pays a flying visit to Naples, and, on his return, decides to make a visit to Paris, where the great Exhibition of 1867 had just opened. Up to this point, if Regnault were not a real genius, we might almost fancy him an imitation, but in Paris he begins his first important work—the portrait of a lady in red velvet on a red background. He took his picture back to Rome with him, finished it laboriously, and, sending it to the Salon of 1868, found himself suddenly almost famous.

Théophile Gautier, as if in prevision of Regnault's brief harvest of laurels, blew the trumpet of praise with magnificent resonance, and published the first of those articles, not less rich in color than the pictures themselves, with which he did honor to each of the young painter's successive performances. On his return to Rome Regnault made a second excursion to Naples to see Vesuvius in eruption; but from this moment he begins to work in earnest, and till he enters upon his military duties during the siege of Paris the brush is hardly out of his hand. He begins two ambitious pictures: a "Judith and Holofernes" and an "Automedon" with the horses of Achilles. The latter is his first *envoi* to the annual exhibition in Paris of the works of the pupils at Rome, and his description of his design is worth quoting:

"It's a free translation; Automedon may be anything you want, and I have aimed, in my horses, not at the cut of the mane of the Thessalian horses, but at whatever there is most noble and most frightful in the horse—at what might make the historical horse, the horse that spoke, the horse that foresaw the death of his master Achilles. . . . The sky is overladen with clouds; a leaden sea begins to toss, dumbly, though on the surface it still seems to sleep. A ray of melancholy sunshine casts a pallid light along the horizon upon a naked, rocky shore. The horses, knowing that their master is leading them to battle, that this battle will be his last, and will cost him his life, wrestle and struggle against the servant who has come to fetch them from pasture. One of them, a dark bay, rears like a great dark phantom in relief against the sky. I have tried to express in the picture a foreboding of calamity. But have I expressed all I wished?"

* 'Correspondance de Henri Regnault, recueillie et annotée par M. Arthur Duparc.' Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1872.

The conception is somewhat boyish, and the picture (judging by an engraving) is even more so; but both are sufficiently imaginative and vigorous to promise better things. Regnault defines himself from the first a *picturesque* painter. He was a born draughtsman, and with his pencil felt his strength; but what he consciously sought and ardently studied was color and its infinite mysteries and suggestions. It is characteristic and significant that, at the same time that he protests of his boundless admiration for Michael Angelo, he holds off stoutly from him and contents himself with worshipping at a distance:

"What would you have a man do when he finds himself staring point-blank at that formidable giant of the Sistine Chapel? . . . Michael Angelo is a god whom one is afraid to touch, lest fire should issue from him. For the time, at any rate, I haven't the courage to approach him; I foresee that he would do me more harm than good, and I'm satisfied with paying him a contemplative worship. I confess that I don't feel as if I had the strength to attack him with my arms in my hand."

Regnault had strength enough and the sense of strength; the truth, as we take it, was that Michael Angelo was, in a single word, too *austere*. To copy a figure from the Sistine roof is an eminently chastening process, and Regnault's tendency was altogether toward license. It had begun to be true of him that, as a discriminating critic (M. Paul de Saint-Victor) wrote of him two years later, *apropos* of his masterpiece, the "Salome," "we may admire but we must mistrust, also, such a *rouerie de pinceau* in so young a man." The term *rouerie de pinceau* is severe, but Regnault, with all his generous breadth of talent, was too essentially a Parisian not to have incurred it, at least as a caution. In the early summer of 1868, Regnault was thrown by a vicious horse with a violence which nearly proved fatal. His recovery was slow; to hasten it a change of climate was recommended, and he accordingly started with alacrity for Spain, which, much more than Italy, had always been the land of his imagination. He came back to the Villa Medici again; but intellectually he had turned his back upon Rome; prematurely, we should have perhaps said, had he lived. For the long run Rome would have had much to teach him; but the prodigious impulse he received in Spain more than served him for his crowded remnant of life. In Spain he found color in something of the strength he had dreamed of, and he found, too, Velasquez, a master after his own heart. His attitude toward the great Spaniard is very different from the respectful reluctance with which he honored Michael Angelo. Not only he began with ardor to copy the "Surrender of Breda"; but his portrait of Prim is almost an imitation of Velasquez. His letters from Madrid are numerous and of really enchanting interest; extracts more copious than we have space for could alone do them justice. The expulsion of Isabella took place during his stay there, and he describes the revolution, as he saw it in the streets, with admirable humor and intelligence. His observation was not confined to the streets, for he was introduced to several of the leaders and men of the day. Prim, he writes, has been very gracious, and he has undertaken his portrait—without sittings as yet—but with the hope of *one* for the face. Prim, unhappily, was not gracious to the end; if he was a good revolutionist, at least he was a poor critic. The portrait is really in the grand manner, and any model however exalted might be proud of making such an appearance before posterity. But Prim perceived only an "*homme indécent*, who hadn't washed his face, and who looked very absurd without his cap." The General's bare head is half the beauty of the picture. Regnault would make no alterations, and he foresaw that if he surrendered his work Prim would consign it to the garret. "Garret for garret," he writes, "I prefer my own," and he sends a respectful note to his illustrious model politely expressing this preference. Thus it is that Regnault's garret has become the Luxembourg Museum. He had depended on the price of the portrait to pay his Madrid color-man and carry him back to Rome; but in the end he had to make the journey "like a pauper, regretting that there was no sixth-class on the railways and steamboats, and obliged to content myself with the third." Yet in spite of these tribulations his winter in Madrid, if he had lived, would have remained delightfully memorable. His time was richly occupied.

"To-morrow," he writes, "I sha'n't have a minute to myself. At a quarter to eight, a beggar to finish, a study begun to-day; at half-past eleven, a visit to the Fomento, to see a fine Goya; at one, a sitting for the little portrait I'm painting of Madame de B. in a Spanish dress of pink and black—which, by the way, becomes her vastly; at four o'clock, dusk, errand at the *Calle di Toledo* to see an old *gitano* mantle, and buy it, doubtless; at five, my guitar lesson, so that I can scratch tolerably a *jaleo* or a *malaguena* of some sort; dinner at six; at seven, model again in the studio. So it is every day, and so ought it always to have been every day. *Si jeunesse savait!*"

He describes in several charming pages, which deepen one's impression of his rare personal attractiveness, the success with which he fraternized with the *gitanos* of Madrid. Of the natural amenity and capacity of these people, and of the Spaniards generally, he formed the highest opinion:

"I confess that Italy, after Spain," he writes on his return to Rome, "seems to me very dull, very commonplace, very *exploitée*. The Italians' male and female, bore me; their dresses look black, colorless, or glaring, always inharmonious. What a difference from Spain, which yet is but a stepping-stone! It is the East I call for, I demand, I insist on! There only, I believe, I shall feel that I am something."

Elsewhere he says that Rome seems to him lit by a night-light (*une veilleuse*). His "Prim" appeared at the Paris Salon of 1869, and made a great sensation. Théophile Gautier blew a louder blast than before, and Paul de Saint-Victor multiplied his strictures. The present editor gives the articles of each critic, and it is interesting to see how they correct and amend each other. The truth is between them; but it little mattered to Regnault how they shared it, for he remained in Rome, working hard, in obedience to an impulse altogether original. He was rapidly finishing his "Judith" and his "Salome," and preparing for a return to Spain and a further excursion to Morocco. To the artist who, at twenty-six, had achieved these two extraordinary performances in colors, our Western world had surely little more to offer. The shining East alone could yield to him "motives" intense enough. The month of September found him established with a friend at Granada, spending busy, rapturous days in the Alhambra. His admiration for the Moorish architecture knew no bounds; it affected him like a revelation:

"Let the earth stop turning," he writes, "let the stars fall, let cities crumble, let the mountains become valleys—it will matter little, so long as the Alhambra is saved and our friends can see it. . . . I am plunging for the moment into water-colors of the most fantastic difficulty. You must know what I think of Granada, the beauty of beauties, Granada with its sky of lapis, its rosy towers and fortresses, its Alhambra of gold, of silver, of diamonds—of the richest things in the world. I was for several days unable to work; I saw nothing but fire."

He adds later in the same letter strangely: "Clairin [his companion] and I are destined to be short-lived. We lead a life *trop vagabonde*, we strive too hard, we have too much ambition, too many desires, to live long."

His doubts were transient, however, in the joy of such visions as these:

"Every morning we go a few steps off, to the Alcazar, to the divine Alhambra, where the walls in the morning are a lace-work of amethysts and roses, of diamonds at noon, and of green gold and red copper at sunset. We stay there till the moon comes to see us, and when she has sent us a few kisses and put to sleep the shadows of the fairies and genies who chiselled this wondrous palace, we go sadly away turning back at every step, unable to tear our eyes from the columns of rosy marble which take at moments the pearly hues of the lustrous body of a goddess, and are at once our bliss and our despair."

On this visit to Spain Regnault seemed to enter into full possession of his genius, and even more of his ambition. His letters give an irresistible impression of the concentrated ardor and passionate ferment of youthful genius. Promise is stamped on every line. Every hour during these months was a golden lesson; every glance and pencil stroke a forward stride. The more he saw, the more he wished to see; his imagination outstripped experience, and he dreamed restlessly of the uttermost East. In describing to a friend an immense Moorish subject which he had determined to paint:

"The doors open," he writes, "on a gallery whose steps are bathed by a river or a lake, on whose edge my palace is built. I evade criticism in making neither the Alhambra nor the Alcazar, *but a palace not surrounded by water is no palace for me.*"

He had already become superbly fastidious. In December he went to Gibraltar and crossed to Tangiers, where he found a splendor of light approaching his ideal—approaching, but not realizing it, however. He adds, in the letter from which we have just quoted, still speaking of his picture:

"In short, it must be a *work*. Then I can take up my bag and go and adore Brahma and Siva! . . . Don't forget India; it's from there we must come back men. Till now, I have learned only to walk, to eat. . . . Be ready for the autumn of 1871. We must start *young* to be moved, to assimilate and drink the sun, to endure the dazzle of marbles and stuffs; and we must come back *young* to create with force."

He established himself at Tangiers for the winter and following summer, in the most picturesque and oriental of studios, and worked ardently and happily. The "Moorish Execution" at the Luxembourg was painted here, and served as his third "Envoi de Rome" (the "Judith" having been the second); the "Salome," too, carried everything before it at the Salon of 1870. Happily, we have said, Regnault worked; toward the end his happiness was fatally overshadowed by the disasters of his country in the field. When the investment of Paris began, he hurried home and enrolled himself in the National Guard. He remained in the ranks to the end, in spite of urgent offers of promotion, doing a soldier's utmost duty, and sharing the common lot of darkness and danger, cold, sleet, and sordid circumstance of every kind. Brahma and Siva had forgotten their worshipper! Close upon the end and

the hour of release he fell, with but a tithe of his secrets told. His death, as the climax of the narrative formed by his letters, is terribly, ineffably touching, and will always deepen the vivid interest of his works. These, with various limitations, have the supreme merit of a sort of immeasurable strength. Regnault would not have stopped half way. He had the artistic temperament in very much the same degree as the great Italian masters of the Renaissance. He might not have equalled the greatest of these, but he would have recalled them; and, indeed, we may say that, like them, he is already historical.

Memoirs of a Huguenot Family. Translated and compiled from the original autobiography of the Rev. James Fontaine, and other family manuscripts, comprising an original journal of travels in Virginia, New York, etc., in 1715–16. By Ann Maury. With an appendix, containing a translation of the Edict of Nantes, the Edict of Revocation, and other interesting historical documents. (New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons.)—Among the Huguenot refugees whom the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes compelled to seek a home in exile was James Fontaine, the son of a Protestant minister, and himself, at the time of his exile, a candidate for ordination. Fontaine found a home in Ireland for himself and for his family. But in the year 1714–15, his son John, for whom a commission had been obtained in the British army, came to America on a tour of observation and of exploration. He turned out to be the pioneer of his family, several of his brothers and sisters presently following him and finding homes for themselves in Virginia. One of the Virginia descendants of this James Fontaine has collected in this volume the autobiography of the Huguenot exile, the diary of John in his Virginia expedition, and a few more or less interesting family letters and papers. To these are added a few historical papers, among them a translation of the Edict of Nantes and of the Revocation of that Edict, with certain supplementary matter. These documents are not wholly inaccessible even to the ordinary English student, and yet they are not so common as documents so often referred to in popular literature, especially in popular literature of a religious or controversial sort, might naturally be expected to be. The volume has, therefore, a certain general and popular value beyond the local and personal interest which attaches to it. And, indeed, the story of the old Huguenot exile, as he tells it in his own devout fashion, has in it much to interest the general reader. He was a man such as that stormy time was fitted to produce, who could pray and preach when the occasion served, but who could also show himself a shrewd and energetic merchant, a skilful and thrifty manufacturer, a brave and sturdy fighter, when there was need of service in such various ways. It was good stock to come from; and it is easy to excuse the editor of this volume for the frequency of her self-gratulation on her pious ancestry, although it would have been in somewhat better taste if, when the volume was made public, allusions of this sort had been judiciously repressed. The fine old Huguenot could have spoken for himself quite as well if this commentary of felicitation, on the part of his descendant, had not been quite so audible. It is surely no crime for any one not to have had a Huguenot for a great-grandfather.

But, on the whole, the book is a good one. The story is unquestionably authentic, the spirit in which the compilation has been made is earnest and devout, and the style of the translated autobiography (which occupies the greater part of the volume) is sufficiently readable.

Aventures de Trois Russes et de Trois Anglais. Par Jules Verne. Deuxième édition. (New York: F. W. Christern. 1872.)—A more prosaic subject than the measuring of an arc of the earth's meridian could hardly be imagined, but our author has nearly invested it with the interest of a sensational novel, some of the incidents falling by no means short of the standard of such works (as in the chapters "Trianguler ou Mourir," and "Où Nicolas Palander s'emporte"), and a sort of plot being effected by dividing the Russian and English savants into two rival and quasi-hostile parties, on their learning of the outbreak of the Crimean war. The story opens upon the banks of the Orange River, and ends upon the Zambesi; and a diligent study of Livingstone, Gordon Cumming, and other South African explorers has enabled M. Verne to fill naturally with local color the dry outline of an official report. For a truthful and agreeable description of the country and its inhabitants, and for a clear account of the methods employed in the delicate operation of triangulation, these adventures may be recommended with small reserve. The author's mode of popularizing science in this as in his other works—'Adventures of Captain Hatteras,' 'The Children of Captain Grant,' 'Five Weeks in a Balloon,' 'Trip to the Earth's Centre,' etc., etc.—may, we suppose, be open to criticism.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*	
Ames (Mary C.), Memorial of Alice and Phœbe Cary	(Hurd & Houghton)	
Brockett (Dr. L. P.), Walter Powell	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
Carlen (Emily F.), Lavinia; or, One Year	(James Miller)	
Cohn (Prof. F.), Ueber Bacterien, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Darwin (C.), Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Emma's Engagement	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Faber (F.), Lehrbegriff des Confucius, swd	(Hongkong)	
Fiske (J.), Myths and Myth-makers	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	$2 00
Goldsmith (O.), The Traveller, Deserted Village, Hermit	(S. R. Wells)	1 00
Hale (Rev. E. E.), His Level Best, and Other Stories	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Hutchins (Rev. C. L.), Annotations of the Hymnal	(M. H. Mallo y & Co.)	
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DEC. 30, 1872.

THE past month throughout the country has been more severe for borrowers of money than during the corresponding period of twenty-five previous years. This increased stringency was caused by the action of the Treasury Department. In October, previous to the State elections in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana, money in Wall Street had been made artificially tight by the locking up of a large amount of greenbacks by a clique of speculators, who were operating for a decline in the stock market. For the purpose of relieving this stringency, the Treasury Department made an extra purchase on the 7th of October of $5,000,000 5-20's, and sold an extra $5,000,000 gold. The purchasers of the gold were allowed to deposit the amount of currency due the Treasury in payment for the gold in two of the national banks of this city instead of paying it directly into the Treasury. To pay for bonds purchased, the Secretary reissued $5,000,000 of the $44,000,000 legal tenders retired by Secretary McCulloch, which Congress authorized him to withdraw and cancel April 12, 1866. The effect of all this was to put in circulation $5,000,000 new legal-tender notes, and $5,000,000 gold, which gave $10,000,000 additional reserve to the banks. Immediate relief was experienced in the money market, prices of stocks advanced, and appearances for a time bore a very cheerful aspect as far as borrowers of money were concerned. But the new legal tenders were not allowed to remain long in circulation, for Mr. Boutwell very soon commenced their withdrawal, and by the 1st of December they were no longer in circulation. The currency that had been placed in the national banks was called for by instalments. At the present writing, but $1,350,000 remain with them.

It was not surprising that the legal tenders should have been withdrawn from circulation, grave doubts having existed in the minds of many as to the right of the Secretary of the Treasury to issue them at all; but, with the money deposited in the banks, it was thought that in the midst of the usual fall drain of currency to the West and South to "move the crops," it would not be called for until the movement was over, and the return of the money to this city would not make its loss felt. Thus the relief afforded by the Treasury in October was but temporary; but, though temporary, it was seized upon by stock speculators as a basis upon which to advance prices. The inflation in stocks was soon sufficient to absorb, by the increased amount of money required to carry them, all of the amount contributed by the Treasury; consequently, the withdrawal of the legal tenders, and calling in of the money from the banks, without a corresponding decline in the prices of stocks, caused a very sharp demand from borrowers on call. The Treasury, in its regular weekly bond purchases, has so construed the meaning of paying par in gold for them, that it has considered the *lowest* price of gold on the day upon which purchases of bonds were made as the market price, and purchased only those bonds that were offered at or under that price. The large Government dealers have been holding off from offering bonds to the Treasury in consequence of this construction, and on several occasions the offerings fell short of the amount advertised for, the result being that most of the money received from the proceeds of the weekly sales of gold remained in the vaults of the Treasury, and was an additional loss of capital to the Street. During the month of December the rates of interest upon call loans have ranged between 7 per cent. per annum and ⅜ per cent. per diem, the latter rate being equal to 136⅞ per cent. per annum. Speculators in stocks have been able to pay these rates, but so long as they could be obtained upon call loans in the Street the sales of commercial paper have been nearly stopped, and merchants put to the most serious inconvenience in consequence. The rates upon call loans above quoted are absurdly high; but so long as the usury law remains unrepealed, there is no help for such a state of affairs.

By reason of the different corporations preparing for the payment of their regular January dividends, money during the past week has been more stringent than at any previous time within the month. After the commencement of the new year, however, this money will gradually return and be available for business purposes. In spite of the discouragements of the money market, prices have been kept up at the Stock Exchange, the large holders being content to hold on to their stocks, knowing that the new year will bring about an entirely different state of affairs, and that the usual demand from investors will tend to carry up prices.

The Bank Statement for the week is favorable, notwithstanding a large loss of legal tenders, which is more than made up by a gain in specie; the loss in legal tenders is accounted for by their shipment to the South and West, and by the money locked up by the Treasury in selling $1,000,000 gold and purchasing only $417,950 bonds. The national banks by law are required to hold in legal tenders and specie 25 per cent. of their liabilities; on Saturday, December 21, the excess of legal reserve was but $663,175 over the required 25 per cent. On Saturday the 28th it was $1,835,750, showing a net gain for the week of $1,172,575. It is proper to state that the bank statement includes that of the larger State banks of the city, which are not required to keep on hand the same reserve as the national banks, and consequently do not do so in many instances. The following is the statement in detail:

	Dec. 21.	Dec. 28.	Differences.
Specie	12,773,100	17,241,800	Inc....4,468,700
Legal tenders	44,626,700	41,119,600	Dec...3,507,100
Total reserve	57,399,800	58,361,400	Inc... 961,600
Circulation	27,522,700	27,573,000	Inc... 50,300
Deposits	199,423,800	198,529,600	Dec... 894,200
Total liabilities	226,946,500	226,102,600	Dec.. 843,900
25 per cent. reserve	56,736,625	56,525,560	
Excess over legal reserve	663,175	1,835,750	Inc....1,172,575

Meantime, dulness pervades the stock market, and the week has passed without any special feature.

On Saturday, notice was given to the Stock Exchange by the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway Company that it had purchased the new line of railway between Milwaukee and Chicago, in part payment for which they are to pay $2,000,000 in their common stock, and the Company will issue the 20,000 shares of their common stock, at the expiration of thirty days; also, the scrip preferred stock will after thirty days be increased 25,000 shares, or $2,500,000, to accompany the like amount of bonds issued by the company in part payment of the new line, and for the purchase of depot grounds and depot buildings in the city of Chicago and of steel rails and equipments for the general uses of the Company. The new line of road was built by a construction company, which included some of the officers of the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway Company, therefore we presume that the construction company acted entirely in the interests of all the stockholders in the former company.

During the week the Government bond market has developed remarkable strength. Prices have advanced from 1 to 1½ per cent. The demand from savings-banks and other corporations has been considerable, and has been instrumental in advancing prices. The Treasury purchase of bonds on Thursday amounted to $417,950, at 111¾ and under. The total amount offered was $924,750, all under 112. Mr. Boutwell, as usual, construed 111¾ as the market price for gold, that being the lowest price of the day, and bought only the above amount, whereas there were no sales of gold under 112 after 10.30 A.M. on the day of purchase.

State bonds have been dull; those of the Southern States generally constitute the bulk of the dealings, which are of a speculative nature, owing to the glorious state of uncertainty attending the payment of interest—the payment of the principal never entering the minds of the most sanguine. The news comes from Montgomery, Ala., that the Legislature has authorized the issue of $2,000,000 bonds. The legality of this issue is seriously questioned by the Democrats, who warn capitalists against investing in them. Even the Republicans give a most gloomy description of the finances of the State, and represent that State bonds to the amount of nearly $900,000 have been sold by financial agents, and the proceeds unaccounted for; that a large amount of bonds have been hypothecated, and are about to be lost for want of means to redeem them; that outstanding claims, amounting to nearly $1,000,000, have been left for the present administration to meet; the treasury is empty, and the State is on the verge of bankruptcy.

With such statements as these, we can well imagine that investors will look well into the matter before taking any of the bonds, although "a financial agent will leave for the North in a few days, to negotiate the sale of them."

Railroad bonds are strong, with a good demand for the standard bonds quoted at the Stock Exchange. Bankers engaged in selling the bonds of new railroads report a better demand for them, but we suspect that only those marketing the best of them are meeting with much success.

In the gold market there has been no special feature. During the week, shipments to the amount of $1,980,324 have been made to Europe, making a total for the year shipped of $70,550,393, which, with the exception of the shipments during the year 1868, when they amounted to $70,718,781, are the largest ever made in any one year from this port.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 9, 1873.

The Week.

SERIOUS disturbance, and even bloodshed, were anticipated in New Orleans on Monday, owing to the meeting of two Legislatures —one organized under the Warmoth Board of Canvassers and the other under the Bovee Board. Pinchback, the "acting Governor," issued a proclamation denouncing the Warmoth Legislature as "a riotous and disturbing condition," and intimating his intention to disperse it by force; but he seems to have thought better of it, and at the last moment announced that he would let the Warmoth Legislature alone as long as "it did not attempt to execute laws against or interfere with the legal government," and the Administration papers are explaining away the proclamation. The Warmoth Legislature seems to have failed to get a quorum on Monday, members being doubtless deterred from attending through fear of an armed attack—the remembrance of the Convention of 1866 being still strong in New Orleans. Pinchback's position is one of the curiosities of Southern politics. He is a fine specimen of the rising colored politician of that region. His term of office in the State Senate expired in November, but the Lieutenant-Governor having died before adjournment, he was elected President of the Senate and acting Lieutenant-Governor; and being acting Lieutenant-Governor, he has now become acting Governor, in which position he has commissioned himself as Congressman at large, claiming election on the ticket recognized by Judge Durell. It will be thus seen that he has literally nothing under him but Federal bayonets and an injunction in a "chancery suit."

The Cabinet rumors which were current last week turn out to be without much foundation. Mr. Boutwell, it appears, has not resigned, but expects to go to the Senate from Massachusetts, and the President, it is said, inclines to Judge Richardson as his successor. Judge Richardson's accession would mean the continuance of the present policy in the Treasury Department; that is, it is fair to presume he would endeavor to carry out Mr. Boutwell's ideas as to funding and taxation, which he doubtless shares. The talk about the annexation of the Sandwich Islands which has sprung up since the death of the king, appears to have very little foundation, but it has a little. A United States cruiser was ordered to go there to look after American interests when the news of the king's death arrived, and it so happened that about the same time General Schofield's health needed recruiting, so he asked and obtained the President's permission to go out in the ship. Should he, when he is out there, feel inclined to examine the Islands with reference to their capacity for being annexed to the United States, and we think it likely he will, and feel disposed to make a report to the President when he gets home, which is also probable, the President, we are told, will receive the report and read it. The London *Standard* seems to think that if the United States annex the Islands it will be "a menace to Australia," and recommends the annexation of the Fiji Islands by England as a counterpoise. One of the strangest things in the relations of modern civilized nations is, that when they approach each other at any point they are held to endanger each other.

Several bills relating to the currency have been introduced into the House of Representatives—how much strength they have it is impossible to say. Mr. Hooper, of Massachusetts, has introduced one providing for a return to specie payments on the part of the Government in 1874. We think something will be done for the solution of this problem when the public gets to understand that the raising of greenbacks to the value of gold does not bring specie payments sensibly nearer. The notion that gold will come into circulation without any further trouble when this point is reached has been diffused widely by some of Mr. Boutwell's reports, but it is a delusion. To bring gold into circulation again will cost the country some hundreds of millions of dollars—in other words, it must be bought with *commodities*, and not with greenbacks. If the greenbacks are left in circulation after gold has been bought with them, the gold would go away as before; if they were destroyed, the sellers of gold would suffer a dead loss. There are some ways of getting back to a specie basis easier than others, but there is no way that does not involve an immediate sacrifice. It appears, by the way, and we are very sorry to hear it, that the President authorized or directed Assistant-Secretary Richardson to issue the $5,000,000 greenbacks in October, and that Mr. Henry Clews counselled him in the matter. We are not aware that General Grant has any special knowledge of finance, and Mr. Clews is an unfortunate adviser in such a matter, as he is an active Wall-Street operator. We trust Congress will take this matter up at once, and make the law so clear that nobody will hereafter venture to violate it.

Mr. Hooper's bill proposes to issue 3.65 per cent. certificates to the amount of $100,000,000, to be exchanged for greenbacks, the certificates to be usable by the banks as half their legal reserve, and to permit duties to be paid in paper, and to allow the Secretary to provide himself with gold for redemption by the sale of $250,000,000 six per cent. bonds. The tendency towards further issues of paper and the eagerness "to move the crops" are becoming so great, that any measure which promises to take currency out of the hands of the politicians deserves careful attention. This one has the capital merit of recognizing the duty of the nation to get coin somehow even to pay its demand notes, and of disregarding the Boutwell theory—that we can drift into specie payments. Nobody ever yet drifted into the payment of his debts.

The scandal of conducting the Crédit Mobilier investigation in secret has proved too great to be persisted in, and the House ordered the doors to be opened on Monday, only seven voting in the negative. The reporters thereupon got hold of the testimony already taken, which is in many respects rather surprising. We pointed out to Mr. Ames, when he published his address to his constituents in reply to these charges when they were first made, that his answer was too vague and declamatory, and that he ought to have at least explained what his letters to McComb meant, even if they did not mean what McComb said they meant. Had he done so the evidence now taken would have had less effect than it has, which is, however, not very great. Mr. McComb has testified in substance, and has to some extent supported his testimony with letters, that 375 shares of the Crédit Mobilier were handed over to Oakes Ames as trustee, to be by him used for distribution among members of Congress. That a considerable quantity of stock was so distributed there appears to be no question, and it appears from Mr. Ames's letters that the object in distributing was to "produce good" to the corporation. "We want more friends in Congress," he says in one letter; "and if a man will look into the law, and it is difficult to get them to do so unless they have an interest to do so, he cannot help being convinced that we should not be interfered with." McComb's theory is that the stock was accordingly used in bribes pure and simple. There is another theory, to which we referred some weeks ago in these columns, viz., that the persons receiving the stock paid for it the par value, but almost immediately after received enormous dividends in bonds, and that it was in this dividend, or the anticipation of it, and not in the sale of the stock itself, that the corruption lay.

Mr. Ames, on the other hand, acknowledges that he from the beginning sought to distribute the stock of the road as widely as possible, in order to diffuse interest in it and get support for it—it being at first a very arduous undertaking, and that he continued to offer shares to members of Congress after it became a success. He went over the names mentioned by McComb—Colfax, Wilson, Blaine, Boutwell, Garfield, Patterson, Dawes, Bingham, Grimes, Kelley, Eliot—and declared that in every one of these cases he had offered or recommended the stock as a simple investment; that in some he had "carried" the stock for them till they were able to pay for it; in others, they had given him the money on the spot; in others, they had refused to take any; and in some, they had backed out, or sold off, or rescinded their contracts; in short, that there was very little actual transfer of stock to members of Congress at all, and what there was was perfectly innocent; and that his reasons for urging it on them was to increase their interest in a large and arduous enterprise, which needed all the support it could get. His account of his dealings with Mr. Colfax is the only cloudy part of his statement. Mr. Brooks is positively accused by McComb of having solicited and received 50 shares from Mr. Alley, one of the promoters of the road, as a consideration for "taking care of the Democratic side of the House"; but on this point there is a vigorous "conflict of veracity" between McComb and Alley.

The contest for the Massachusetts Senatorship is going on with a good deal of activity, and people who ought to be able to judge profess to believe that Mr. Boutwell, despite his being the most magnificent finance minister on this planet, may after all fail to secure the prize. The alleged reason for this clouding over of his prospects is a little curious. It is neither more nor less than that he has touched the unclean thing, and has become anathema. In other words, and not to speak metaphorically, there is a certain Massachusetts gentleman now consorting with Mr. Boutwell whose reputation for truth, veracity, honesty, honor, guilelessness, simple faith, and general respectability of walk and conversation is such that for anybody to be suspected of having anything whatever to do with him is highly disastrous. But this unseemly gentleman is known to cherish a great desire to be the Governor of Massachusetts, and this for the reason that the Governor of Massachusetts can, if he likes, enjoy and employ peculiar facilities for buying up and variously corrupting other gentlemen who want offices, and that then having thus debauched a certain number of his fellow-citizens, he can by these means get into the United States Senate, and do various other things. And the rumor is, that in exchange for this prospective Governor's assistance in securing the Senatorship for Mr. Boutwell, Mr. Boutwell has agreed to assist our friend in reaching the Governorship when the time comes. In short, Mr. Boutwell and Mr. B. F. Butler are understood to be now in the same boat, and to be "as thick as two thieves." But Mr. Butler has many bitter enemies, and some who despise him still more than they hate him, and who are resolved that, however long he may disgrace the Essex District, he never shall disgrace the Commonwealth itself by appearing among the Governors of Massachusetts; and they loudly threaten Mr. Boutwell with vengeance. Meantime, it looks to the outside observer as if Mr. Dawes might have a chance as against the Secretary, although Butler's friends deeply regret now to learn that Mr. Dawes has been mixed up with the Crédit Mobilier business, while Mr. Dawes's friends are savage in their attacks on Butler.

Mr. Dawes, last summer, contented himself with a general denial that Mr. McComb's charges, as far as they connected his name with the Crédit Mobilier scandal, had any truth in them; but under the stress of the Senatorial contest he has felt compelled to speak out, or to authorize his friends to speak out for him, and this is what he says: Some years ago, Mr. Dawes, having a thousand dollars to invest, went to Governor Washburn, then a fellow-member of Congress, and asked him how it would best be invested. Mr. Washburn advised the purchase of a bond of the Cedar Rapids Railway. Mr. Dawes thereupon went to Mr. Oakes Ames, and asked for such a bond, but was told by Mr. Ames that they were all gone, but that Crédit Mobilier stock was good for ten per cent. at least, and that he had better put his thousand dollars into that; upon which Mr. Dawes purchased ten shares. Shortly afterward he went home to Pittsfield, and there was told by a friend that the Crédit Mobilier Company had trouble in store for it, and that he had better keep out of it. Hearing this, Mr. Dawes went to Mr. Ames, said that he did not wish to buy into a lawsuit, and asked Mr. Ames to release him, which Mr. Ames consented to do. As everybody now knows, the accusation framed against the Congressmen was that they had bought shares in an enterprise on which they would be compelled to vote; and, secondly, they paid, if they paid at all, the *market* price of a stock on which there was about to be declared a large dividend, the amount of which would pay the original cost of the stock. One of these dividends it is not denied that Mr. Dawes received in the brief period during which he redeemed his ten shares, and it is this little transaction, involving perhaps a thousand dollars, which is now causing Mr. Dawes so much trouble. It is a valuable lesson and one worthy all the attention it is getting. Mr. Dawes had made for himself a long record of honorable service. For years he has been the leading member of the House; his capacity has been more than profitable. But for want of a constant recollection of the maxim that a legislator's honesty, like a woman's, must be protected by honor of the most susceptible sort, he has got himself into a position the reverse of dignified or agreeable. He is, however, just one million times better than Mr. Benjamin Franklin Butler as governor would be, and, if rumor is telling the truth about the Butler and Boutwell league and covenant, we suppose respectable people may very heartily wish for Mr. Dawes's victory over Mr. Boutwell. But for the matter of that, Massachusetts was never yet without the requisite timber for half a dozen senators, and was never restricted to choosing one of any given two men.

The attention of Congressmen will shortly be called to a petition more numerously signed by gentlemen representing our seats of learning than any petition that has yet been presented to the House. It relates to the "Japanese Indemnity Fund," a sum of money about which we take the general public to be ignorant. We got it in this way: in 1863 a minor Japanese Daimio fired on an American vessel called the *Wyoming*, which returned his fire, and a brisk little engagement followed, "with considerable damage to the smoke-stack and rigging of the *Wyoming*." The Navy Department estimated the cost of the repairs at $5,000, and the cost of the powder and shot expended on the heathen was about $5,169. The total, then, was $10,169. A year and three months later, in September, 1864, there was a combined English, French, and Dutch expedition to punish some of the Daimios, and the American Minister not having a ship of war to send along with the others, chartered a steamer with one Parrott gun, paying for it at the rate of $9,500 a month, and during the hostilities she fired $260 worth of shot and shell. Our total bill against the Japanese, then, was $19,929. In October, 1864, the Japanese Government agreed to pay the foreign powers involved in the affair an indemnity of $3,000,000, which was to be and was equally divided among the combatants, and was to be paid in instalments, of which three, amounting in all to $1,500,000, have been paid. So out of all proportion to the losses which we sustained was our share of the money that, a year ago, the House of Representatives passed a bill which released the Japanese Government from the obligation to pay any more, and it was passed unanimously. Indeed one cannot see what other disposition could be made of it. There is now a proposal, which we hope to see backed by the press and speedily successful, that we should take the seven hundred and fifty-odd thousand dollars, which is our share of the fund and which is invested in United States

bonds, and for the sake of our own dignity should restore it to the Japanese Government without conditions. This we may well be the readier to do, because the gentlemen engaged in promoting the education of the Japanese in our civilization are assured that if the money is restored it will be faithfully devoted to the education of Japanese women.

There is another San Domingo scheme on foot—a body of New York capitalists having despatched commissioners to lease the Bay of Samana from the Dominican Government as some sort of commercial station, and Dr. S. G. Howe writes to the New York *Tribune* expressing his admiration of the scheme in the most extravagant terms. The West Indies, he thinks, are to be the home of the choicest races of the earth. It may be so, but it is pretty certain that no race which makes them its home stays "choice" very long. It is sad that Man should run down among their palm-trees, and their perfumes, and their clear and ever-flowing brooks, and "their ever-blooming flowers," and "their ever-tepid crystal seas," but he does, and, what is worse, Woman too. Perhaps the world ought to have been arranged differently, so that fine scenery and warm breezes should produce noble natures, but such is not the case.

The disturbance in "journalistic circles" continues. The Brooklyn *Union* has resorted to the "interviewing" process for setting afloat a "story" that it was Jay Gould who had supplied the money for the recent purchase of a controlling interest in the *Tribune* from Mr. William Orton, and that this gentleman was led to sell out by discovering that the circulation of the paper had fallen off and was still falling. The construction of a "story" in this way is very ingenious and somewhat entertaining. The reporter waits on some gentleman who "knows all about" the matter in hand personally, but "prefers that his name should not be mentioned," and questions him with regard to "the facts," and "the story" is then thrown into the form of a dialogue, which is always more readable, as well as more probable-looking, than a bare narrative, and is frequently enlivened by little jokes. The procuring and printing of such things, to be sure, is an occupation worthy of a mock auctioneer or a junk-dealer; but then everything has to give way to the "necessities of journalism." The *Tribune* denies flatly both the main allegations of the story, and, in preference to filling its columns for the next three months with wild abuse of them, has sued the *Union* for making the libel, and the *Times* for reproducing it—a course for which we think the public will feel grateful. But we can suggest a more excellent way than the libel suit for the conspicuous refutation of "the story," viz., the reference of the whole matter to two or three arbitrators, within the next ten days, each side putting up a sum of money, say, $5,000, to be given to the Children's Aid Society in case of defeat. Libel suits, in the present state of the legal calendar, do not "mean business," because they cannot be brought to trial for two or three years. A reference of the kind we describe could not be refused by the most barefaced newspaper libeller, and would answer all the ends of the verdict of a jury.

In the meantime, the *Tribune* seems to be making an honest effort to give us a decent morning paper, and, if the conductors hold out, it is quite safe to predict for their paper a position such as Horace Greeley never gave it. But they must bear in mind that their reputation touching the libel and "stories" is bad, and that confidence is a plant of slow growth. We cordially wish them success, however, and think they ought to have the hearty support, at least, of all that portion of the public which whines about "the condition of our press." One great cause of the low "condition of our press" is, that even respectable and intelligent men are never shocked by ruffianism as long as "the other side" is the object of it, and think that if "stories" and abuse are directed only against those whom they consider bad men, they can do no harm. But if you breed and foster ruffians, you never can tell which side they will take, and they are sure to be found on both; and it is the good side—the side of honesty, and truth, and justice—which is in the long run likely to suffer most from them, no matter in which direction they may fire their shots.

The second trial of Stokes, who killed Fisk, has ended in a verdict of murder in the first degree, and although he has made up a bill of exceptions, and will doubtless get a stay of proceedings, which is necessary to make the exceptions of any use to him, there is little expectation that he will gain anything by an appeal, and still less that he will obtain pardon or commutation. There is luckily nothing in the man's character or career to excite pity or sympathy, and his own theory that Fisk threatened his life is deprived of most of its value by the relations in which he lived with Fisk. Men who go down among ruffians, and follow their ways, and engage with them in the game of life, as ruffians play it, can hardly be allowed to escape the penalty of the law by the plea that they had been living outside the law. Of course, Stokes fancies, as every murderer in the Tombs fancies, that he is going to be sacrificed to popular indignation, caused by the late frequency of murder. This feeling among the criminal classes, which produces a good many murders, is due largely to the way in which some newspapers and orators discuss the capital-punishment question. By painting executions in ordinary times as simply displays of brutality, and throwing all sorts of doubts over the right of "society" to punish anybody for anything, and then clamoring fiercely for vigorous hanging when this maudlin talk has produced its natural fruit, they lead a ruffian to believe that if he can only kill his man "in a dry time," when there is not much other murdering going on, or stave off trial till the popular indignation has subsided, he will be sure to escape.

The scene at the close of the trial when the verdict was brought in, in which the Assistant District-Attorney Fellowes apologized pathetically to the prisoner, addressing him familiarly as "Ed," for the part he had taken in convicting him, was a striking illustration of the conditions under which criminal justice is administered in this city. The fact is that Fisk and Stokes belonged to a social circle which included a large proportion of members of the city government—two or three of the judges, the sheriff, the heads of departments, being all in it, and along with them a considerable number of pugilists, and professional gamblers, and blacklegs, and rascally Bohemians of the low newspaper press, living in close intimacy, calling each other "Ed," and "Dick," and "Tom," and "Harry,' and "Nick," and "Bob," and "Bill." Fisk was the most notorious and audacious of the gang, but they were all under obligations to him, and enjoyed his society, and a considerable remnant of them still linger round the City Hall, and will, we fear, linger long.

The news from Europe is unimportant. There is no change in the state of affairs in France. M. Thiers has finally accepted the situation, though what the situation is it would be hard to say, except that everybody is waiting for something to turn up. The adverse vote on the question of dissolution has not disheartened the Radicals, who are going vigorously to work getting up petitions, a process rendered all the more easy for them by the fact that their strength lies mainly in the great towns. M. Thiers still advocates a Second Chamber, insisting that until such a body is provided a dissolution would be unsafe, while some of the Radicals are prepared to accept a renewal of the Chamber by thirds. M. Thiers also admits that there need be no trouble about the Ministry, as he and his colleagues are quite willing to resign whenever the Assembly is dissatisfied with them. The Committee of Thirty, on the other hand, which carries on the negotiations with him, is very conciliatory, and has possibly admitted to him through the Duc d'Audriffet-Pasquier that the Monarchists no longer hope for a monarchy, at least not at present; they simply fear the Radicals. A large area of the country has been desolated by floods, to the great damage of the winter crops.

THE NEW YEAR IN POLITICS.

THE opening of the New Year is now well recognized as the proper time for turning over a new leaf in things political as well as in things personal. Almost everybody under forty makes a few "resolutions" about New Year's Day, which if carried out faithfully would greatly mend his ways, and although the world in January and February is not usually strikingly different from the world in November and December, it is fair to presume that some of the improvement which really does take place has its beginnings in the spasm of remorse which overtakes so many of our fellow-creatures towards the close of the year; for the progress of the world is after all made up in the main of the progress of individuals. Accordingly, although Thanksgiving is the day on which the preachers are apt to "examine our condition as a nation," the lay moralists or politicians usually make their retrospects and indulge in their prognostications about the first of January. During the past fortnight there has been a great deal of retrospect and prognostication, and with the usual difference of opinion. Opposition papers think things wear a very bad look, while Administration papers are amazed at the happiness of our present and the brilliancy of our future; and this difference of view may be said to prevail through the whole country. The nation is divided into the despondent and the hopeful—the hopeful having a great advantage in numbers, though decidedly inferior to the despondent in thoughtfulness and experience. When we state this fact, we describe the great difficulty of the political situation, and it is one which the authors of various plans of political reform, of which a considerable number lie on our table at this moment, do not sufficiently take into account. Here, for instance, is Dr. C. P. Clark, of Oswego, a man who has been a "practical politician" in his day, but who is more of a philosopher than a politician, and has just produced an ingenious device for the reform of our political system, of which we may have something to say hereafter. Listen to his account of the actual condition of our affairs:

> "Intelligent Americans are agreed that the present condition of public affairs in this country gives cause for great dissatisfaction and anxiety. High integrity and capacity are becoming almost unknown in the affairs of government, and venality and incompetency have taken their place. We are ruled by political organizations. The people are in effect voiceless and powerless. Their interests are misunderstood, or neglected, or sacrificed. Private gain has become the chief motive power in public life. Our legislatures are incapable and corrupt, our executive officers too often inefficient and mercenary, our judiciary, even, not always above suspicion. Our legislation, State and national, is a heap of confusion, most unlike the work of intelligent art. No means of security to public interests anywhere appears. Accounting has become a trick, responsibility a sham, and investigation a farce. The unnumbered multitude of investigations into official conduct in every part of the country with which of late the public curiosity has been entertained, is a measure of the prevalence of official crime, while the immunity of the criminals is an index of the weakness of public justice. All the anchors by which popular faith in the republic has heretofore held are loosening from their ground, and a profound anxiety possesses every intelligent man who participates in the perils and hopes of the country.
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> "This bad aspect of affairs grows daily darker. No man will pretend that the public service is now as pure as it was thirty years ago. Something of this increase of venality and fraud we know from the public prints, which are filled with instances of it, but by far the greater part never sees the light; for to rob the people and the treasury under the forms of law and in the garb of power, without detection, has become an art."

He elucidates all this at considerable length as an introduction to his remedy, and we have no doubt that nine-tenths of the better educated and more intelligent members of the community would, if pushed to the wall, yield a reluctant assent to his assertions. A large proportion of them would, however, get out of the difficulty by declaring that, dark as things look, they still rely with unshaken confidence on "the good sense and virtue of the American people," a phrase which always indicates that the man who uses it is intellectually puzzled, but seeks relief in vague hopefulness. Now, this vague hopefulness is at once the cause of much of the prevailing corruption and the great impediment in the way of reform, but it is also the great safeguard against ruin. It is, in other words, a great political force, which theoretical reformers do not sufficiently take into account and study. In other words, as long as the mass of people are as hopeful as they are now no great reform will be possible, but neither will ruin be possible. The force which prevents your repairing the machine also makes it go in spite of its defects. Moreover, it must not be forgotten that not only does this hopefulness exist, but it is deliberately and sedulously cultivated by a large proportion of the best men of the community—the most moral, religious, and generally conscientious. It has indeed come to be in the eyes of a great many of them a sign of moral soundness, and its absence is taken as an indication of a greater or less degree of baseness—as, for instance, an indication of want of faith in man or God. Now, hopefulness is only kept up in all the affairs of life by a steady and persistent refusal to look much at details or be much affected by them, or, in other words, by constantly taking long or "large views" of society and politics. Nevertheless, it is only through attention to details that abuses are reformed, for it is in details that all abuses lie. One result, therefore, and a pretty formidable one, of the working of the great and on the whole beneficent influence of hopefulness is that nearly all our reformers and philanthropists deal in generalities and declamation, while the rascals work diligently and make their fortune among the small facts. They care nothing about "the great movements of society," and are only too glad to leave them altogether to "the good men."

In short, the great difficulty in the way of reform is not so much the want of intellectual perception of abuses on the part of the people as want of moral sensitiveness about them, and all the circumstances of the time help to strengthen this apathy. It would be difficult, for instance, to imagine a worse plight than that in which the country found itself after the first battle of Bull Run. The prospect was of the gloomiest kind, and when the "uprising" came, it was rather that of men who were determined to do their duty than that of men who were at all confident of their game. During the ensuing four years the difficulties the Government had to contend with were of the most appalling kind, and yet it came safely through them all. Then again the sequelæ of the war, though very bad in the eyes of the "thoughtful man," are not by any means bad in the eyes of the "average man." What the Average Man was afraid of, and what the Thoughtful Man predicted, was a period of great poverty and accompanying simplicity of manners, opening with a great "financial crash." We have passed through no such period. There has been no simplification of manners, and no financial crash, or much likelihood of one, and this in spite of what everybody admits to have been grave financial errors. It is hardly to be wondered at if this easy solution of one of the most serious political problems ever presented to any people should have begot general indifference about political tendencies and dangers. We are still only ten years from the war, and every man's head is still filled with the exultation of the war.

But this is not all. It is a matter of familiar history that nearly all the great political revolutions, and particularly all the great political reforms, have been prefaced by physical privation or suffering on the part of the great body of the people. It is through their appetites that the great majority of men judge of the goodness or badness of a government. It requires considerable intellectual culture and the habit of abstract thought to get excited over political evils, when one is well clothed and well fed, and has no anxiety about one's future. It is consequently very difficult to persuade the bulk of the population, when work is plenty, wages good, and the material resources of the country visibly growing at an enormous rate, not only that the Government is badly administered, but that it makes any very great difference after all how it is administered. At such times all agitation about centralization, disregard of the law, corruption in office, wasteful expenditure, and so forth, is apt to wear, in the eyes of the Average Man, the appearance of much ado about nothing. Nothing is going wrong with *him*, as far as he sees. He has money in the savings-bank, plenty to eat and drink and wear, and finds all his little ventures turn out well. Moreover, he cannot get over the large picturesque facts of contemporaneous history—the increase in the revenue, the reduction of the public debt, the growth of population and products

and the railroads, the settlement of the Alabama claims and of the San Juan difficulty. In the presence of these things, the abuses of which you tell him look small and insignificant. If you try to point out their possible consequences to him, you are forced to admit that the worst you fear can hardly come to pass under, say, fifty years, and the Average Man has long ceased to look fifty years ahead. He is too much of a philosopher to trouble himself so long in advance about anything, and the great danger of American politics is, that the prodigious material prosperity which breeds this dulness shows no sign of abating; on the contrary, there is every indication that it is only just beginning, and that the remainder of the century has greater wonders in store for us, in the way of money-making, than any we have yet seen or even imagined.

The peculiar nature of these difficulties in the way of reform rendered great care and judgment all the more necessary on the part of those who made the first attempt, after the close of the war, to rouse the country into its old habits of watchfulness about the beginnings or symptoms of decline. But here again, as ill-luck would have it, this very attempt was so managed as to increase the popular apathy. The result was so ludicrous as to bring odium and contempt on the very name of reform, and furnish the Average Man with stronger reasons than ever for eating, drinking, and making merry, and treating reformers as "charlatans" or dreamers. A vigorous canvass for Charles Francis Adams might and would probably, whatever the result, have roused the conscience of the country, and led men to look in good earnest below the surface of their affairs. The canvass which actually took place, with its "proclamations" from Theodore Tilton, John Cochrane, and "Jim" Scovel, threw an atmosphere of buffoonery over all complaints against the Administration, and lent an air of wisdom to stolid content, and gave the tricksters and ruffians a firmer seat in the public saddle than ever.

All this makes the new year look a little dismal to those who know that no people has ever yet been saved by gold, and that even riches, to be permanent, have to be guarded by grace, wisdom, and understanding. But reformers of all parties and sections, to accomplish anything, must understand the difficulties in their way. They must understand, above all things, that there is little use in simply preaching about abuses or abusing this man or that man. The remedies they propose must be such as to strike the torpid popular conscience and imagination, and the men they offer for popular acceptance must be something else than old dogs with a new set of tricks.

"CUSTOM-HOUSE PARTIES."

THE President has arrived at a very sensible conclusion with regard to the Warmoth Legislature in Louisiana, and that is, not to meddle with it unless it "obstructs the recognized government of the State." Pinchback, the "recognized" Governor, however, does not concur in this view, and has at this writing announced that he will prevent by force any "pretended general assembly" from "convening and disturbing the public peace," and that such "parties participating" in any such meeting are "wrong-doers," and should be "promptly dealt with as such." Should he meet with any resistance, he will probably treat it as a case of "invasion" or "domestic violence," and ask for Federal assistance in breaking the meeting up. Indeed, it is very hard to say what limits he would put to his prerogatives as "executive," as he declares that it is not only his duty to "quell mobs and insurrections," but to prevent, by "the prompt and vigorous execution of the law," "the inception of such riotous and disturbed conditions." What this last phrase means we do not pretend to know with accuracy. It is not a phrase known to Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, but it would, we imagine, sound very familiarly in South America or in France, and is of the kind constantly heard there in the mouths of prefects and commanding officers. Indeed, we could not desire a better illustration of that assimilation of Southern politics to that of Spanish America, of which we spoke two weeks ago, than this proclamation affords. It has the true vague, resonant, Latin ring so often heard in "pronunciamientos," and displays that devotion to general principles and to abstract virtue, and that horror of the vicious and their "guilty designs," which have shone out so vividly in all the public papers of so many Latin functionaries, from the Pope down to the village mayor.

It ought to be borne in mind steadily, however, by the sober-minded part of the community North and South, that there is no such thing known to American jurisprudence as "the inception of riotous and disturbed conditions," and if either Pinchback or the General Government use force for the prevention of anything of the kind, they will be guilty of maltreating a number of inoffensive citizens. The only "riotous" or "disturbed" things known to the American law are riot and disturbance, or, in other words, breaches of the peace; and the holding of a meeting by a body of men in any hall or room with the consent of the owner, is not a riot or disturbance, no matter what they call themselves. It is not an offence against the law for any body of persons to meet together and declare themselves a constitutional convention, assembly, legislature, or council, or parliament, provided they are entitled to the use of the place of meeting. They may issue as many decrees or pass as many acts as they please, provided they make no attempt to carry them into force. In short, the worst charge which could be brought against such a body would be that of folly, and neither the State nor General Government is charged with the duty of putting down folly. This point came up once before in Louisiana in 1866, when Mr. Johnson denounced the meeting of a body calling itself a constitutional convention as a "usurpation," and called it an "illegal assembly"; and the mayor, acting on the hints received from Washington, attacked it at the head of the police force, and murdered a large number of persons in the foulest way. The affair made a tremendous uproar at the North, and it was then, we believe, pretty well settled, to the satisfaction of the public at all events, that there is no such thing known in America as an "illegal assembly" for purposes of discussion, and calling a meeting an "inception of riotous and disturbed conditions" will not make it illegal.

The matter is worth urging on the attention of the Government again, because the probabilities are that we shall for some time have a crop of these double governments all over the South. The President will be obliged to recognize one of them, but it does not follow that he must help to punish the other for keeping up the harmless pretence of an official character, or for meeting to spout in large rooms. If every rattle-brained carpet-bagger or adventurer who gets at the head of any Southern State for the next ten years finds himself able to command the services of the United States troops to suppress whatever he pleases to call "an inception of riotous and disturbed conditions," we shall have incessant disorders in that region, and such frequent interference of the military as almost to destroy whatever reverence may be left among the citizens down there for the slow and cumbrous processes of the law. We are glad to say, however, that the President has taken one step in anticipation of such interferences which will hereafter deprive them of a portion of their scandal, by forbidding all Federal officials to hold office under the State government. One great cause of the trouble in Louisiana has lain in the fact that the gang of politicians known in New Orleans and other great ports as the Custom-house party, and headed by the United States Marshal Packard, and the celebrated Casey, the collector, also played the part of active and fierce partisans in the State quarrels, and fought lustily for their share of the State spoils, and were able to bring to the help of their side the United States troops. On one occasion they had the Republican Convention held in the Custom-house, and made the delegates prove their qualifications to Federal sentries at the door, and Federal troops garrisoned the building during the session. Casey's use of the United States revenue-cutter to help one party in the State Senate to escape from the sergeant-at-arms, so as to prevent a quorum, we have often referred to. All these things were due to the fact that

the United States officers were also active State politicians. We have, it is true, the same phenomenon at the North, but the Government has not yet got into the habit of interfering in State quarrels at the North. The collector at New York or Boston could not have used United States soldiers to bring the Greeleyites to confusion, nor have Northern legislatures got into the habit of submitting local disputes to the United States Attorney-General. As the President is exercising the functions of an arbiter at the South, he must, in order to interfere with any moral weight, keep his own personal followers out of the fray.

But we think the sober second thought of the country is more than ever in favor of his not interfering at all, except at the last extremity and to prevent armed conflicts. It is still not too late to return to the ancient ways. Not only should "the Custom-house party" in every State be broken up, and the Federal officials be forbidden to hold State offices, but they should be forbidden to "work" in State politics. As long as their co-operation gives any set of State politicians at the South reason to believe that if they are driven to the wall they can get help from Washington, we shall never see the restoration of healthy political life at the South—and by healthy political life we mean the administration of the local government through open discussion and honest voting. As long as we raise local politicians above dependence on local opinion for their success, they are sure to be and remain incurable cheats, intriguers, and bullies, and to threaten us at every election with sieges, and fights, and riots, and arrests, and double boards, and assemblies, and mock governors, and sham returns, and false counts, and all the other excesses of knaves struggling to get possession of honest men's money.

ENGLAND.—OXFORD AND RUGBY.

London, Dec. 13, 1872.

In the general absence of any exciting political questions, a little ecclesiastical dispute at Oxford has excited unusual attention. The duty of preaching before the University is confided to persons nominated by a board, subject to the approval of the Convention, that is to say, of the whole body of Masters of Arts. The board has just nominated Dean Stanley—to the horror, as it appears, of a large number of orthodox persons. An angry correspondence took place between Mr. Burgon, who is the head of one section of the Church party at Oxford, and the Vice-Chancellor, who presided over the nominating board. Though the Convention generally approves of all names submitted to it, it was invited on this occasion to reject so dangerous a person as the Dean of Westminster. The voting took place on Wednesday last, and Oxford was in a state of excitement for several hours. The country clergy poured in from neighboring districts to support the cause of orthodoxy. Special trains from London brought down crowds of young barristers resolved to administer a rebuke to bigotry. The result was favorable to the liberal cause. Dean Stanley's nomination was confirmed by a majority of 62, and great is the triumph and the disgust. The chief reason of the success of a party which, as a rule, is in a minority, was the absence of Dr. Pusey and his followers from the poll. Perhaps they remembered how the same weapons had been used against them in former days, and were conscious that such futile attempts to suppress the utterance of particular opinions do more harm than good. The University has within the last generation passed votes of censure in different forms upon Bishop Hampden, whose mild rationalism is now pretty well forgotten, upon Drs. Newman and Ward, then verging towards Romanism, and upon Dr. Jowett, whose influence has now shown itself in the support afforded to his disciple. Those censures were barren enough of any practical result, and the protest against Dean Stanley was likely to be even more futile. If his opponents had succeeded, they would not even have excluded him from the University pulpit, except upon certain special occasions. So far as their action had had any result at all, it would simply have given an additional advertisement (not that any advertisement was much needed), to the undergraduates that Dean Stanley was suspected of heresy. Of course the result would have been to increase his audience whenever he was invited to preach. Under any circumstances, it would have been stopping a very insignificant hole in a very wide sieve.

Dean Stanley is the object of very lively disapprobation on the part of a large body of the clergy, and I cannot say that the disapprobation is unnatural. It is almost his avowed purpose to show that the Thirty-nine Articles enforce no restriction upon the expression of the most advanced opinions by any man who chooses to evade them. The Church of England, according to him, is so liberal a body that doctrines indistinguishable from Romanism or indistinguishable from Positivism may be preached in it with equal facility. Whether this doctrine can be practically carried out, or whether, as I confess that I think myself, it is really hopeless permanently to combine in one body sects divided by so wide and deep a gulf, Dean Stanley is naturally an irritating phenomenon to the orthodox. They can understand a thoroughgoing friend or an avowed enemy, but they fail to understand a traitor in the camp, who avows and justifies his treachery on principle. They feel that he is eluding them by an unworthy artifice. He cannot be condemned by the courts, because he uses the orthodox language; and yet he uses it to express ideas which are in vital opposition to the orthodox interpretation. And, therefore, though Dean Stanley enjoys a very wide personal popularity, he is perhaps the man most keenly hated as the representative of a principle by High and Low Churchmen of all varieties. Dean Goulburn, formerly head-master of Rugby, and more recently a popular preacher in London, has written to the Vice-Chancellor of Oxford to resign his own select prætorship, which he cannot hold in common with such a colleague. Such a mode of protest is rather surprising, as it would apparently leave the youth of Oxford to be seduced by their rationalist teacher, without any counter-attraction; but Dean Goulburn is not very good at reasoning. Meanwhile, the whole quarrel is absurd enough from any practical point of view. The recent act has secularized Oxford by removing all tests, and the authorities of the university may within a short time be Jews, Romanists, Mohammedans, or infidels of any variety. The attempt to retain the old position of the University as a bulwark of orthodoxy is simply futile; and, indeed, Oxford, which has been the great centre of religious movement in England for the last half-century, is now as remarkable for producing Positivists as it once was for producing Puseyites. Dean Stanley may be dangerous to those who are still within the pale by softening the transition from orthodoxy to infidelity, but those to whom he could be dangerous are already a small minority. The men who sat at his feet and Dr. Jowett's have broken the leading-strings of the church. The ducklings have long since taken to water, and the poor old hen is vainly cackling to them from the bank. Whether she keeps to dry land, or tries to conciliate her brood by affecting to swim, whilst she all the time has one foot on the ground, matters little; they have struck out into the deeps, and are far beyond her influence.

Another personal matter has been exciting a good deal of interest lately. I presume that I have already written to you upon former occasions of the great war which is raging at Rugby. It has just entered a new and rather singular phase. When Dr. Temple became Bishop of Exeter, the trustees of Rugby appointed Dr. Hayman as his successor. Now, Dr. Temple had been a singularly successful master, and old Rugbians held that the mantle of Dr. Arnold had descended upon his shoulders. The Rugbian differs from the member of any other public school by the worship which he pays to that celebrated teacher of Tom Brown. We the profane outsiders, who have been educated at less sacred places, are apt to accuse the Rugbian of priggishness and massive solemnity. We do not precisely object to his having a moral sense; but we fancy that he has not an exclusive right to that faculty, and should not be so fond of flourishing it in our faces. That mantle of Dr. Arnold gives a certain pomposity of behavior to all who wear it, and they shake from its folds an amount of condescension to the rest of the human race which is at times a little trying. Now Dr. Temple had collected and left behind him a very excellent body of assistant masters, whose only blemish was that they had imbibed a double portion of this exalted spirit. They consequently resented the appointment of Dr. Hayman as almost a personal insult to themselves, and certainly an insult to the memory of Dr. Arnold. In fact, the trustees, who were a conservative body, appear to have chosen Dr. Hayman in preference to men of far greater qualifications, precisely with a view to counteracting the supposed influence of Dr. Temple, who was not only a pupil of Arnold's but a contributor to 'Essays and Reviews.' It was therefore not surprising that there should be a very unpleasant feeling between the new head-master and his old subordinates. It was as though Mr. Greeley had taken General Grant's place without the power of dismissing the Cabinet. It matters little who was most to blame for the hostilities which were carried on from that time. Had the old board of trustees continued they would doubtless have supported their nominee and got rid of the assistants. But unluckily for Dr. Hayman a new board had just been constituted by act of Parliament, and the new board sympathized with the assistants. One of these, a Mr. Scott, was particularly obnoxious to Dr. Hayman, who did his best to get rid of him. The head-master suspected Mr. Scott of abusing him behind his back, of writing letters of accusation against him, and generally of being a disloyal assistant. I should imagine it to be highly probable that Mr. Scott had, in fact, no very lively feelings

of affection for his superior. Dr. Hayman, however, seems to have attacked him in a most unscrupulous manner. Not being able to dismiss him, he tried by underhand means to obtain evidence against him; he founded various accusations upon the evidence as obtained; and when Mr. Scott conclusively proved the accusations to be groundless he refused to withdraw them or to apologize. The whole matter thus came before the new trustees; their investigations produced a result most unfavorable to Dr. Hayman, and they expressed their opinions in a letter containing a severe rebuke to the head-master. The letter has been published and has made matters far worse than before. The board, in fact, has solemnly declared that Dr. Hayman has been guilty of dishonorable conduct, and that, unless he changes his ways, he ought to resign. But then they fail to draw the obvious inference. It was proposed to dismiss Dr. Hayman immediately, and I believe that the board was equally divided upon a motion for that purpose. As it is, they allow him to remain in his post and yet declare publicly that he is quite unfit for it. Of course Dr. Hayman takes refuge in silence. It is probably the best thing he can do. To resign would be to admit the justice of the accusation, besides which it would amount to almost complete professional ruin. Dr. Hayman naturally prefers to keep to a good place, and to act the part of martyr. Meanwhile such a state of things is simply ruinous to the school. Who would send his son to a place where the head-master is declared on good authority to have behaved so badly that he ought to reform or to retire; for which it is generally said that he is in all ways incompetent, and where he is at daggers drawn with all his assistants? Obviously the position is intolerable. Dr. Hayman should retire or should get rid of his subordinates; and few people will doubt which is the best alternative. The only thing in his favor is his feeling that he has hardly received a fair hearing; but, whoever is to blame, the result is equally prejudicial to the welfare of what has hitherto been one of our most highly esteemed schools.

Perhaps I ought not to detain your readers so long on a mere school squabble. My only apology is that, rightly or wrongly, the British public takes an intense interest in such questions. The scandal at Winchester, of which I had recently to speak, seems to excite the public mind far more than the French crisis, or than any political question of the day. On the same principle, the rights and wrongs of the Rugby warfare are eagerly canvassed, not only by Rugby people, but by all manner of persons to whom Rugby is little more than a name. Perhaps it is merely because anything like a personal scandal is always interesting to corrupt human nature; or perhaps the extraordinary interest taken in the school once presided over by Dr. Arnold, and attended by Tom Brown, is, in its way, a characteristic natural phenomenon. The session is rapidly approaching, and then I shall be able to be as grave, statistical, and politico-economical as your readers will allow.

THE PARISIAN STAGE.

FROM AN OCCASIONAL CORRESPONDENT.

PARIS, December 7, 1872.

IT is impossible to spend many weeks in Paris without observing that the theatre plays a very important part in French civilization; and it is impossible to go much to the theatre without finding it a copious source of instruction as to French ideas, manners, and characters. I supposed that I had a certain acquaintance with these complex phenomena, but during the last couple of months I have occupied a great many *fauteuils d'orchestre*, and in the merciless glare of the footlights I have read a great many of my old convictions with a new distinctness. I have had at the same time one of the greatest attainable pleasures; for, surely, among the pleasures that one deliberately seeks and pays for, none beguiles the heavy human consciousness so totally as a first-rate evening at the Théâtre Français or the Gymnase. It was the poet Gray, I believe, who said that his idea of heaven was to lie all day on a sofa and read novels. He, poor man, spoke while 'Clarissa Harlowe' was still the fashion and a novel was synonymous with an eternity. A much better heaven, I think, would be to sit all night in a *fauteuil* (if they were only a little better stuffed) listening to Delaunay, watching Got, or falling in love with Mlle. Desclée. An acted play is a novel intensified; it realizes what the novel suggests, and, by paying a liberal tribute to the senses, anticipates your possible complaint that your entertainment is of the meagre sort styled "intellectual." The stage throws into relief the best gifts of the French mind, and the Théâtre Français is not only the most amiable but the most characteristic of French institutions. I often think of the inevitable first sensations there of the "cultivated foreigner," let him be as stuffed with hostile prejudice as you please. He leaves the theatre an ardent Gallomaniac. This, he cries, is the civilized nation *par excellence*. Such art, such finish, such grace, such taste, such a marvellous exhibition of applied science, are the mark of a chosen people, and these delightful talents imply the existence of every virtue. His enthusiasm may be short and make few converts; but certainly during his stay in Paris, whatever may be his mind in the intervals, he never listens to the traditional *toc—toc—toc* which sounds up the curtain in the Rue Richelieu, without murmuring, as he squares himself in his chair and grasps his *lorgnette*, that after all the French are prodigiously great!

I shall never forget a certain evening in the early summer when, after a busy, dusty, weary day in the streets, staring at charred ruins and finding in all things a vague aftertaste of gunpowder, I repaired to the Théâtre Français to listen to Molière's "Mariage Forcé," and Alfred de Musset's "Il ne Faut Jurer de Rien." The entertainment seemed to my travel-tired brain what a perfumed bath is to one's weary limbs, and I sat in a sort of languid ecstasy of contemplation and wonder—wonder that the tender flower of poetry and art should bloom again so bravely over blood-stained garments and fresh-made graves. Molière is played at the Théâtre Français as he deserves to be—one can hardly say more—with the most ungrudging breadth, exuberance, and *entrain*, and yet with a kind of academic harmony and solemnity. Molière, if he ever drops a kindly glance on MM. Got and Coquelin, must be the happiest of the immortals. To be read two hundred years after your death is something; but to be acted is better—at least when your name doesn't happen to be Shakespeare and your interpreter the great American (or, indeed, the great British) tragedian. Such powerful, natural, wholesome comedy as that of the creator of *Sganarelle* certainly never was conceived, and the actors I have just named give it its utmost force. I have often wondered that in the keen and lucid atmosphere which Molière casts about him, some of the effusions of his modern successors should live for an hour. Alfred de Musset, however, need fear no neighborhood, and his "Il ne Faut Jurer," after Molière's tremendous farce, was like fine sherry after strong ale. Got plays in it a small part, which he makes a great one, and Delaunay, the silver-tongued, the ever-young, and that plain robust person and admirable artist, Madame Nathalie, and that divinely ingenuous *ingénue*, Mlle. Reichemberg. It would be a poor compliment to the performance to say that it might have been mistaken for real life. If real life were a tithe as charming it would be a merry world. De Musset's plays, which, in general, were not written for the stage, are of so ethereal a quality that they lose more than they gain by the interpretation, refined and sympathetic as it is, which they receive at the Théâtre Français. The most artistic acting is coarser than the poet's intention.

The play in question, however, is an exception and keeps its silvery tone even in the glare of the footlights. The second act, at the rising of the curtain, represents a drawing-room in the country; a stout, eccentric *baronne* sits with her tapestry making distracted small talk while she counts her points with a deliciously rustic abbé; on the other side, her daughter, in white muslin and blue ribbons, is primly taking her dancing lesson from a venerable choregraphic pedagogue in a wig and tights. The exquisite art with which, for the following ten minutes, the tone of random accidental conversation is preserved, while the *baronne* loses her glasses and miscounts her stitches, and the daughter recommences her step for the thirtieth time, must simply, as the saying is, be seen to be appreciated. The acting is full of charming detail—detail of a kind we not only do not find but do not even look for on the English stage. The way in which, in a subsequent scene, the young girl, listening at evening in the park to the passionate whisperings of the hero, drops her arms half awkwardly along her sides in fascinated self-surrender, is a touch quite foreign to English invention. Unhappily for us as actors, we are not a gesticulating people. Mlle. Reichemberg's movement here is an intonation in gesture as eloquent as if she had spoken it. The incomparable Got has but a dozen short speeches to make, but he distils them with magical neatness. He sits down to piquet with the *baronne*. "You risk nothing, M. l'abbé?" she soon demands. The concentrated timorous prudence of the abbé's "*Oh! non!*" is a master-stroke; it depicts a lifetime. Where Delaunay plays, however, it is hard not to call him the first. To say that he *satisfies* may at first seem small praise; but it may content us when we remember what a very loose fit in the poet's vision is the usual *jeune premier* of the sentimental drama. He has at best a vast deal of fustian to utter, and he has a perilous balance to preserve between the degree of romantic expression expected in a gentleman whose trade is love-making and the degree tolerated in a gentleman who wears a better or worse made black coat and carries the hat of the period. Delaunay is fifty years old, and his person and physiognomy are meagre; but his taste is so unerring, his touch so light and true, his careless grace so free and so elegant, that in his hands the *jeune premier* becomes a creation as fresh and natural as the unfolding rose. He has a voice of extraordinary sweetness and flexibility, and a delivery which makes the commonest phrases musical, but when as *Valentin*, as *Perdican*, or as *Fortunio*, he embarks on one of De

Musset's melodious *tirades*, and his utterance melts and swells in trembling cadence and ringing emphasis, there is really little to choose between the performance, as a mere vocal exhibition, and an *aria* by a first-rate tenor.

An actor equally noted for his elegance, now attested by forty years of triumphs, is Bressant, whose name, with old Parisians, is a synonym for *la distinction*. "Distingué comme Bressant" is an accepted formula of praise. A few years ago comedians were denied Christian burial; such are the revenges of history. Bressant's gentility is certainly a remarkable piece of art, but he always seems to me too conscious that an immense supply of the commodity is expected from him. Nevertheless, the Théâtre Français offers nothing more effective and suggestive than certain little comedies (the "Post Scriptum," for instance, by Emile Augier), in which he receives the *réplique* from that venerable *grande coquette*, Mme. Plessy, the direct successor, in certain parts, of Mlle. Mars. I find these illustrious veterans, on such occasions, more interesting even than they aspire to be, and the really picturesque figures are not the Comte or the Marquise, but the grim and battered old comedians, with a life's length of footlights making strange shadows on their impenetrable masks. As a really august exhibition of experience, I recommend a *tête-à-tête* between these artists. The orchestra of the Théâtre Français is haunted by a number of old gentlemen, classic playgoers, who look as if they took snuff from boxes adorned with portraits of the fashionable beauty of 1820. I caught an echo of my impressions from one of them the other evening, when, as the curtain fell on Bressant and Plessy, he murmured ecstatically to his neighbor, "*Quelle connaissance de la scène . . . et de la vie!*"

The audience at the Parisian theatres is indeed often as interesting to me as the play. It is, of course, composed of heterogeneous elements. There are a great many ladies with red wigs in the boxes, and a great many bald young gentlemen staring at them from the orchestra. But *les honnêtes gens* of every class are largely represented, and it is clear that even people of serious tastes look upon the theatre not as one of the "extras," but as one of the necessities, of life—a periodical necessity hardly less frequent and urgent than their evening paper and their *demi-tasse*. I am always struck with the number of elderly men, decorated, grizzled, and grave, for whom the stage has kept its mysteries. You may see them at the Palais Royal, listening complacently to the carnival of *grivoiseries* nightly enacted there, and at the Variétiés, levelling their glasses paternally at the lightly-clad heroines of Offenbach. The truth is that in the theatre the French mind *se reconnait*, according to its own idiom, more vividly than elsewhere. Its supreme faculty, the art of form, of arrangement and presentation, is preeminently effective on the stage, and I suppose many a good citizen has before this consoled himself for his country's woes by reflecting that if the Germans *have* a Gravelotte in their records, they have not a "Rabagas," and if they possess a Bismarck and a Moltke, they have neither a Dumas *fils* nor a Schneider. A good French play is an admirable work of art, of which it behooves patrons of the contemporary English drama, at any rate, to speak with respect. It serves its purpose to perfection, and French dramatists, as far as I can see, have no more secrets to learn. The first half-dozen a foreign spectator listens to seem to him among the choicest productions of the human mind, and it is only little by little that he becomes conscious of the extraordinary meagreness of their material. The *substance* of the plays I have lately seen seems to me, when I think them over, something really amazing, and it is what I had chiefly in mind in speaking just now of the stage as an index of social character. Prime material was evidently long ago exhausted, and the best that can be done now is to rearrange old situations with a kind of desperate ingenuity. The field looks terribly narrow, but it is still cleverly worked. "An old theme—but with a difference," the workman claims; and he makes the most of his difference—for laughter if he is an *amateur* pure and simple; for tears, if he is a moralist.

Do not for a moment imagine that moralists are wanting. Alexandre Dumas *fils* is one—he is a dozen, indeed, in his single self. M. Pailleron (whose "Hélène" is the last novelty at the Théâtre Français) is another; and I am not sure that, since "Rabagas," M. Sardou is not a third. The great dogma of M. Dumas *fils* is, that if your wife is persistently unfaithful to you, you must kill her. He leaves you, I suppose, the choice of weapons; but that the thing must somehow be done, he has written a famous pamphlet, now reaching its fortieth edition, to prove. M. Pailleron holds, on the other hand, that if it was before your marriage, and before she had ever heard of you, and with her cousin, when she was a child and knew no better, you must—after terrific vituperation, indeed, and imminent suicide on the lady's part—press her relentingly to your bosom. M. Pailleron enforces this moral in capitally turned verse, and with Delaunay's magical aid; but as I sat through his piece the other evening, I racked my brain to discover what heinous offence Delicacy has ever committed that she should have to do such cruel penance. I am afraid that she has worse things in store for her, for the event of the winter (if a *coup d'état* does not carry off the honors) is to be the new play of Dumas *fils*, "La Femme de Claude." Whatever becomes of the state, I shall go early to see the play, for it is to have the services of the first actress in the world. I have not the smallest hesitation in so qualifying Mademoiselle Desclée. She has just been sustaining by her sole strength the weight of a ponderous drama called "La Gueule du Loup," in which her acting seemed to me a revelation of the capacity of the art. I have never seen nature grasped so in its essence, and rendered with a more amazing mastery of the fine shades of expression. Just as the light drama in France is a tissue of fantastic indecencies, the serious drama is an agglomeration of horrors. I had supped so full of these that, before seeing the "Gueule du Loup," I had quite made up my mind to regard as an offence against civilization every new piece, whether light or serious, of which the main idea should not be *pleasing*. To do anything so pleasant as to please is the last thing that M. Dumas and his school think of. But Mlle. Desclée renders the chief situation of M. Laya's drama—that of a woman who has fancied herself not as other women are, coming to her senses at the bottom of a moral abyss, and measuring the length of her fall—with a verity so penetrating that I could not but ask myself whether, to become a wholesome and grateful spectacle, even the ugliest possibilities of life need anything more than rigorous exactness of presentation. Mlle. Desclée, at any rate, was for half-an-hour the most powerful of moralists. M. Laya, her author, on the other hand, is an atrocious one. His trivial *dénouement*, treading on the heels of the sombre episode I have mentioned, is an insult to the spectator's sympathies. Even Mlle. Desclée's acting fails to give it dignity. Here, as everywhere, an inexpressible want of moral intelligence is the striking point. Novel and drama alike betray an incredibly superficial perception of the moral side of life. It is not only that adultery is their only theme, but that the treatment of it is so monstrously vicious and arid. It has been used now for so many years as a mere pigment, a source of dramatic color, a *ficelle*, as they say, that it has ceased to have any apparent moral bearings. It is turned inside out by hungering poetasters in search of a new "effect" as freely as an old glove by some thrifty dame intent on placing a prudent stitch. I might cite some striking examples, if I had space; some are too detestable. I do not know that I have found anything more suggestive than the revival, at the Gymnase, of that too familiar drama of the younger (the then very youthful) Dumas, the "Dame aux Camélias." Mlle. Pierson plays the heroine—Mlle. Pierson the history of whose *embonpoint* is one of the topics of the day. She was formerly almost corpulent—fatally so for that beauty which even her rivals admitted to be greater than her talent. She devoted herself bravely to a diet of raw meat and other delicacies recommended by Banting, and she has recently emerged from the ordeal in sylphlike slenderness. This result, I believe, "draws" powerfully, though it seemed to me, I confess, that even raw meat had not made Mlle. Pierson an actress. I went to the play because I had read in the weekly *feuilleton* of that very sound and sensible critic, M. Francisque Sarcey, that even in its old age it bore itself like a masterpiece, and produced an immense effect. If I could speak with the authority of Dr. Johnson, I should be tempted to qualify it with that vigorous brevity which he sometimes used so well. In the *entr'actes* I took refuge in the street to laugh at my ease over its colossal flimsiness. But I should be sorry to linger on the sombre side of the question, and my intention, indeed, was to make a note of none but pleasant impressions. I have, after all, received so many of these in Paris play-houses that my stricture seems gracelessly cynical. I bear the actors, at least, no grudge; they are better than the authors. Molière and De Musset, moreover, have not yet lost favor, and Corneille's "Cid" was recently revived with splendor and success. Here is a store of imperishable examples. What I shall think of regretfully when I have parted with the opportunity is not the *tragédies bourgeoises* of MM. Dumas, Feuillet, and Pailleron, but the inimitable Got strutting about as the *podestà* in the "Caprices de Marianne," and twitching his magisterial train from the nerveless grasp of that delicious idiot, his valet: and Delaunay murmuring his love notes like a summer breeze in the ear of the blonde Cécile, and Coquelin as *Mascarille*, looking like an old Venetian print, and playing as if the author of the "Etourdi" were in the *coulisse*, prompting him; and M. Mannet-Sully (the ardent young *débutant* of the "Cid") shouting with the most picturesque fury possible the famous sortie:

"Paraissez Navarrins, Maures, Castillans!"

To an ingenuous American the Théâtre Français may yet offer an æsthetic education.

ITALY.—THE SCHOOL LAW—THE INCOME TAX.

FLORENCE, Dec. 15, 1872.

AMONG the numerous interpellations which have assailed the Italian ministry since the Deputies have returned to Monte Citorio, there has been one which, although possessing small importance in itself, is calculated

to interest American readers on account of the nationality of the person who gave rise to it. An American residing in Rome somehow or other found his rest disturbed by the laurels acquired by fashionable English missionaries, who have in latter years undertaken to lead the benighted Italians from the darkness of Popery to the sunlight of true Protestant Christianity. Whether there be much chance of success for attempts such as these, or whether success be even desirable were it possible to turn the bright, heathenish offspring of this sunny clime into stern, gloomy Puritans, such as the cloudy atmosphere of England produced in the time of Oliver Cromwell, is a question your correspondent does not feel himself competent or called upon to decide. Nay, he even owns to a strange distrust and scepticism with regard to Italian converts, which is the result of a long personal experience and that of several of his friends, and confesses that whenever a mendicant or a servant contrives to enter his house on the plea of being a Protestant neophyte, he feels a great inclination to get him out of it as soon as he can, and takes very good care to secure his door well behind his brother in religion. Conversion, in fact, for the greater part of Italian new-made Protestants means nothing more nor less than a mere speculation on the purses of those wealthy zealots whom America and England daily despatch to Italy, and I have seen more than one of these converts find the dodge answer so well that as soon as the novelty of it had worn off he turned Catholic again, and turned his new belief to the best possible account by applying to England's nobles of the old religion who annually pay a visit to Rome to kiss the Pope's toe. It is even by no means rare for these elastic individuals to undergo a third course and turn Calvinists anew.

Be this as it may, however, the fact remains that the rich and benevolent American who succeeded in engrossing the debates of Parliament for a whole day last week had founded four public schools at his own expense, to which many Roman parents, accustomed to live upon priests and the religious zeal of dupes, sent their children. One fine day, however, the police took it into their heads to close them all four; whereupon their American founder, after vehemently protesting against so unjust and tyrannical a proceeding, applied for assistance and support to the American Minister, who, it is said, after enquiring into the facts of the case, declined sanctioning by his protection so flagrant a breach of the laws of the country, however absurd or unjust they might appear to a freeborn republican ignorant of all preventive formalities, and refused to interfere in behalf of his countryman. I leave you to imagine what a splendid field for oratorical display on the part of the Italian Radicals this affair became; how they railed against the pusillanimity of a vile and corrupt ministry, flattering his Holiness the Pope by closing Protestant educational establishments, in order thereby to obtain pardon for their offences against the Church; how vehemently they took up the cause of a Republican and a Protestant against a bigoted monarchical government presiding over the destinies of young Italy. The able and much respected Minister of Public Instruction, Signor Scialoja, had nevertheless little trouble in reducing all these high-sounding accusations to their real value, and did so, moreover, with an amount of simplicity and good taste, and in a business-like way which gave additional force to his irresistible irony, when he showed how ridiculous were the attacks to which he had been exposed.

He began by stating that he had had occasion to close two Catholic ecclesiastical schools, maintained by the Vatican, about a week before he had the American Protestant schools shut, and asked whether he could be supposed to have adopted this measure with a view to flattering the Curia. Only yesterday he had again occasion to close two colleges, founded by the bishop himself, at Pavia, for not having complied with the requirements of the law in announcing their opening. He then went on to say that the somewhat overzealous republican who had established the Protestant schools in question ought to have understood better the fundamental principle of government in his own country, and indeed the main condition of all free government, *i.e.*, respect for the laws, whatever they be: *dura lex, sed lex*. With this, Signor Scialoja set to work to demonstrate that the law which had been thus infringed was not unjust by any means, and enumerated the different breaches of it which had occurred, all which would have had very slight importance had the person guilty of them simply submitted to the law as soon as he became acquainted with it. The Italian law requires a formal authorization on the part of the Government previously to the opening of any school, and this formality had not been complied with by the American gentleman, who had not even thought of announcing to the Government either his intention or the fact of his having actually opened the schools. In the second place, he had employed unqualified teachers in them, *i.e.*, such as did not possess a regular diploma, had passed no public examination, and, in a word, had no legal right to teach in public schools in Italy, because they offered none of those guarantees as to their moral and intellectual capacity which the Italian law requires. Royal school inspectors have the right to enter any public school in the realm at any hour of the day by the Italian laws; now, one of them was refused admittance by one of the masters at the American schools. Moreover, the hall in which one of the schools was held, and which, according to the Government regulations, ought not to hold more than 50 children at a time, was used for double that number; while another school-room was found to be cold, damp, unpaved, admitted the noxious odors peculiar to certain quarters of Rome, in short, was thoroughly unwholesome, and was pronounced dangerous to the health of children who would have to spend several hours of the day in it. Finally, the Italian laws, whether rightly or wrongly, at any rate in conformity with Italian customs and prejudices and with the Italian character, prohibit the promiscuous education of the two sexes even at so early an age as seven years. Now, in the schools in question boys and girls of twelve years of age were taught together, and this was not only scandalous in the impure eyes of immoral Italians—whereas in America, Germany, and England it would hardly have been noticed—but was entirely at variance with the habits and customs of the country, and in fact really dangerous to morality. Having thus simply laid the facts of the case before the House, the Minister made a moderate allusion to the unseemly and ill-judged resistance which had been opposed to the law by the foreigner who had broken it, and sat down amid the cheers of the whole Assembly. He has since met with approval on all sides, as well from the Italian as the European press in general.

The most important parliamentary debate of the week certainly was that upon the income-tax, out of which nevertheless the Ministry came forth as victorious as out of the rest of the skirmishes and outpost fights it has undergone hitherto in anticipation of the great pitched battle upon the religious corporations of Rome, now in process of discussion by the private committee, and doubtless to form the chief object of interest during the present session. The income-tax debate was called forth by the discussion of the budget, which gives ample opportunity on the Continent for speaking *de rebus omnibus et quibusdam aliis*. For instead of simply approving without further discussion the entries and expenditure of the past budget, and confining themselves to a discussion of the new sums, the changes, the extraordinary expenses or new taxes proposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, as is the custom in the English Parliament, the Italians discuss every single point over and over again every year. Now, as there are three budgets here every year, it is easy to imagine what a time this must take. First comes the *bilancio di prima previsione*—the one now under discussion. This must be voted before the year expires, and although it gives rise to a considerable display of oratorical powers, the figures are hardly looked at, the House consoling itself with the thought that the budget will have to be discussed a second time in the *bilancio definitivo*, on which occasion it again deems itself free to dispense with a closer scrutiny because it is conscious of having already looked into it. Finally comes the third discussion, *i.e.*, that of the *bilancio rettificato*, which is always sure to pass undiscussed, because it takes place at a time when the expenses have already been made and a change is no longer possible.

Here we are, then, discussing the *bilancio di prima previsione* for 1873, every chapter of which presents an opportunity for attacking the Ministry, which is but feebly supported by the Conservatives, by whom it is disliked, for reasons which I shall have occasion to explain to you more closely another time. The most violent of these attacks took place on account of the income-tax, a singularly unpopular tax, by the way, here as everywhere—more here perhaps than elsewhere even—and which gives rise to quite as much complaint on the part of the Conservatives as of the Radicals. For weeks, nay, months, the columns of papers representing every shade of opinion were crammed with protests and complaints. The point had been more than once discussed in popular assemblies, and it seemed as though Signor Sella, the Minister, stood in imminent danger of being crushed by the weight of the discussion as soon as this question should be brought up. Yet the result has been far different from what had been anticipated, and, in fact, we may even say that his speeches of the 11th and 12th inst. were not only a decided triumph, but a well-merited triumph.

Sella is no great orator certainly, but he is, beyond a doubt, the greatest statesman Italy has produced since Cavour, and, moreover, manages the House more skilfully than Rattazi himself, that old parliamentary athlete of five-and-twenty years' standing. Thus he had no difficulty in persuading the Assembly last Thursday that he had done nothing but his duty; that were another minister to be found able to manage the financial department better than himself, he would be only too glad to resign in his favor; that he had accepted his portfolio with a deficit of 300,000 millions, which he had reduced to twenty millions; that if any one knew of a better tax, and would propose it, he was quite ready to adopt any useful suggestion; but that, as long as the tax exists, it ought to be rendered as productive as possible. He

cared little for popularity, and was fully aware that the only way for a financial minister to attain it was to apply the principle: Let him pay that likes; whereas his own principle would on the contrary be: Let him pay who owes. At the present time, who in Italy paid what he owed?

And indeed it is interesting for the observer of Italian manners and characteristics to follow the explanation given. In a population of 25,000,000, for instance, we are told that, if we are to believe the statements of the people themselves, there would not be a dozen doctors who earned more than 2,000 lire ($400) a year by their profession! There would be only about 70 lawyers, only 100 engineers and architects, only 1,380 tradesmen. Were his agents so much to be blamed if they occasionally doubted these evidently false statements? A great many taxpayers complain of arbitrary assessments, but Signor Sella quoted several examples of men who had declared their income at 5,000 lire, and who were glad to accept the official estimate doubling and trebling the sum declared. What, in fact, is the amount of the entire income thus taxed? It is 473 millions of lire, of which 180 millions are the interest of capital, 200 the revenue of working capital, and 95 the revenue of labor alone! By this it is clear that it is the holder of Government bonds on whose interests the exchequer lays its hand, and the official whose salary is curtailed by 13.20 per cent., who alone really pay the tax, and that the Minister must be allowed full power to take all necessary steps to prevent the state from being cheated by wholesale. Whenever Sella has proposed new taxes, the invariable answer was: First collect those which already exist. If he does his best to attain that end he is called a despot, his agents are the servile instruments of his tyranny, the taxpayers his victims. Had there been merely petty fraud, he would have simply repressed it. As it is, however, there can be but one means for Italy to recover her credit, her power, and her influence, and that is by paying her debts; and in order to do this she must pay the existing taxes.

Correspondence.

"THE GREENBACK MYSTERY."

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: If it be your intention to open your columns to a discussion of this important subject, I wish to say that "the Government" does now "supply money to the banks for the asking," so far as the banks are privileged to draw currency, guaranteed by the nation, on their deposits of United States bonds, while the interest on the latter still accrues to their benefit. Why the people should continue this profitable monopoly to the banks is "what no fellow can find out."

If the banks must still be the medium through which the credit of the nation shall be supplied to the people, let them receive greenbacks to the full amount of the bonds they may deposit; stop the interest on the bonds so deposited, abolish all bank taxation based on circulation, and relieve the banks from the necessity of keeping the currency reserve now required.

(N. B.—This does not affect the reserve on deposits.)

The adoption of the measure proposed by your correspondent, H. M. F.—viz., the inter-convertibility at par of United States bonds and greenbacks, at the option of individual holders, might be an improvement upon the present system, even as above modified, but it is by no means certain that the removal of the buffer now interposed by the national banks between the currency and its basis would not be a more than compensating disadvantage. S.

January 6, 1873.

Notes.

THE correspondent who asks to what writing of Dr. W. B. Carpenter we alluded in our late review of Owen's 'Debatable Land,' Vol. XVI., p. 269, is informed that we had in mind an article in the *London Quarterly* for October, 1871, on "Spiritualism and its Recent Converts," which was attributed to Dr. Carpenter, and, we believe, correctly, though it has been denied that he wrote it.——It is a sign of the times that the London *Athenæum*, which annually reviews *in extenso* the literature for the year of the principal nations, and which has for three years given in this manner an article on the literature of the United States, now announces a discontinuance of the practice, "having preferred during the past twelve months to devote the same attention to American as to English books, and to notice them as they appear." This is probably the chief reason, but another may be the difficulty of procuring a competent person to review the literature of this country. At least, those who have heretofore served the *Athenæum* in this capacity have not particularly distinguished themselves; in saying which, we do not mean to overlook the difficulties of the task.——At the monthly meeting of the New York Genealogical and Biographical Society, on Saturday, December 28, a biographical sketch of the late Mr. George P. Putnam was read by the president, and an anonymous donation of $250 was announced, to cover the expenses of copying the records of old churches of New York—Dutch, Presbyterian, or French.

—Mr. John Priestley, who died last week, was not connected prominently in any way with literature, science, or art, and to the great majority of our readers his name was entirely unknown, and yet his death comes home as a personal loss to a very large proportion of the men of intellectual pursuits in this city. He has for nearly twenty years been Treasurer of the Century Club, and there was probably nobody who was so closely associated in the mind of its members with that well-loved fireside in Fifteenth Street, around which so many distinguished men of all countries have gathered within the last quarter of a century, and so many of the best men of this city have spent some of their happiest hours. Mr. Priestley was a clubbable man in the best sense of the word, a sympathetic talker, to whom every man's pursuits were interesting, and he talked with unusual attractiveness of face and manner, with strong sense and fine tastes. He was a native of Ireland, but was brought to this country in his infancy, and was a grandnephew of the famous Dr. Priestley, the English theologian and natural philosopher, who emigrated in 1794. He was at one time the publisher of the *Whig Review*, but passed the greater part of his life as a manufacturer of paper, and in that capacity lent a helping hand to more than one literary enterprise which perished untimely. But he was in business as in society, above all things, an honest gentleman, modest, unassuming, unselfish, to whom the society of his friends was the greatest prize and comfort of life.

—We said two weeks ago that although a certain body of persons in this country, commonly designated as "high-tariff men," were in the habit of sneering at what is commonly called "political economy"—that is, the political economy of Turgot and Smith and Say and Mill—and denying that there was any such science, they were all devout believers in a political economy of their own invented by Mr. Henry C. Carey, "for the generalizations of which they have a reverence which, we think, nobody has ever accorded to those of the other writers we have named." This may have seemed at the time strong language, but we find in the Chicago *Journal of Commerce*, of Dec. 26, ample verification of it. Replying to our article on Mr. Boutwell's Political Economy, it says, what no free-trader who knew the meaning of the word "science," or was in his right mind, would say of Adam Smith's political economy:

"We are told of a political economy *invented* by Henry C. Carey. As well might we be told of a motion of the earth *invented* by Galileo, or of a principle of gravitation *invented* by Sir Isaac Newton, or of a system of astronomy *invented* by Copernicus. Mr. Carey lays no claim to invention, but to discovery. By employing the inductive method in a long course of diligent investigation, he found that certain phenomena were in harmony with certain rules of action. Next, during years of patient study, he applied these rules to a multitude of facts, carefully exploring the field of research, without meeting with exceptions. Then alone did he feel justified in claiming these rules to be natural laws. To sneer at his conclusions as inventions does not prove them to be incorrect. Sneers were plentifully bestowed upon Harvey when he announced his discovery of the circulation of the blood; yet the sneerers are well-nigh forgotten, while Harvey has won imperishable fame."

Here we see there is absolutely no difference between the demonstrations of Newton and Kepler in the field of pure science, and Mr. Carey's generalizations on a number of facts picked out by him from all sorts of "histories" and "biographies" and romances, ancient and modern, such as the foundation of Rome by Romulus.

—The following, which appears in the Washington *Republican*, in an article of which Mr. Boutwell is said to approve warmly as a defence of his policy, is too good to be confined to any one circle of readers:

"The *Nation* lays down as one of its maxims that 'man, being by nature a producing and trading animal, the freer play you give his faculties, the more rapidly will he create wealth.' We deny that man, for the purposes of American statesmanship, is an *animal at all;* on the contrary, he is a co-ruler, a sovereign, and must therefore be an intelligent, educated, morally responsible and self-thinking being, or the republic cannot stand.

"We deny *in toto* the above specious, deceitful, and even immoral maxim laid down as a fundamental principle by English writers and repeated by the *Nation*. It has been put forth, precisely as the justification from the Bible of American slavery in times past, to create a public opinion favorable to the unlimited rule of wealth, against whose sway the individual has no rights whatever."

—The good people of Wilmington, Delaware, were lately exercised over the naming of a new hotel. An evening paper, remembering the movement to consolidate in one State Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, which it was proposed to dub *Delmarvia*, favored this name, composed of the first syllables of the names of the three States, for the hotel. Better counsels prevailed, however, and Clayton House it became. "Unique and musical" was the recommendation of *Delmarvia*, which no doubt fairly represents the class of names that please the American ear. Passengers on the Pennsylvania Central must have been struck with the names of certain stations as having a corresponding euphony, of which *Altoona* and *Renŏvo* may stand as examples. They were named by the present President of the road, Mr. J. Edgar Thomson. *Altoona* is of Indian origin, and has been translated "the fat of the mountain." *Renŏvo* is the seat of the railroad repair-shops, as the name was designed to indicate; but the American ear could not be satisfied with the short Latin quantity of the penult. Mr. Thomson also invented *Tiōna* (a station on the Pennsylvania and Erie Road), contracting it from Tionesta, the name of the creek on which the place is situated, inasmuch as the creek had already furnished a name to another settlement. Still another name, of national and even world-wide fame, *Atlanta*, connects itself with the engineering days of Mr. Thomson. *Marthasville* was what it was first called by the chief-engineer of the Western and Atlantic Railroad, in honor of the daughter of Governor Lumpkin, of Georgia; but Mr. Thomson, foreseeing the importance of this terminus, overruled his colleague, and named the station *Atlanta*, from the circumstance that the railways approaching it from the West there first encountered the waters of the Atlantic slope. *Marthasville* reminds us that the Pennsylvania and Erie Road practised, if it did not originate, the sensible custom of doing honor to individuals without tacking after their names *-ville*, *-ton*, or *-bury;* whence the stations *Wetmore*, *Sergeant*, *Keating*, *Sterling*, *Hyner*, etc. *Royston* is only an apparent exception, the name of the landowner on which the station is situated being Roy Stone. *Kinzua*, *Dahoga*, and *Schahonda* are not instances of euphonius invention like some of the foregoing, but are tolerably pure Indian. According to Gen. T. L. Kane, the Senecas pronounced the first name *Kinjua*—one of the rare cases in which that tribe sounded the *j*. *Schahonda* is short for *Dagoosgahonda*, or Wildcat Creek; the whites of the region commonly call the full name *Doggyschahonda*, with a slight confusion of the natural history.

—In the bound volume of the Ninth Census which has just been distributed, the eye is at once arrested by the shaded and colored maps of which we gave, in anticipation, a general description about a year ago (*Nation*, Feb. 8, 1872). They are nine in number, reckoning them by sheets, and represent (1) the density of the total population; (2) the distribution of the colored population; (3) the foreign population; (4) the Irish; (5) the German; (6) the English and Welsh, British American, Swedish and Norwegian, and Chinese population—all on one sheet; (7) degrees of illiteracy; (8) distribution of wealth; (9) the acquisition and transfer of United States territory, from 1780 to 1870. Many curious and some startling reflections suggest themselves on a mere glance at these charts, but we have no room here to indulge in them. We barely remark that, while we are accustomed to deplore the flood of ignorance poured upon our shores from the Old World, we may see here that the home of illiteracy on this continent is in that section, the South, which appears all but blank on the map of foreign population; in other words, that the most unenlightened portion of our population is the most purely American. Of course this includes the late slaves, but they are none the less natives, and are all now citizens and voters. On the other hand, regions in which the Irish population is found in a density varying from 1 to 15 to the square mile often appear blank on the chart of illiteracy; as, for instance, Western New York, Northeastern Ohio, Southern Michigan, Eastern Iowa, and Northern Illinois. The region of greatest wealth is, for all practical purposes, identical with that of the greatest foreign population, for reasons with which we are all familiar.

—These charts show the present status of the country under the various aspects enumerated; similar ones prepared on the census of 1880 will graphically portray our progress, or, to use a neutral word, development. Had we had such thirty, twenty, or even ten years ago, what light they would have shed on movements and tendencies, territorial, political, racial, moral, and social! To take a local example: the influx of Canadians into New England is of comparatively recent date, and its extent, as mapped on one of these sheets, will surprise those who have paid no attention to it. It is really an element of no small value in calculating the future of the New England character—a character which is still, we presume, the one whose transformation is watched with the most interest, not to say with the most concern. The agricultural, the manufacturing, the political physiognomy, so to speak, of New England, is affected by the presence of these French Canadians, who are in such force in Vermont (28,304) that a French paper was not long since published expressly for them. In Essex County, Mass., they have supplanted a significant part of the native American constituency of that district as represented in Congress, and on this side their colonizing has a national bearing. Now, however much of the tendency on their part to cross the border was shown in former censuses, it could easily have escaped notice; whereas maps like these would have fixed the fact in memory, and if used in our schools among the regular aids to instruction would have made this and every other movement of population a matter of common notoriety. Possibly, too, the knowledge that Canada was coming over to us would have cooled the ardor of some of our northward-looking annexationists, and given them patience to wait till a sort of human endosmosis had made a homogeneous people on both sides of the line. What effect on the general desire for annexation the publication of such maps as No. 9 in the above list would have had, we will not undertake to say. We wish the Commissioner had been or had felt authorized to analyze this map by means of others, in the same manner that he has analyzed the foreign population map. American history, as taught in our schools, or as studied in private, would be much more clearly comprehended if for every important stage of extension or alteration of boundaries—State and national—a separate map, on however reduced a scale, could be referred to. These are now left to be laboriously worked out by means of No. 9 alone and the "Historical Notes" on pp. 573–587 of the Census.

—In former times, writers of Greek grammars contented themselves with exhibiting the principles of inflection and syntax, their object being to enable the student to enter upon the study of the language with as little delay as possible. But in this age of progress, when philology has been raised to the ranks of an exact science, the grammarian must not confine himself to a mere exhibition of the phenomena of the language as it exists in the authors that have come down to us. He is expected to describe accurately the forms which ought to have been used before the Greek peninsula was inhabited by any human beings; he must descant upon the inherent qualities of fricatives, surds, factitives, and sonants, as also upon the psychological tendencies of the paulo-post future; he must invent new names for old things, and give a satisfactory account of the Greek pronunciation which prevailed in the days of Phoroneus, Inachus, Sinis, Sciron, and Procrustes; otherwise he will not be considered as having duly executed his task. Further, he must embellish his pages with long notes and excursuses about Sanskrit and Slavic affinities, and Lithuanian and Chinese analogies, not forgetting the curiously developed dialects of Caffraria, which are probably related to the language of the Cabiri. All which he can accomplish without even knowing the alphabets of those languages. The science of the nineteenth century has established the important truth that all races of men, ancient and modern, put their vocal organs in motion for the purpose of embodying in articulate sounds the operations of their minds; always excepting the Cynocephali and the Sciapodes, who express their sentiments by barking and cackling, respectively. Grammar now has ceased to be a means—it is an end. The numerous references to numerous grammars in all our Greek text-books show that the language is to be studied not for its authors but for its roots, stems, affixes, prefixes, and numerals; and always with reference to Sanskrit, Welsh, and Lithuanian. Those who have a taste for Greek literature should use translations; for who would prefer walking to riding?

—Something that translators, reviewers, and foreign correspondents cannot at all keep pace with is the wonderfully active discussion in Germany, since the war, of all sorts of social, political, and economical questions relating to the new Empire. The productiveness of the press on these subjects is not only remarkable in itself as being greater than at any previous epoch in German history, but is in the strongest contrast with what is going on in France. There one might count on his fingers the number of works that have appeared in the last two years touching the reconstitution of France, and showing profound or even patient study of the great problems which rest upon that country for solution. What might we not expect of her, for her own regeneration and for her influence upon the rest of the world, if she were manifesting as great indifference to revenge as her late conquerors to further conquests; if home topics occupied as much of her serious thought; if, to offer a practical illustration, the joint product of all her presses could in any way compare with that of a single German publishing house in matters affecting the national welfare? Carl Habel's list, for example, in Berlin, it would be difficult for all France to match. 'The German State Governments and the Catholic Church of To-day,' by Prof. Dr. Hermann Wasserschleben, of Giessen; 'The New Gold Coinage and the German Mark as a Unit of Reckoning,' by H. F. Kameke; 'On Jury-Courts and Sheriff's Courts,' by Dr. Richard Ed. Jonh,

of Lübeck, are some of the titles taken at random of the pamphlets which this house is constantly issuing, over and above the two series called 'Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen,' and 'Sammlung gemeinverständlicher Vorträge,' which already almost form a library in themselves. The former series is edited by Prof. Dr. F. von Holtzendorff and W. Oncken, and, as its title imports, is devoted to the discussion of live and knotty issues, some of which we enumerate, premising that each pamphlet (or number, as we are really dealing with a periodical) consists of from 40 to 80 pages duodecimo: 'Rome and the Germans,' by J. C. Bluntschli, of Heidelberg; 'The Later Catholic Orders and Congregations, particularly in Germany,' by Prof. Dr. J. F. von Schulte; 'Protestantism as a Political Principle in the German Empire,' by Prof. Dr. M. Baumgarten, of Rostock; 'German Railroad Policy,' by F. Perrot, also of Rostock; 'The Question of the Standard in the Reform of the German Coinage,' by Prof. Dr. Wilhelm Roscher, of Leipzig; 'The Labor Question of Old and of To-day,' by Prof. Dr. Fr. Wilhelm Stahl; 'The Novel of the Nineteenth Century,' by Professor J. Mähly; 'The Quack Medicine and Immorality Industry in the Daily Press,' by Dr. H. Beta, of Berlin; 'The Fundamental Evil in the Modern Education of the Young,' by Prof. Dr. F. A. Beck, of Giessen, etc., etc.

—Dr. von Holtzendorff also appears as editor, in conjunction with Prof. Virchow, of the second series, the 'Collection of Popular Scientific Treatises,' to which he himself contributes 'Conquests and the Right of Conquest,' and which contains besides such papers as: 'The Social Question,' by Max Wirth; 'The Idea of Love in some Ancient and Modern Languages,' by Dr. Carl Abel; 'Honor, in the Mirror of Time,' by Edward Osenbrüggen; 'Mental Disorders and Disease,' by Dr. C. F. Flemming, of Schwerin; 'The Circulation of the Blood,' by Prof. Dr. A. Fick, of Würzburg; 'Meteorites and their Relation to the Earth,' by Prof. C. Rammelsberg; 'Sea Waves and their Geologic Significance,' by K. von Seebach; 'The Oracles,' by Dr. Edward Doehler, of Brandenburg; 'Petroleum,' by Prof. Dr. Franz Buchenau, of Bremen; 'Graphite and its Chief Uses,' by Prof. Dr. Heinrich Weger, of Nürnberg, etc., etc. We desist, not because we have exhausted the list, but for want of room to give further specimens. This popular-science series has already passed the 150th number, and may well be endless, as it is composed of choice selections from ephemeral literature in all parts of the Empire. As if, however, the oversight of these periodicals were not enough to occupy him, we find the indefatigable Dr. von Holtzendorff editing the 'Materialien der Deutschen Reichs-Verfassung,' a collection of documents and reports of debates relating to the Government of the new Empire, its origin and powers, and especially to the constituent North-German Reichstag of 1867—in short, a species of German "Madison Papers," with all the modern improvements; and also, with the help of numerous learned co-laborers, the 'Handbuch des Deutschen Strafrechts,' or Handbook of German Penal Law, which is now in the middle of its third volume. These works again, like the foregoing, are published by Habel.

MR. FORSTER'S 'LIFE OF DICKENS,' VOL. II.*

THE old saying, which used to be stereotyped in the Lives of the Poets and similar works, written by our fathers, that the biographies of men of letters must necessarily be brief because the lives of such men usually passed without incident and their history was best found in their works, appears to have gone out of fashion. Mr. Forster, at all events, who may be called the British Biographer Laureate, is no believer in it now, whatever he was when he wrote his 'Goldsmith'—as witness the big book about Landor, and this voluminous 'Dickens.' But we doubt if it will be found that his apostleship of the new creed will bring over many disciples. His 'Dickens,' of which the second volume is now published, was somewhat tedious in the first volume, although the great novelist's recent death gave it temporarily a peculiar interest, and although the early years of a distinguished man—his making up, so to speak, and his apprenticeship to the business in which he excelled—necessarily made a highly attractive theme. But in this second volume neither of these sources of interest any longer serves, and average readers of it will be inclined to think that the despised wisdom of our ancestors, which left the novelists' novels and the poets' poems to do duty as a good part of their biographies, was wisdom after all. With certain other readers the case may be different. If one has eaten mutton chops with Dickens upon the very day on which the fifth part of 'Dombey & Son' came out; or has borne him company in a salt-water bath after a consultation with him as to whether 'David Copperfield' should or should not be called 'David Mag'; or has been informed while reading, by the author's request, the proof of a chapter of 'Chuzzlewit,' that the author is "a small fortune in beer and cold punch" to the country inn where he is writing his story; or has gone over to Belgium to meet him on his return from his first tour in Italy; or has been one of a party of amateur actors of which Dickens was manager; or has stood godfather to one of Dickens's children—why then it is easily understood that one may be interested in the contents of Mr. Forster's second volume, which, whatever else there is in it, gives plenty of dates of mutton-chop eatings, and brief notes of salt-water baths, and diary-entries of the time of setting out on pedestrian tours. Not very much that is of a much higher character than these things will be found in the volume. At first sight the reason why this should be so is not apparent, and indeed we do not know that long looking for it would find it. Mr. Forster became Dickens's trusted friend at the very beginning of Dickens's literary life. Dickens went to him for advice on all topics whatsoever, literary and domestic, great and small, and followed his advice very much more, we should say, than so much good advice was ever followed before. For thirty-odd years, the two men walked together, rode together, talked together, in short, lived together in the utmost amity, intimacy, and mutual trust, and one would say that either might well have made of the other a really admirable biographer were it not that experience teaches us that even among rare things good biographers are rare. In this case, for example, much of the knowledge of Dickens that is Mr. Forster's exclusive possession the very intimacy of their relations to each other debars him from revealing. Then again this intimacy has apparently led Mr. Forster into the error of supposing that his Dickens is the Dickens about whom the public in general cares, and that it cares as much about him as Mr. Forster does, which is a natural and amiable delusion, but a delusion. And, finally, Mr. Forster, thinking that the best way of making the real Dickens known to us—thinking that for him, at least, it is the best way—has far too thoroughly lost sight of everybody but Dickens and himself, and by so doing has fallen a prey to a danger which only great skill would have enabled him to avoid, and makes everybody say as he puts down the book that it is more than half about Mr. John Forster, whose biography everybody hopes it may be long before anybody shall be called on to read.

In consequence of this series of mishaps, we have an authentic book which will be of great use to the bibliopolist who wishes to know what were the exact profits of the first three editions of the 'Christmas Carol,' and to the cyclopædia maker who wishes to know in what year Dickens first visited Italy and how many children he had. Furthermore, it will be of interest to many who wrote for *Household Words*, or who dined at Gadshill, or who otherwise were of the author's friendship or acquaintance. But we have not a book which gives us really a picture of Dickens at work and at play, though it does give us Dickens's opinions of Swiss scenery; and very numerous specimens of Dickens's letters asking Mr. Forster to go and dine with him; to meet him in Paris; to tell him what was the best name for the new periodical; to ask whether or not he should put off a dinner party for which the invitations were already out; to give an opinion as to Mrs. Gamp; to make one of an excursion party to Cornwall; to go with him to buy some graveyard ground; to instruct him or advise with him about this and that and a thousand other things which it is proper for Mr. Forster to recollect but which will weary most people in the perusal. And all this, as we imagine, because Mr. Forster overrates the importance of his subject, and in particular overrates the attractiveness of what he himself peculiarly and privately knows and is at liberty to tell. A couple of volumes of biography with an appendix of bibliography, and a couple of volumes of Dickens's best letters and other of his unpublished performances, would appear to us a far surer memorial of the man than this 'Life' of Mr. Forster's promises to be; and indisputably it would have been a much more workmanlike and enjoyable literary performance.

We find very little that is quotable, but Mr. Forster's and Mr. Dickens's skill in the reproduction of the American citizen is fairly exemplified in this passage:

"Then, in a confusion between the two rival packets for Genoa, he unwillingly detained one of them more than an hour from sailing, and only managed at last to get to her just as she was moving out of harbor. As he went up the side he saw a strange sensation among the angry travellers whom he had detained so long; heard a voice exclaim, 'I am blarmed if it ain't DICKENS!' and stood in the centre of a group of *Five Americans!* But the pleasantest part of the story is, that they were, one and all, glad to see him; that their chief man, or leader, who had met him in New York, at once introduced them all around, with the remark, 'Personally, our countrymen and you can fix it friendly, sir, I do expectuate'; and that through the stormy passage to Genoa which followed, they were excellent friends."

This last is probably explained by what follows:

"For the greater part of the time, it is true, Dickens had to keep to his cabin."

* 'The Life of Charles Dickens. Vol. II. By John Forster.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.

Otherwise we may be sure that the "blarmed" Americans would have surreptitiously set him afloat amid the billows on a hencoop, without food, for ruining their country so utterly as it is well known that he did.

Another passage will be found amusing, and worth all the Swiss scene-painting put together:

"From Strassburg they went by rail on the 8th to Bâle, from which they started for Lausanne next day in three coaches, two horses to each, taking three days for the journey, its only enlivening incident being an uproar between the landlord of an inn on the road and one of the voituriers, who had libelled Boniface's establishment by complaining of the food. After various defiances on both sides, the landlord said, 'Scélérat! mécréant! je vous boaxerai!' To which the voiturier replied, 'Comment dites-vous? voulez-vous boxer? Eh? Voulez-vous? Ah! Boxez-moi, donc!'—at the same time accompanying these retorts with gestures of violent significance, which explained that this new verb-active was founded on the well-known English verb to boax, or box. If they used it once, they used it a hundred times, and goaded each other to madness with it always."

We may remark, in closing this notice, that Mr. Forster appears to think he has disposed of a charge of inaccuracy brought against his biography by Mr. George Cruikshank, who has asserted certain things in reference to 'Oliver Twist'; and, also, that he has atoned for a piece of bad manners of which he was guilty in substantially calling Dr. Shelton Mackenzie the inventor and promulgator of a lie. In this volume he is compelled to admit that Dr. Mackenzie did not invent a lie; but he seems to have forgotten that, in common decency, he owed that gentleman amends for flinging such an accusation at him. As for the Cruikshank matter, Mr. Forster does not meet the point in issue, but evades it in a fashion which is curious rather than laudable or sagacious. Cruikshank said in substance this: that he was the inventor of 'Oliver Twist'; that Dickens saw in his workroom some pictures of Sykes, Nancy, Fagin, and others of the characters in that story, which caused him to alter the story which he had then begun writing, and to alter it in such a direction that the artist, rather than the author, may be considered the originator of 'Oliver Twist' as we have it. In reply to this, Mr. Forster, some year or so ago, came out in a letter denying that Mr. Cruikshank's claim was at all to be allowed; and this was his argument: Dickens came to town on one occasion when 'Oliver Twist' was far advanced in publication, and seeing that his artist, Mr. Cruikshank, had made two plates which to Mr. Dickens seemed quite unsatisfactory, he wrote Mr. Cruikshank a note saying so, and requesting Mr. Cruikshank to set to work and make two more, which Mr. Cruikshank did. Now, says Mr. Forster, this note decides the controversy; no man who is working subordinately to an artist writes to the artist a note like that. Upon the appearance of this argument of Mr. Forster's, Mr. Cruikshank came to the front again; reiterated his assertion; made it plain as a pikestaff (always supposing that Mr. Cruikshank is a credible witness) that he was not indeed in any admissible sense the originator of 'Oliver Twist,' as we know the novel, and that he was very hasty to make such a claim; but nevertheless that it is perfectly true that he did invent a Fagin, a Sykes, and the general plan of the story (the adventures of a good boy among London thieves); and that Dickens did in fact modify his own plan, and did, to some extent, adopt Cruikshank's notion. Now, how does Mr. Forster meet this? Not, in our judgment, and so far as we know the facts, with candor; and not with cogency and conclusiveness by any means. What he does is to print a facsimile of the letter which the author wrote to the artist about the plates above mentioned, which nobody ever contended were not perfectly under his control, and which Mr. Cruikshank has since said, if we recollect right, were made in accordance with Dickens's wish and against the artist's judgment. If any one had denied the existence of Dickens's letter, Mr. Forster's action in this second volume would have been pertinent. As the case stands, however, we should say it is very like an evasion of a difficulty, or a singular misapprehension of it.

HAZEN'S SCHOOL AND ARMY IN GERMANY AND FRANCE.*

GENERAL HAZEN'S book is replete with matter of great interest and value both to the soldier and the statesman. The information it contains respecting the military and the educational institutions of North Germany and of France is as full and as detailed as can be desired. After reading it, no one will be surprised at the overwhelming defeat of the French armies in 1870. The author speaks mostly from personal observation, especially in regard to Prussia. Besides visits made by him to both countries, in which he evidently neglected no reliable source of information, during the latter part of the Franco-Prussian campaign he was at the headquarters of the Prussian forces under such auspices as to insure him all the means of informing himself that he required. If he seems to look at the country of his hosts through rose-colored glasses, his answer is, "I have written what I found to be *true*." In his comparative observations on the United States army he clearly points out certain vital defects in our own military establishment, the sad truth of which will come home to every one of our officers who has served in the field.

The book makes us clearly understand the present greatness of Prussia as a military power, by a complete exposition of her military organization and administration in all their details, and these are traced back to their first establishment by Frederic William the First, King of Prussia, father of Frederic the Great. The most important element of this military greatness is universal conscription, in which no substitutes are allowed, and which compels every youth in the kingdom, from the royal princes down to the lowest peasants, on arriving at the age of twenty, actually to serve in the regular army long enough to make him a thorough soldier, and after that for a certain time in the reserves, which, in war, are instantly brought into the field as a part of the regular forces. Thus Prussia is literally a nation of soldiers—the modern Sparta; and with Spartan hardihood the Prussians campaign without tents or blankets. This makes an enormous saving in transportation, and consequently in the cost of carrying on war, and, above all, in time, which is everything in military operations. Neither does their health suffer from the exposure, as shown by their army reports; and the army reports of our late Confederates testify to the same effect.

The present organization and field administration of the North German Army are explained to us in all their details. Each corps commander is clothed with the fullest powers for "setting his squadrons in the field," and providing for all their wants, without being hampered by the red tape of a distant central administration. This system of plenary powers, combined with a strict personal responsibility which checks their abuse, includes the regimental commanders, each of whom is virtually the paymaster, the quartermaster, and the commissary of his own regiment. One result is that the soldiers' clothing is always of the best material and well made, "shoddy" being never heard of. Besides their admirably effective system of administration, the Prussian armies are distinguished by their perfect discipline. General Hazen saw no stragglers and no drunken soldiers, and he testifies to their humane treatment of the vanquished—a sure index of superior civilization. In view of what we learn from his book as to the highly efficient administration of the Prussian forces, we are not surprised at General Hazen's statement respecting their rapid mobilization in time of war. In 1866, he says, it required only two weeks to put 600,000 men into the field; and in 1870, within four days after the signal for mobilization was given, forty trains were daily running to the Rhine, and in two weeks the whole of the great North German army was in line.

General Hazen states his opinion of the Prussian army as follows:

"If called upon to give a summary of the special characteristics which make the Prussian army pre-eminent, I should enumerate the absence of exemptions and substitutes, which secures for the army the best men, and makes service even and acceptable; a thorough knowledge of duty; general education of soldiers and officers; high character of non-commissioned officers; an effective system of keeping the ranks full; superior training, and careful selection for merit alone of the higher staff; a decentralized administration; impartial justice; the certainty of recognition and reward for enterprise and industry, and intolerance of sloth and indolence; a strict but not harsh discipline throughout all grades, and a rigid economy in all things."

A full account is given both of the military and the civil schools in France and in Prussia. The exposition of the condition of education in these countries shows France to be vastly inferior in this respect to Prussia. In fact, the chief difference between the two peoples is in those essential elements of civilization—education, intelligence, and morality. In Prussia education is compulsory upon all, and in all the schools religious teachings are blended with the regular instruction. In France, on the other hand, school attendance is not compulsory; the peasantry, who number 25,000,000 of the nation, are grossly ignorant and stupid; and of the entire population, as shown by official reports, only one third can read and write.

Then, as to the French army, of which and of its tactics General Hazen gives us the history and present condition, it is evidently greatly inferior to the Prussian army, both in composition and efficiency. Though conscription has been draining France of her very life-blood from the beginning of the century, it has failed to make of the French a nation of soldiers, from being coupled with the vicious system of substitutes; the necessary result of which is to keep nearly all the worth and intelligence of the nation out of the army. And the infantry, the great and decisive arm of the service, is the mere dregs of the recruitment, being only what remains after all the best and most intelligent men have been taken out to fill up the numerous *corps d'élite*. Its sad want of discipline has been publicly lamented by its

* 'The School and the Army in Germany and France, with a Diary of Siege Life at Versailles. By Bvt. Maj.-Gen. W. B. Hazen, U.S.A., Colonel Sixth Infantry.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1872.

best officers; and the loose and partisan habits of warfare acquired in its African experiences have unfitted it for success in grand operations on the field.

Nevertheless, the desperate valor often shown by the French troops against great odds—for they were everywhere outnumbered by the Prussians in the field—proves that they have by no means lost their fighting qualities. This leaves, to our mind, no theory but that of the most astounding incompetency of their commanders to account for the fact that, not to speak of the surrender of 200,000 men at Metz, an army of 400,000 Frenchmen, including 30,000 cavalry—a force amply sufficient if properly used to decide the war—were shut up in Paris, where they could do nothing but use up the supplies, and thus make the surrender of the city a fact sure to be accomplished.

THE MAGAZINES FOR JANUARY.

THE January magazines are not as full of Christmas as usual, but otherwise they are not particularly noticeable. The *Galaxy* has a very readable article by Mr. Justin McCarthy, who cleverly reviews the career of Earl Russell, and comes to conclusions not different from those to which the historical record of "Lord John" long since brought everybody. An historical record it has to be called, however much too dignified the term may seem when one thinks of Earl Russell's character and of his personal achievements; for whether or not the reality of greatness was his, the rôle of greatness, at least, was thrust upon him in a way which makes him the very spoiled child of English politics. Mr. De Forest's "Wetherel Affair" proceeds to the eighth chapter in this month's instalment, and continues interesting; Mrs. Edwards gives three chapters of a new story, which promises well; Mr. Anthony Trollope's very long-drawn "Eustace Diamonds" comes to an end; Mr. Richard Grant White argues with his accustomed intelligence and instructiveness, and with his accustomed warmth, against several sorts of sins in speech; Mr. John Durand has a second article on "French Scenes, Customs, and Characters," and sets the writers who deal with such subjects the good example of not being absolutely omniscient in his knowledge of the foreigner; Lady Blanche Murphy begins a serial piece of chatty personal reminiscence entitled "Wanderings," in which she will talk about various people whom she has met and various sights she has seen; Mr. Philip Quilibet discourses on the good resolutions of the New Year's season, the demagogism of the Labor Reform men, and the disastrous failure of the velocipede to take the place of the distempered horse; there is some poetry by Mr. Charles Carroll and Mr. William Winter, and the other articles are of the usual good quality.

The *Atlantic* begins the new volume with an article which has much freshness, and to which most magazine readers will give a hearty welcome. It is the beginning of an autobiography of Mr. Robert Dale Owen, and is in several ways very pleasant reading. Very much more pleasant than the kind of writing to which Mrs. Harding Davis has accustomed us is her "Faded Leaf of History," which narrates a little vaguely, but still with effectiveness, the story of some white people who wandered among our Indians some two hundred years ago. Mr. Howells, reintroducing some of the characters who made their first appearance in 'Our Wedding Journey,' begins a story which will be watched with interest as being, if we are not mistaken, his maiden effort in novel-writing; Caroline Chesebro, one of our most conscientious, thoughtful, and uncommonplace of story-writers, but who is apt to exhibit life as a thing a little too hard and unjoyful to be endurable, writes a characteristic tale called "Barbara's Duty"; "The Kitchen Common Sense," by Mr. J. E. Babson, talks agreeably of the days when the stove began to supplant the hearth and the brick oven as an engine of cookery and housewifery; Mr. Parton is as vivacious and ready as usual in his account of Washington's first cabinet, its difficulties and labors; Dr. Holmes has some verses about the great fire of November last; there is other poetry by Miss Lucy Larcom, Mrs. Celia Thaxter, Mr. Marshall Oliver—a new man and a good one—Mr. Paul Hayne, and Mr. T. B. Aldrich—Mr. Aldrich's being perhaps the most striking, but all being rather better than is common; there is an article from Mrs. Agassiz, who was with the *Hassler* expedition; and there is the usual amount of criticism—musical, literary, scientific, political, and artistic. The political critic has something to say about the relations of this country to England—"A Better Understanding with England, and the Use of It"—which seems to us well judged and likely to be of service both at home and abroad.

Scribner's Monthly certainly merits its second title of "an illustrated magazine for the people," for it is very well illustrated, and its table of contents is excellently adapted for people in general. "New Ways in the Old Dominion" is the opening article—continued from December—and it is an article capable of astonishing those of us in whose minds remains the image of the old South—the South of the days before the war and before emancipation. The subject is a new railroad which is opening up a vast range of country in Virginia, and is to connect that State with the West, and the writer and artist deal with their theme very attractively. It is curious to note that Washington, who a hundred and odd years ago was practising his profession of surveying in this region, marked for his own some of the lands which are to-day most valuable for their coal and other minerals.

The article which we have found most readable in the January *Scribner's* is one by Mr. Philip Hamerton, who prints a letter which he some time since wrote to a friend who announced that he had given up reading the newspapers. Mr. Hamerton replied to this announcement by discussing the good and the bad of newspaper reading, and decided that while much might be said on each side of the question, it was, on the whole, better to read than to refrain. It is rather idle, to be sure, to be seeking reasons pro and con as regards a matter which settles itself, but what Mr. Hamerton says may be read with profit. A remark that he makes about books is worthy of consideration by those numerous people to whom—

> "A book's a book though there is nothing in 't,"

and a thing to be venerated. So, too, is a remark about "standard authors." "The writers of Queen Anne's time," says Mr. Hamerton, "could educate an Englishman of Queen Anne's time, but they can only partially educate an Englishman of Queen Victoria's time." This is no complete answer to the view which Mr. Hamerton is combating, and which is suggested in the question of Mr. Emerson's which Mr. Hamerton quotes: "Suppose you should transfer the amount of your reading day by day from the newspapers to the standard authors?" But though it is not complete nor an exhaustive and conclusive discussion of the subject, it nevertheless has a truth in it which should be pondered. We suppose a clear gain is made when it is perceived that the books are extremely few which need be taken as final in regard to their subject, and that authors are, as a rule, human beings, and human beings who would be all the better for knowing more, and thinking more justly, and feeling more acutely and truly than most of them can be said to do.

The contributors' list of *Scribner's* is this month abnormally rich in well-known names—or normally rich, we may say, if we bethink ourselves of the January devices of publishers. Its poetry is by Mr. William Morris, Mr. George Macdonald, Mr. C. S. Calverley, Mr. Bret Harte, Miss Christina Rossetti, and Mr. Bryant. Mr. Bryant's piece is a translation from the French. Of the rest, nothing is of any particular importance, except Mr. Calverley's "Cuckoo," which indeed is itself not of any particular importance perhaps, but it is in its author's own excellent vein, and is entirely enjoyable. We mention hastily as among the other contributors to *Scribner's Monthly* Col. T. W. Higginson, Dr. Holland, Miss Charlotte F. Bates, Mr. Edward King (who is now travelling in the South in the interest of the magazine), Mr. E. C. Stedman, Mr. Edward Eggleston, Mr. C. D. Warner, and Mr. Augustus Hoppin. This, it will be seen, is a very good list of names for a magazine to show, and if the work to which the names are attached is not in all cases of the quality which the best friends of the ladies and gentlemen in question might desire or expect, why, that is another matter. Colonel Higginson's essay is perhaps as good as any of its companions. It recommends "intercollegiate scholarships." That is to say, Colonel Higginson would have undergraduates of various colleges compete for a sum of money, which the winner should afterwards use for his support at any college of his choice in this country or in Europe. We do not know why the plan would not be a good enough one, though exactly what benefit, and how much, would be derived from it, we do not clearly see. Colonel Higginson's object, we think, would not be ours. In his opinion, the winning of an intercollegiate scholarship would secure for the winner so much credit and honor that he would be fully on a level with the winner in an intercollegiate regatta. As things now stand, the boating man is in the ascendant, Colonel Higginson thinks; muscles overbear minds; physical prowess is honored to the prejudice of mental ability and scholastic acquirements and literary skill. This is a view commonly urged, and against which it is unusual to hear anything said, but, as we suppose, it is an entirely false view. A crowd of healthy young men collected at one of our places of learning will of course have a healthy admiration for physical strength; they will also rejoice greatly in the young fellows who, on any conspicuous theatre, set their college ahead of other colleges. But so far as we know, the most admired type of man in our undergraduate communities is not the athlete and the stroke oar in the university boat; it is, on the contrary, the man of mental ability, the man of attainments and of literary skill or aptitude. We have even been in the habit of thinking that this type is very unduly exalted.

In *Lippincott's* we have Miss Chesebro again, who begins a novel called

"Probationer Leonhard." "A Visit to the King of Aurora" describes a singular German colony established near Portland in Oregon; "My Charge on the Life Guards" chronicles the discomfiture of many Britishers by a sharp Yankee; Mr. Reginald Wynford writes of Dublin in a way to make a New Yorker eager to emigrate to that cheap and well-governed land of plenty; "The Southern Planter," by Mr. W. W. Harney, is a fairly good sketch of one variety of a much misunderstood character; there is some good book-noticing and other matter in quality and quantity as of old—the distinctive flavor of *Lippincott's*, which has always contrived to be good in a way of its own, being as well preserved as ever.

Harper's does a good deal of the regulation Christmas business of all varieties, and will please the recondite reader who likes to be informed, at this time of the year, that the boar's head was a favorite Christmas dish, and will equally please the kind-hearted reader who loves to see the regeneration of the Mr. Scrooges whose hearts, in this frosty season of goodwill, melt down into turkeys and sausages for the poor and needy person whom at other times Mr. Scrooge browbeats, and oppresses, and charges great sums for rent. A reader who will not be so well satisfied is the reader who reads the "Christmas Carol," at the same time knowing the late Dr. John Mason Neale's "Christmas Carol," and being desirous of that author's getting due credit for what good things he did. For the rest, "The Sailor's Snug Harbor" describes a New York institution, and should be read by New Yorkers; Miss Thackeray's "Old Kensington" goes on; so does Mr. Charles Reade's novel and Mr. Wilkie Collins's; the "Recollections of an Old Stager" revive for us the duelling days of "the giants," who used to make of Congress a bear-garden, and once in so often disgraced us all and made us all ridiculous as well as contemptible by their chivalrous performances; Mr. Curtis resuscitates his agreeable Sassafras Club, of which too little has been heard of late; some one writes well enough about the British Museum's Reading Room; and there are several other articles.

Savings-Banks Life Insurance. By Elizur Wright. (Boston.)—Whatever emanates from the pen of this veteran advocate of life insurance is worthy the careful attention of every one engaged in the business of insuring lives, a business in which perhaps five millions of the people of this country are interested as prospective beneficiaries under policies now in force. Mr. Wright undertakes to analyze each class of endowment policies—life policies being regarded as endowments payable at death or 100, the age beyond which it is unscientific for anybody to live. He points out the distinction between "Insurance," or that portion of the contract which more directly concerns the company, and "Self-insurance," or that which directly concerns the individual policy-holder; the former showing the company's actual risk, the latter the amount by which each person insures himself, and which is treated as a savings-bank deposit, to be withdrawn at the option of the depositor, the company making a small "surrender charge" to compensate them for procuring a new insurant to fill the vacancy created by the retiring member.

The *principles* on which these savings-bank life insurance tables are based are regarded as correct by our best actuarial authorities; but whether the assumed "margin" for expenses is liberal enough to attract the soliciting agent, without whose intervention little or no business has yet been obtained —whether agents and clerks can carry into practice the somewhat complicated system of commissions proposed — and whether the "surrender charges" are sufficient to effect the end desired, are all questions which will in time be determined by those having the requisite practical knowledge.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Abbott (J. S. C.), Miles Standish, the Puritan Captain	(Dodd & Mead)
Almanach de Gotha, 1873	(L. W. Schmidt) $2 25
" "	(F. W. Christern)
Calderwood (Rev. H.), Handbook of Moral Philosophy	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Carey (H. C.), The Unity of Law	(H. C. Baird)
Collier (W. F.), Great Events of History	(J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.)
Hickling (W.), The Rector of Roxburgh	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)
Hudson (F.), Journalism in the United States, 1690–1872	(Harper & Bros.)
Jenkins (E.), Little Hodge	(Dodd & Mead) 1 25
Lightfoot (Rev. J. B.), Revision of the English Version of the New Testament	(Harper & Bros.)
Methodist Almanac for 1873, 8wd	(Nelson & Phillips)
Murray (Prof. D.), Manual of Land Surveying, with Tables	(J.W. Schermerhorn & Co.)
Porter (Rev. G. P.), From Atheism to Christianity	(Nelson & Phillips)
Reade (C.), The Wandering Heir	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

January 7.

THE money market since our last has shown a continued stringency, and during the week borrowers have been compelled to pay the monstrous rates that prevailed through the month of December. The rates of interest upon call loans have ruled all the way from 7 per cent. per annum to ¼ per cent. per diem. These halcyon days for lenders, (including, by the way, a great number of the solid men of the Street), who bravely defy the pains and penalties of the usury laws, are about over, and in all probability we shall hear no more about "tight money" until April next, when large amounts of currency will be sent away to the interior. The repeal of the obnoxious usury law is demanded by nearly all business men with whom we have come in contact, and the cry of "free trade" in money is general. From all that we hear it is not improbable that a determined movement will be made in the approaching session of the Legislature for the repeal of the law prohibiting owners of property in the shape of money from disposing of it as they see fit. The chief opposition to the repeal of the law will come from members who represent interior districts of the State, where farmers dread the possibility of having to pay over 7 per cent. for money borrowed upon mortgages on their farms. As the law now stands, the large moneyed institutions, in order to make interest upon the money owned by or left with them on deposit, gladly loan it out "on time" to parties in Wall Street at the outside legal rate, knowing that during the dull summer months they can obtain but 3 or 4 per cent., and that they are prohibited by law from taking more than 7 per cent. in the fall, when money is always more or less stringent. This places a large amount of money in the hands of Wall-Street people, who, when the pinch comes, are sure to squeeze out of borrowers all they can get, and succeed, day after day, and week after week, in obtaining the rates we have quoted as having been paid during the last thirty days.

It seems to us that if the usury law was repealed, capitalists and moneyed institutions would always keep their money "in hand," knowing that they could profit by the increased rates of interest occasioned by any great demand, and make up for the low rates they may have to accept during a time of ease by loaning upon such terms as would make a fair average rate of interest upon their money for the year. This, at least, would certainly tend to keep rates down to something like a reasonable limit.

At the close of the week the disbursements of the various corporations, in the shape of dividends and interest, which are variously estimated in this city alone at from $60,000,000 to $75,000,000, have already begun to be felt in the increased supply of loanable funds in the Street, on Saturday the highest rate for money being $\frac{1}{16}$ per diem, which was paid very early in the day, and from which point there was a gradual decline until the afternoon, when it was freely offered at four and five per cent.

The weekly bank statement is again favorable, and indicates an easier working of the money market; the gain in legal tenders is small, but the Government disbursements of gold interest have contributed about two and a quarter millions to the bank reserve. The following is the statement in detail, compared with that of last week:

	Dec. 28.	Jan. 4.	Differences.
Specie	$17,241,800	$19,478,100	Inc. $2,236,300
Legal tenders	41,119,600	41,165,400	Inc. 45,800
Total reserve	$58,361,400	$60,643,500	Inc. $2,282,100
Circulation	$27,573,000	$27,613,800	Inc. $40,800
Deposits	198,529,600	203,808,100	Inc. 5,278,500
Total liabilities	$226,102,600	$231,421,900	Inc. $5,319,300
25 per cent. reserve	56,525,650	57,855,475	
Excess over legal reserve	1,835,750	2,788,025	952,275

The above statement shows that the banks now hold in excess of the legal reserve $2,788,025, against $1,835,750 last week, a gain of $952,275.

Considerably less than half the average amount of business has been transacted at the Stock Exchange during the week, owing to the occurrence of a holiday, and it is denominated in Wall Street parlance a "broken week."

The features of the market have been Central and Hudson, Erie, Lake Shore, Pacific Mail, and Western Union Telegraph. The speculation in Pacific Mail, in which a prominent officer of the company is represented as being interested in favor of a decline in the price, received an unexpected impetus in its downward tendency by the report of the disabling at sea of another steamer, which caused a decline to 72¾ on Tuesday from 75¾, the price on Monday. The recovery of the price to 74¾ at the close of the week would indicate that the large operators were purchasers at the decline. Nearly 170,000 shares are recorded as having changed hands during the week, which was the largest amount of business transacted in any one stock. Next in point of dealing has been Erie, and its price is higher, in sympathy with the higher quotations of the London market. Central and Hudson has been active, and the advanced price of last week has been well sustained; the oft-repeated report is afloat that the company will increase its capital stock from $89,423,330 to $100,000,000, by issuing new stock to the stockholders at a low price, the proceeds to be expended in increasing the capacity of the road, by giving it four tracks. The speculation in Western Union Telegraph has not made material headway, and, at the close, the price is at its lowest point for the week. On Saturday, after the publication of the favorable bank statement, the general market, from some unaccountable reason, became weak, and prices receded from 1 to 1½ per cent. on the more active stocks from the highest prices of the day. Owing to the declaration of the usual 4 per cent. dividend, about which some doubts had been current, the price of Lake Shore remained firm in the face of the decline in the general market.

The Michigan Central Railroad Company has declared a dividend of 4 per cent. in stock in place of the usual 5 per cent. semi-annual cash dividend which its stockholders have been for years in the habit of receiving. The road has been in great need of repairs and improvements, and the earning for the last six months will probably be expended in that way.

The Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad Company has lately leased the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad in perpetuity. The lease took effect on the 1st of January. The agreement provides that as soon as a satisfactory and certain construction can be placed upon the laws of Illinois and Iowa relating to the consolidation of railroad companies, either by legal decision or legislative action, there shall be effected a complete consolidation of the two companies. In the meantime, the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad Company agrees to pay to the stockholders of the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad Company the same dividend it pays to its own. At the time that the directors of the two companies proposed to their respective stockholders the above lease, and ultimate consolidation, the directors of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad Company declared a dividend of 25 per cent. in the form of 7 per cent. bonds of the Company, dependent upon the vote of the stockholders of both companies in favor of the lease. This dividend was made for the purpose of equalizing the value of the two stocks and also of dividing the surplus of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy, which amounted to over $3,500,000.

Government bonds have been firm, and on Saturday prices were somewhat higher than at the close of last week. Should no important change take place in the gold market, it is probable that the usual demand from corporations, and from other investors, will impart firmness to the market during the present month, and carry prices higher. The Treasury programme for January includes a purchase of $1,000,000 bonds for the sinking fund on each Wednesday, making $5,000,000 bonds to be purchased during the month. It is to be hoped that the Treasury will meet with more success in the amount of its purchases than it did last month, when less than $1,000,000 bonds were obtained altogether.

A very limited amount of business has been transacted in State bonds. The interesting announcement (to holders) is made that the interest upon the bonds of the State of Louisiana, due January 1, will not be paid, owing to the want of funds, caused by the non-collection of taxes. Several of the counties in Missouri have also defaulted in the payment of the interest on their bonds, due at the same time.

The demand for railroad bonds has been fair, considering the extreme dulness of the week. The principal transactions have been in the bonds of the Union Pacific, and Boston, Hartford, and Erie railroad companies. The price of the latter has advanced from 42½ to 45, on a report, which set Boston parties to buying, that further aid was to be extended to the road by the State of Massachusetts.

The tendency of the gold market has been slightly downward, the highest sales of the week having been at 112⅛, and the lowest at 111⅝. There is said to be at present no strong party or clique in the market interested in keeping up the price, and the impression seems to prevail that the importations for the next six months will be light; consequently, a very small amount of specie will be required for shipment. The professional operators look for lower prices, and if the market could be left free from all speculative influences the premium would undoubtedly decline. The Treasury will sell $1,000,000 gold on each Thursday of the month of January, making $5,000,000 to be sold during the month.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 16, 1873.

The Week.

MR. FISH'S despatch on the colonial policy of Spain has been made public, and furnishes the most prominent political topic of the week. It is decidedly the most menacing document which has issued from the State Department during General Grant's administration. It is dated October 29, 1872, and begins by reproaching the Spanish Government for not executing the emancipation law in Cuba and Porto Rico; declares that the freedmen in this country naturally and properly sympathize with their brethren held in bondage in the Spanish islands; maintains that, although a majority of the Spanish people are opposed to the independence of Cuba, the Cuban slaveholders have been allowed to prevent the execution of the emancipation laws, and argues that this, if permitted to continue, will prove the inability of Spain to control the island; shows that the insurrection in Cuba has lasted four years, and cost 100,000 lives, and that the strain which this and the nearness of the island impose on our vigilance in the enforcement of the neutrality laws, is something which cannot be borne indefinitely; hints that if the struggle is not brought to a close speedily, this Government may be forced to "consider the question whether duty to itself and to the commercial interests of its citizens may not demand some change in the line of action which has been thus far pursued"; expresses the opinion that the war is protracted in some degree through the influence of contractors and other persons who make money out of hostilities; reproaches the Spanish Government with the failure to fulfil its promises of municipal reform in the island, and with the maintenance of the odious distinctions of the old colonial system between the Creoles and the Spaniards; complains of the non-payment of compensation to American citizens whose property on the island has been damaged, or wrongfully confiscated, during the rebellion. The despatch, which is very severe—in parts almost bitter—in its language, concludes by imposing on Mr. Sickles the apparently difficult if not impossible task of making its contents known to the Spanish Government "without giving offence," and threatening that if its remonstrances are not heeded Spain may look for a "marked change in the feeling and in the temper of the people and of the Government of the United States." It appears, however, that Spain has taken the matter in perfectly good part.

Mr. Oakes Ames has been cross-examined before the committee on the subject of his dealings with the Crédit Mobilier stock, and from his answers we get a clearer account of what happened than from his direct examination; and this is what it seems to be: He came to the conclusion that it would be advisable in the interest of the road to have the stock of the Crédit Mobilier distributed as widely as possible among members of Congress, and for this purpose he obtained an allotment of 375 shares from the company, which he paid for with his own money, but they were transferred to him and one other person, his own clerk, "in trust," though why in trust he could not say, and these shares he "assigned" to various members of Congress. By "assigned" he meant planned in his own mind to give them, not with the idea of corrupting them, but with the view of "having enough people interested in the affairs of the road to look into them." Unfortunately, Mr. Ames says he was not in the habit of keeping memoranda or books until lately, and he frequently complains of the badness of his memory. To those to whom he gave the stock he paid all the dividends accruing before November, 1868. For instance, he "presumes" he paid them a dividend of 80 per cent. in Union Pacific bonds in January, 1868, and the same day a dividend of 100 per cent. stock; and "his impression is" that he paid them in July 75 per cent. Union Pacific stock, and, on the same day, 75 per cent. of Union Pacific bonds; that in September he paid them 100 per cent. in Union Pacific stock, and, the same day, 75 per cent. of bonds—in all, 425 per cent. in a single year, which made the original investment a very nice little thing. But it seems to have been even better than this, for the total amount of the dividends paid to the holders of the Crédit Mobilier stock between April, 1866, and December, 1868, was 715 per cent. in Union Pacific stock, 730 in first mortgage bonds, and 60 per cent. in cash—or 1,505 per cent. in all.

The question of most interest to the public is, what members of Congress received their dividends, and what members, having received them, gave them back. Mr. Ames thinks that all who paid for their stock received these dividends up to December, 1868, and these were Messrs. Patterson, Bingham, Wilson, Colfax, and Scofield—a part only; Kelley and Garfield never paid for the stock, and therefore got no dividends. It ought to be added that these dividends to the Crédit Mobilier Company were in part compensation for building the road. The actual cost of construction was $36,221,000, while the sum paid was about $69,000,000, and under the influence of the operation the Crédit Mobilier stock rose from below par to 225. But it is maintained by Mr. Ames and his friends, and, we believe, is not contradicted, that it was only by such an arrangement as this—that is, the receipt of the profits of construction by the shareholders—that the enterprise could ever have been carried out under the charter. The charter required that the stock of $100,000,000 should not be sold below par, so that an investment of $51,000,000 would be required to control the road. To get over this, the Crédit Mobilier was founded and composed of the chief holders of the Union Pacific stock, who then made highly advantageous contracts with themselves, and divided the Union Pacific stock and bonds in payment on these contracts.

Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson have both been before the Finance Committee of the Senate, trying to persuade that body that they have the right under the law to re-issue the $44,000,000 of greenbacks, but the Committee was not convinced. On the contrary, it has made a report reviewing the acts of Congress in relation to the currency, and, while acquitting the Secretary of the Treasury and his assistant of improper motives, it condemns their late action in the most emphatic manner as unwarranted by law, "resting upon a doubtful construction of words," and a "bad precedent." With this conclusion we believe there will be an almost unanimous agreement. We now need more than anything else greater certainty in finance; the great objection to all paper money, no matter how well managed, is the uncertainty about its value, and this uncertainty is of course considerably increased if the power of expanding and contracting its volume is given to a single man. We have no doubt whatever that Mr. Boutwell is the first person, not of royal blood, who has within two centuries publicly claimed this power within the limits of Christendom. "Such a power," in the forcible language of the report, "if given would be by clear and unambiguous language, and should not be inferred by subtle reasoning or depend upon the pressure of interested parties, or changing views of public policy."

It appears from the investigation now going on that a good many of the prominent politicians of Kansas are doing some very pretty perjuring, or else that a good many other prominent politicians and legislators of Kansas have been purchased by Mr. Caldwell, one of the Senators, at prices—for low-toned ones—ranging between eight hundred and twenty-five hundred or five thousand dollars. High-toned ones, who came out like men and would not take a bribe, and

intimated as much to Caldwell's agent, furthermore said that they had been at some expense in order to secure their seats, and that if Caldwell would give them the money to defray such charges, why they would vote for him—or words to that effect—we suppose may have cost about as much, one with another, as the low-toned ones. If a man goes to the legislature "on the make," he expects to have several opportunities in the course of the winter, and to use them, and can afford to be bought a little cheaper at each single time than the man who decides on selling out but once; but, on the other hand, he is apt to think each time that he can't afford it. It is a pleasing spectacle as it stands, and one can only fall back on the hope that, after all, perhaps a majority of the members, even of a Kansas Legislature, are unbribable; and that of the others there are some who have been rather indifferent about getting up their ethics. Besides, "the boys must have something," as one of our New York Commissioners of the Board of Charities and Correction used to say.

In his message to the Legislature, Governor Dix recommends that the practice of voting sums for various objects "greatly in excess of the current revenues" be given up, and the rule be adopted that no appropriation be made without simultaneous provision of the means of payment. For this purpose he advises the passage of a general law requiring the Controller, "whenever in any year an appropriation by the Legislature shall exceed the amount of the revenue applicable to it, to provide for such deficiency by adding it to the tax levy." The Governor declares himself in favor of paying debts in hard money; suggests that the securities in which savings-banks may invest be prescribed by law, and that any investment in violation of such a law be made a misdemeanor; announces it as his intention to keep the militia organization effective; advises the retention of the canals in the hands of the State, and the employment of steam on them; suggests the funding the State debt at 5 per cent.; advises the Constitutional Commission, now in session, to prohibit special legislation as far as possible, and to make suitable provision for the payment of legislators; recommends that aliens be enabled to hold real estate; recommends the repeal of the usury laws, if not entirely, at least so far as to cover all ordinary commercial loans in which real estate is not mortgaged. He calls the attention of the Legislature to the reports of the Tax Commission and to the inequity and absurdity of the tax on mortgages of real estate. This tax, the disabilities imposed on aliens, and the usury laws, are among the chief causes, the Governor thinks, of the recent rapid growth of wealth and population in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, as compared with that of New York.

With regard to the city, the Governor wishes the Mayor to have full power of removal and appointment of municipal officers; he thinks that cumulative voting ought to be adopted, in order that the minority may be "sure of a representation to detect, resist, and expose abuse"; recommends a new board, to consist of the New York Board of Fire Underwriters, the Commissioners of the Fire Department, and (possibly) the American Institute of Architects, which shall have a final voice as to all modifications of building laws. He also announces his intention of recommending to the Senate six honest and capable harbor-masters, to take the places of the sharks who now hold these positions. He refers to the alarming increase of crime, and the delays in carrying sentences into execution through the interposition of legal technicalities. "In framing our system of criminal jurisprudence, the merciful purpose of protecting the innocent from unjust conviction was kept chiefly in view. It is worthy of consideration whether, in carrying out this purpose, we may not have created impediments to the punishment of the guilty, and given a rein to crime through its impunity." He very truly observes that "the duty of securing property from depredation and life from felonious assault . . . connects itself closely with the durability of our political system; for if the machinery of the law proves inadequate to effect the fundamental purposes of government, it will soon be made to give way to the arm of force." The message is throughout moderate and thoroughly sensible.

There are several things which should make all decent people hesitate long about giving serious attention to Custom-house charges of "fraud" against merchants of high standing: (1) The notorious intricacy of the revenue laws; (2) The character of our Custom-house officials, the chief of whom are politicians, engaged above all else in "serving the party," and getting money for it; (3) The fact that a charge of fraud, if successful, entails the forfeiture of the whole value of the goods described in the invoice in which the alleged fraud is discovered; (4) The enormous reward offered for the prosecution of such charges in the division of the spoil—viz., two per cent. to the District Attorney, one-half to the Government, and one-quarter to the informer, and an equal division of what is left between the collector, naval officer, and surveyor; (5) The outrageous power lodged in the hands of the Custom-house of seizing a merchant's books and papers, and stopping his business for an indefinite period, and damaging his character, *on mere suspicion*. This last instrument of oppression and extortion, which is really exercised by a worthless band of "detectives" whom nobody would let into his house for one hour if he could help it, furnishes the explanation of the readiness of merchants to pay enormous sums by way of "compromise" the minute a charge is brought against them, anything being preferable to the summary suspension of their business. We may add that the apathy with which the public witnesses the subjection of the commercial community to this system is, in our opinion, one of the worst political signs of the times.

We say all this apropos of the case of Messrs. Phelps, Dodge & Co., which is now exciting a good deal of attention. This house has been charged with making fraudulent invoices by a thievish clerk, who is now awaiting trial for breaking into their office at night, stealing their business secrets, and selling them to rivals in the trade. He has, by way of intimidation, made charges which are undergoing investigation, and which we believe are easily explicable; but they are no sooner made than many newspapers of the country begin to gloat over the prospect of seeing a long-honored name disgraced, a great business ruined, and a great merchant torn limb from limb by a gang of political adventurers. The result of this state of things is—we say it deliberately—that just as the foreign carrying trade has passed out of American hands, under the operation of the tariff, the foreign trade is rapidly passing out of them also, under the operation of our Custom-house regulations, and into that of foreigners, who, by keeping their books and papers on the other side of the water, and dispensing with a good character on this, are able to defy the "Controllers of Primaries" and make plenty of money. There will very soon be as few Americans engaged in foreign trade as there are Americans engaged in the shipping business.

We have received from a correspondent at New Orleans a letter explanatory of the condition of affairs in Louisiana. It is in substance this: To say that Kellogg is Governor of the State in virtue of bayonet law or of any interference by any Federal judge, is to show misunderstanding of the case. The vital point of the whole controversy is, that the Eighth District Court, which is not a Federal tribunal, but a State tribunal, having full jurisdiction in the matter, decided the Bovee-Longstreet-Lynch-Hawkins Returning Board to be the legal Board, while, at about the same time, the State Supreme Court decided Bovee to be the legal Secretary of State. So, then, the Kellogg government bases its validity on the validity of its Returning Board, and the latter bases its validity on the decree of a State court having full power to decide. Judge Durell's action was incidental, and not of the essence, says our correspondent; and, admitting that everything Judge Durell has done is

unconstitutional, null, and void, the Kellogg government is, nevertheless, as firmly established on a legal and constitutional foundation as that of Governor Dix in New York; and if Mr. McEnery desires to contest the election, his proper place of appeal, the courts of the State, are open to him. This may be all true, but the fact still remains that Kellogg did not rely on the State Courts, but went into the United States Court, and from it obtained the physical force which gave him the victory over his adversaries. We see, however, that Judge Durrell declares that he sits as "the vicegerent of God," which, if true, raises his interference above criticism.

The Franco-German war, helpful to civilization as we believe it to have been in the main, has had one result which friends of universal peace must consider unfortunate. It has indefinitely postponed the realization of the scheme of international coinage, in support of which so many statisticians and publicists of all nations have been laboring for many years, and with which Mr. Samuel B. Ruggles, in our own country, is so honorably associated. There is probably no one of the small things which help to keep nations apart by impeding commerce so absurd both in form and substance as the differences in national money, and nothing does more to keep alive the delusions with regard to the nature of money in general which are the pests of political economy. We were making, it seems, considerable progress towards an assimilation of all the gold coinage of the Western world when the Prussian war broke out. In 1869 a large majority of the chambers of commerce of the various German States met in convention at Hamburg, and agreed to recommend their governments to adopt as their common monetary gold unit the French five-franc piece. Then came the war, and after it the payment of the enormous indemnity in gold to Germany, which the new empire at once began to coin into units of its own of "twenty marks," equal to $6\frac{2}{3}$ Prussian thalers, or 476·4 American cents, while the twenty-five franc piece is worth 482 cents. In 1869 Sweden contributed to the work of general unification a new coin called the "carolin," worth ten francs; but last year a convention of the three Scandinavian States adopted a new gold unit of their own also, called a gold crown, worth only 270 American cents, eight of them equal to nine German marks.

An international gold unit seems further off than it was five years ago, so far that Mr. Ruggles gives up all hope of it for the present, and urges the friends of the movement to devote themselves now, as the next best thing, to securing an assimilation of the silver coinage. There is a bill now before Congress providing for the revision of the coinage of the United States, which proposes to reduce the silver dollar from 412½ grains to 384. The addition of $1\frac{8}{10}$ grains, or one half cent, to this would make our silver dollar precisely equal to the five-franc piece of France, Belgium, Italy and Switzerland, Spain and Greece, and just double the new silver florin of Austria, and would lead to its circulation without recoinage among a population of 120,000,000 Europeans. The Finance Committee of the Senate has reported in favor of making the required change in the new half dollar, but the National Board of Trade, on Mr. Ruggles's suggestion, urges its application to the whole dollar, and we hope they may be listened to. We should then have got some distance towards community of coinage, at least with "the Latin races," and if there were only two units afloat in the civilized world, the Latin and German, the final consummation would not be very far off.

The ex-Emperor Napoleon died rather unexpectedly, at Chiselhurst, on the 9th inst., after having undergone two or three severe operations. His condition has, however, been very poor for several years, and this probably contributed in a considerable degree to the mistakes and follies of the close of his reign. He was unable to ride on horseback during the campaign of Sedan, and thus had to exhibit himself to the army as a decrepit old man, at the moment of all in his life when he most needed to surround himself with an air of romance. His surrender was wanting in pluck, singularly so for the hero of the Strasbourg and Boulogne exploits, which, though laughable, were certainly marked by great courage. His leading confederates in the *coup d'état*—De Morny, St. Arnaud, and Persigny—all, except Fleury, have preceded him. Fleury, who was the meanest and most money-loving of the lot, is living comfortably in England, having accumulated a "competency" through long service as "Director-General of the Haras," a delightful post for as keen a lover of horseflesh as he was. It appears to be generally supposed that the death of the Emperor makes the French political sky somewhat clearer, but this we doubt. Of his restoration, there never was any chance, while it is highly probable that his son will now be pushed as a pretender. It would be quite in keeping with the Empress's character, which is both superstitious and romantic, to bring him up as "the hope of France," and a person defrauded of his rights.

There seems to be no serious foundation for the rumor that Bismarck's resignation of the Presidency was prompted by a personal disagreement with Count Von Roon upon the Kreis-Qrdnung and other recent measures of the Ministry. It is true that the Minister of War had shown some symptoms of dissent from Bismarck's later policy, and had requested to be relieved from his office; and the rumor of Von Roon's resignation, followed by his promotion to the Presidency vacated by Bismarck, gave countenance to the belief that there was some grave dissension in the Ministry itself, and that the Government was about to change front. But though there may have been shades of difference in the Ministry, and Bismarck has grown both imperious and irritable, the facts are that, on account of failing health, Von Roon requested to be relieved from the cares of office, that a partial release has been granted him, and that, as the senior member of the Ministry, he has been provisionally designated to the Presidency. The interior motives of these changes, if there are any, have been guarded with a jealous secresy; yet there lurks in many minds the suspicion that Bismarck is planning to carry into effect his theory, that there should be but one Minister, untrammelled by his surroundings, and with powers equal to his responsibilities.

The Ministry consists of eight departments—Foreign Affairs, Army and Navy combined in one, Trade and Manufactures, Education and Religion, Agriculture, the Interior, Justice, Finance. In the sessions of the Ministry Bismarck has for ten years held the post of President, but his colleagues are not his adherents or appointees, but his equals, having co-ordinate powers. The Presidency, without giving him control of the Ministry, has made him constructively responsible to Parliament and to the country for all the acts and suggestions of all the departments, and he has been burdened and vexed with questions of trade, of finance, of education and religion, and with details of internal administration, when all his time and all his thoughts were required for the momentous measures of foreign policy, which he had originated and he alone could carry through. Besides, in bringing forward his own measures he must first harmonize his seven associates, in order that the Ministry should present a united front in Parliament, and though he was held responsible for his colleagues, they were not held responsible for his sayings and doings. His health and comfort demanded that he should rid himself of this onerous dignity. But he retains his place in the Ministry, and will naturally be the ruling spirit in its counsels; and he keeps the portfolio of foreign affairs, so that the foreign policy of Prussia will be identical with that of the German Empire, at the head of which Bismarck remains as Chancellor. The text of the royal order of December 21 relieving him of the Presidency of the Prussian Ministry, though it gives no hint of the cause of this most unlooked-for step, confirms incidentally the view we have expressed above of its origin and motive in the mind of Bismarck himself.

THE LATE FRENCH EMPEROR.

THE death of the ex-Emperor of the French (how large a part "ex" plays in titles in our day!) has happily no great political importance. He had outlived not only his power but his influence on the imagination. He leaves behind him an unfortunate boy, who will probably be brought up as "a pretender," and pass his early life in dreams and conspiracies, surrounded by priests and adventurers, but it is pretty certain that the "Napoleonic legend" has lost its hold on the French mind. The name of Napoleon is no longer associated with history and glory, but with defeat and humiliation such as France has never experienced. The closing campaigns of Napoleon the First in 1813 and 1815, though almost as disastrous in their results as that of Sedan, left but little sting behind. They were examples of consummate military skill, and followed close on twenty years of almost unbroken conquest, during which the eagles were carried in triumph into nearly every capital of Europe; and the Emperor surrendered his sword, ruined, it is true, but still the terror of his brother sovereigns, who could not sleep till he was shut up on a distant island, watched by a great navy. The Liberal party in France under the Restoration, therefore, found no difficulty in adopting him as a hero, and making his fate the burden of their patriotic lamentations in their attacks upon Louis XVIII. The men who turned their backs at Waterloo still wore those "habits bleus par la Victoire usés" of which Béranger sang. The contrast offered by the close of his career to Louis Napoleon's wandering, a helpless invalid, in quest of the victor, for the purpose of "laying his sword at his feet," is too painful for any dynasty to support with impunity; and "the heir to the throne," besides having to carry the heavy load of his father's incompetency, starts with one of his own hardly less heavy, in the shape of a ridiculous entry on public life. The rôle of a pretender to the crown of France is a sufficiently difficult one in our day, under the most favorable circumstances, but to begin it as the Prince Imperial did with the episode at Saarbrück, in 1870, is to make success all but impossible.

Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that the events which have followed the close of the war have done something to wipe out the shame of the war itself, and to rouse sympathy for the fallen Emperor in quarters in which it had long been extinct or had never been felt. The Commune did much for his memory, and will continue to do much. It furnished to a great many people, if not justification, considerable palliation for much of what was most hateful in his career. It was taken, and will continue to be taken, by many as a specimen of the evils from which he for twenty years saved France. He was not a soldier, all must admit; but he at least, say thousands, gave France a quarter of a century of security and quiet; and that the task was not an easy one, anybody can see who watches the efforts of all the parties whom he so long kept under his heel to erect a new government on the ruins of his. And then he was a kind-hearted man. He swept the streets of his own capital with grapeshot, and gave the French Treasury up to a band of gamblers and blacklegs; but he used a good deal of the money in the alleviation of individual suffering or misfortune. Tears flow over his bier on this account from hundreds of eyes as they flowed here over Fisk's. As "the heart" gains ascendancy in politics, the multitude of rascals who collect under "the mantle of charity" grows larger and larger. The assemblage of gentlemen who in the politics of many countries are covered by that particular garment is one of the oddest on which the eye of the philosopher has ever rested.

The ex-Emperor's success, however, is very suggestive in one way. It was achieved by the supply of a want which France, owing to peculiarities in her recent history and in the national character, felt more than other nations, but which all nations feel, and some feel more and more every day—viz., repose. During the protracted struggle for a share in the government which has been going on in Europe, ever since the Reformation, on the part of the middle and lower classes, political activity not unnaturally came to be regarded as the highest political good. A chance to vote and legislate and "manage," which had been so long the prerogative of kings and aristocrats, became the dearest ambition of the Average Man, until at last in our time it is by multitudes almost forgotten that government is but a means to an end—a contrivance to enable men to follow their callings, bring up their children, and add to the stores of human knowledge, in peace and quiet, and not in itself the object of their existence. Indeed, the ideal society of many progressive people is one in which the citizen is for ever either running for office himself, or nominating somebody else for office, or voting at the polls, or watching other people voting, or passing bills for the regulation of his neighbors' concerns. The process through which the world has been going on this point is somewhat analogous to that through which the European armies went between 1815 and 1851, described by Kinglake in his 'History of the Crimean War,' and which made a fine appearance on parade and not fighting the chief end of a military force, and elicited from a Russian Grand Duke the remark "that he hated war, because it spoiled the troops." Nevertheless, it is easily seen that as society grows richer and busier, its work harder, its machinery more delicate, the relations of individuals to each other more numerous and difficult of adjustment, constant preoccupation about politics becomes more and more irksome, and the insecurity and uncertainty which great political activity breeds more intolerable. The French reached the point of utter disgust and weariness sooner than other people, partly because there is more impatience in their temperament, and partly because their politicians are unusually bad and unskilful. But, as the world becomes industrial and commercial, the tendency towards this point grows stronger everywhere, and it is out of this weariness and disgust that Cæsars make their fortunes, and that Louis Napoleon made his. He was a good specimen of a bad class, and it is a class which is by no means extinct. Nothing but enormous improvements in administration, which will make the work of government easier to the citizen and more efficient, will prevent this class from gaining strength, in one disguise or another. Tweed and Sweeny were not called emperors, but they did in a small way the imperial work, and they, or their like, will always be impending over us as long as American citizens allow politicians to impose on them the incessant political fuss of the Athenian democracy—a democracy in which nearly every voter was a loafer who passed his days in the sun chopping logic, and was obliged to keep electing and debating in order to kill time. A certain amount of politics is a means of culture to every people; but when politics becomes so complicated as to furnish a livelihood to "professionals," "professionals" are pretty sure in our time to have it to themselves—a fact which Louis Napoleon discovered twenty years ago, and turned to account.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE ALABAMA DAMAGES.

WE publish elsewhere a letter on this subject from an able correspondent. We do not exactly understand what he means by saying, in reply to the *Nation*, that there is no evidence that the claims of the "United States for the destruction of public vessels and other property were rejected." We never said there was. The seventh article of the Treaty of Washington requires that the Tribunal shall first determine, as *to each vessel*, whether Great Britain has by any act or omission failed, etc., and shall certify such facts as *to each of said vessels*." The tenth article directed the board of assessors to ascertain and determine "the amount which should be paid by Great Britain on account of the liability arising from such failure as *to each vessel*." Turning to Vol. VII. of the 'Claims of the United States against Great Britain,' containing the details, we find only one claim of the United States set forth, namely, that for the destruction of the revenue cutter *Caleb Cushing*, cut out of Portland harbor, and this is valued at $25,000. To this must be added, however, the destruction of the steamer *Hatteras* and of two coal brigs by the *Alabama*, though there is no mention of it in

the "Case." Whether these claims were proved before the Tribunal we do not know; but we have very good means of determining whether they were included either by the parties or the Tribunal under the head of what are called "national losses," or, to recur to the phrase used in the article to which our correspondent refers, "damage received as a nation." The preamble of the supplemented article drafted by Lord Granville, and accepted on this point by Mr. Fish and the Senate, defines the term "national losses" as meaning the "transfer of the American commercial marine to the British flag; the enhanced payments of insurance; the prolongation of the war; the addition of a large sum to the cost of the war; and the suppression of the rebellion." The supplementary article broke down on another point; but the above claims were the "national losses," or "damage received as a nation," which Count Sclopis, on behalf of the Tribunal, declared "wholly excluded from the consideration of the Tribunal in making its award." This is all we meant to say. That the United States could come in and claim, as an individual, for property actually destroyed by the cruisers, for which Great Britain was found liable, of course no one doubts; but in dividing the money, the Government is as much bound, morally, to retain only the cost of the property actually destroyed by certain specified vessels, as it is to pay over to private citizens the sum coming to them for losses sustained under similar circumstances.

That "the arbitration was a transaction between two nations" is plain enough; but "that no individuals were or could be recognized in it" is something we fail to see. Individuals did not appear before the Tribunal, it is true, but that was because our Government appeared for them. The losses of individuals, as such, formed the whole subject-matter of the debate; in fact, under the ruling of the arbitrators on the indirect claims, had the United States not been able to say that a man called A lost so much, and a man called B lost so much, through the operations of this or that vessel, there would have been absolutely no case whatever before the Tribunal, and no award would have been made. The whole matter would have fallen to the ground. "The sum when paid will," it is true, "be held by the United States, trammelled by no technical rules of municipal law," but this is simply because the Government is above the law, and not because municipal law does not furnish good rules of distribution. Nor can we see that "the money was paid as a matter of comity between nations." It was paid as a matter of right, and was demanded as a matter of right, and not as a matter of "civility" or "good breeding," as Noah Webster says. In other words, it was paid by England as a wrongdoer to compensate certain determinate persons for certain determinate losses suffered through her wrong-doing; and though, as our correspondent says, "the courts have no control over it, and the Legislature must determine where it shall go," the duty of the Legislature with regard to it does not for this reason differ from its duty with regard to any other national trust or liability. The payment of a gross sum to the United States was not an acknowledgment that our Government might exercise absolute discretion in the matter of the final disposition of the fund, but simply the imposition on the United States, as the agent best competent to perform it, of the duty of finding out what persons were entitled to the money, which would otherwise have devolved upon a board of assessors. Our Government is, therefore, trustee of the fund under certain restrictions imposed by the American pleadings and proofs before the Tribunal, and by the grounds on which the arbitrators based their decision, both of which are, of course, perfectly well known. That the money was intended "to relieve the hardships of the war growing out of the depredations of the Confederate cruisers," is a proposition too vague in its terms to be traversed. What were those "hardships"? Would not a phrase of this kind justify the use of the fund to endow a soldiers' home or to lighten taxation? In short, the Government has received the money for the satisfaction of certain claims, for certain specific losses caused by certain specific acts. Under what rules should it proceed in ascertaining who are the holders of the claims? If the Government were an individual, the courts would furnish these rules, and they would be those by which the transactions of business men are regulated all over the civilized world, and which the experience of many generations has approved as fairest and most expedient. Our correspondent thinks the Government, however, ought to disregard these rules, but he does not give any better reason for it than that it *may* disregard them if it pleases.

We must not be understood, in saying this, to find any fault on the score of abstract justice or "equity" with the rules he lays down in his letter. They are good enough, or would be, if they were to be applied to simple division of a charitable donation among a body of direct sufferers from a fire or shipwreck. The fault we find with them is that they disregard the machinery provided by civilization for lessening or distributing certain risks of trade and commerce and manufactures, and refuse to take any count of the state of mind in which men enter into a certain class of transactions. These are things recognized by the courts on grounds of utility, which long usage has converted into practical justice, and which the Government has no more right to overlook than Smith or Jones, and which it is, for obvious reasons, far more dangerous for the Government to overlook than for individuals. The very doctrine which our correspondent now urges was produced in 1867 by General Butler and Senator Morton with regard to the public debt—we beg his pardon for mentioning him in the same sentence—and it is in substance this, that a government, not being amenable to the law, is justified, whenever it finds itself in the position of an obligor, in ascertaining, not what the obligee expected when he advanced his money, but what he is likely to make by the transaction, and in deducting this sum from the amount of its liabilities. This is in one sense "equity," but in another sense it is cheating. A man who bought Government bonds in 1862 at 50 did so amidst a set of conditions, some external and some internal, which to him formed part of the contract. In other words, he took certain heavy risks, on the understanding that he would, if he escaped them, be compensated for his courage and anxiety. What Butler wished to have the Government do was, when the risks had passed away, to apply the principles of "equity" to the case, and give the creditor back exactly what he paid, and to disregard the state of mind in which he lent the money.

Such a doctrine, if adopted by the community, would of course ruin the business of insurance completely, and we should be sorry to see the Government sanction it even for $15,000,000. The insurance business is conducted on a calculation of chances and under certain precautions which would be absolutely worthless if exposed to have its contracts upset or its expectations frustrated by curious enquiries into the amount of its receipts. Suppose Mr. Vanderbilt had insured his vessels—which we believe he never did—with a marine company, and for many years had had no losses, and at last ran one of his vessels ashore, and was paid her full value, how would it do to permit him to refuse to surrender the wreck to the underwriters on the ground that they had received far more from him in premiums than the amount of his policy? We do not say that the Geneva award is exactly salvage, but it is so like it that the Government ought to think twice before disregarding in its distribution all the rules of law governing salvage, and indeed all the usages on which the insurance business is based. "Equity," administered by totally irresponsible bodies of persons like our Congress, is apt to be a very queer article, and, as long as we have courts and law-books, the less we have of it, the better. The usual result of an attempt by Congress to distribute money on principles of abstract justice is that nobody gets anything. The history of the French Spoliation Claims furnishes a capital illustration of the qualifications of the legislature for any such task, and the result in that case has been defended by Republican organs within a few weeks on the "broad ground" that if the Government only keeps a man out of his money till he dies, the claims of his heirs and representatives become too shadowy and remote for consideration.

We ought to point out, in conclusion, that there is no human tribunal capable of deciding to what extent war premiums were caused by the cruisers for which the British were held responsible, and thus carrying out our correspondent's suggestion that such war premiums should be refunded, if lost through the sale of goods imported in neutral bottoms in competition with those imported under the United States flag. This, like some other questions which have been raised in this controversy, is one of the things which will only be cleared up at the last great day. Mr. Pomeroy's position on this subject was only tenable on the supposition that Great Britain was held responsible for *all* the Confederate cruisers, as she would have been if, for instance, Mr. Seward's theory of the effect of belligerent rights had held water.

AFFAIRS AT WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, January 11, 1873.

THE Crédit Mobilier investigation is still the sensation of the hour. The published testimony has produced a painful impression. There were but few people who believed that the statements made by Col. McComb last summer in the Philadelphia trial were entirely groundless. But the prompt, emphatic, and sweeping denials put forth by most of the Congressmen whose names had been mentioned in connection with the business had found general credit. Now it turns out that in most cases those denials had been too sweeping, that the Congressmen in question had not told the whole truth, and that their explanations have to be further explained. The best friends of these gentlemen admit that this is much to be regretted. Nobody here seriously thinks that such men as Garfield, Dawes, Senator Wilson, and others I might name, deliberately sold their influence in Congress to the Crédit Mobilier or any other corporation, or that they sought to enrich themselves by corrupt practices of any sort. In fact, the very smallness of the sums involved in the alleged transactions makes the idea appear almost ludicrous, considering the influential position of those gentlemen in Congress. But it is also thought that the persons concerned would to-day stand in a much more favorable light before the country had they, when the matter was first discussed in the public prints, made a perfectly clean breast of it instead of resorting to vague generalities with loopholes in them. Their conduct has been such as to impair the public confidence in the statements of men who have always been believed to be honest and honorable. Moreover, the testimony of Oakes Ames with regard to some of these individual cases is so indistinct and unsatisfactory, owing to his wonderfully bad memory, as to create the impression that there is much more behind that has not yet been told. The case of Mr. James Brooks is looked upon as a desperate one, and Mr. Colfax's statement, which makes him appear as a benevolent creditor of the Massachusetts capitalist to the amount of $500, has created much amusement, as a fair specimen of that kind of explanations which make a thing appear worse than it really is. On the whole, the disclosures already made have excited the suspicion that the real evil-doers have not yet been discovered, and that we have touched only the outlines of a vast system of corruption. The books of the Crédit Mobilier and the examination of Mr. Durant are in this respect looked for with eager interest. There is a rumor afloat that the Crédit Mobilier, or its leading spirits, have contributed large sums of money to procure the election of certain Congressmen, and that this also will appear in the progress of the investigation. In the meantime, an enquiry has been begun by the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections into the money transactions connected with Mr. Caldwell's election to the Senate, and this also wears a very ugly look. It is understood that a similar enquiry will be moved when Mr. Patterson, who stands publicly accused of having bought his way through the Legislature of South Carolina, presents himself in the Senate. Things of this kind are rapidly accumulating, and there is a vague fear springing up that, if the investigations go on, a mass of rottenness will be laid bare which will amaze the people. I heard a Congressman say that the investigating business must be stopped, or it will destroy all confidence in the integrity of public men. To stop the investigations entirely will, of course, now be impossible; but the alarm is spreading, and an attempt is not unlikely to be made by political managers to have the work done as superficially as possible, and to fall back upon the old practice of whitewashing. One good effect these investigations seem to have produced already. Congressmen are beginning to perceive that it is quite unsafe to have their names involved in "job-legislation," and I learn that some comprehensive schemes which were to be pressed this winter have virtually been given up for the time being.

As the principal leaders of the Administration party in the Senate whose terms expire on the 4th of March, Messrs. Morton, Cameron, Conkling, and Howe, have been or will be re-elected "triumphantly" and without apparent opposition in their own party, the "Senatorial Ring" so called will remain unbroken, unless disturbed by personal jealousies among themselves. Now that the Presidential election is over, and the President of their choice is secure in his place for another four years, the question presents itself who is to wield the greatest power under and through him. Morton, Conkling, and Edmunds will undoubtedly aspire to the leadership in the Senate, with the chances in favor of Mr. Conkling, who represents the greatest State, is the most magnificent in speech and the most assuming in deportment. It is said that while before his "triumph" in New York he would have been satisfied with a seat on the Supreme Bench, he thinks now that the Presidency itself would not be too good a thing for him. Morton has long been troubled by the same ambition, and his achievements during the late canvass have shown that his bodily infirmities do not unfit him for hard work. We may look, therefore, for a lively race between these two candidates for the succession. In the Senate they have an open field, while at the White House the supremacy of their influence will be contested by such statesmen as Cameron and Chandler, who, indeed, do not shine in debate, but understand the tricks of the trade as well as anybody "inside politics," and are apt to get ahead of their more showy rivals in the matter of management. But each one of these gentlemen is said to appear sometimes seriously puzzled as to the influence which is really most potent with the President. The latter will now and then do things about which neither of the above-named party managers has been consulted, apparently acting upon advice of which nobody seems to know whence it comes. The Administration leaders in Congress are, therefore, sometimes under the necessity of defending and advocating things for which they would rather not assume the responsibility, in order to preserve the influence which they possess, and to show themselves worthy of more. So it was during General Grant's first term, and it will probably remain so. On the whole, we have to expect a continuation of the old fights, pretty much in the old form, and between the same sets of men, only that Mr. Trumbull will drop out on the 4th of March, which will be a very serious loss to the friends of genuine reform. At the commencement of this session there were a good many men here who hoped that the President would turn over a new leaf after his success in the election. But, in the light of current events, that hope is growing fainter every day. The President's order to the Federal office-holders in Louisiana, either to stop taking an active part in State politics or to resign their Federal offices, was indeed a sign of new promise in the direction of civil-service reform; but on the other hand, newly elected Congressmen whose term will begin on the 4th of March, and "meritorious workers" who distinguished themselves in the late campaign, are already gathering here with an eye to a "new deal" in the Federal patronage, and scarcely anybody believes that the President's reform zeal will resist the pressure. Thus the dreary prospect of a repetition of the old struggle opens itself before us, and it will require new and stirring incidents to impart to it the charm of freshness.

The Democratic leaders seem to have made up their minds that, after the great disaster of last fall, the reorganization of the Democratic party on the old basis must be attempted. Some of them still indulge in the old talk about their three millions of voters and the strength of their party discipline, which has a somewhat ludicrous sound after the experience they have just gone through. It almost looks as if they needed a few more defeats to make them understand at last that the people will not trust the power of the Government in the hands of the old Democratic organization. If defeats are needed to that end, they will certainly come.

ENGLAND—MR. GLADSTONE'S SPEECH-MAKING.

LONDON, Dec. 27, 1872.

THE old year is taking leave of us very quietly. No very conspicuous agitation is going forward, and the British public is able to solace itself by contemplating the baby hippopotamus at the Zoological Gardens, looking at Mme. Tussaud's waxwork show, and, in other similar methods, paying what is considered to be fit homage to the social associations of the season with a tolerably disengaged mind. Rather small incidents are sufficient to amuse us under the circumstances, though they excite warmth enough to show that we are not altogether absorbed in peace and good-will towards all mankind. I must, however, in the first place, notice one event of a more melancholy nature which has occurred since my last letter. Mr. Disraeli has lost his wife, Lady Beaconsfield, amidst the general sympathy even of his

opponents. His political career was much facilitated, if not made possible, by his marriage, and his wife's devoted interest in his success was known to every one. Probably your readers are already acquainted with the story how on the occasion of some important debate she had accompanied her husband to the House of Commons in a carriage, the door of which was carelessly closed upon her hand; and how she heroically concealed the pain of a crushed finger in order that her husband's nerves might not be shaken on the eve of action. That such a domestic blow should, for a time, protect Mr. Disraeli from hostile remarks, and call forth some positive expressions of sympathy, is only right and natural; and it is to be hoped that he has not read some articles in which the gush of good feeling from avowed enemies has been rather unctuous, not to say fulsome. That political generosity has not been everywhere pushed to a Quixotic extreme seemed to be proved by a recent utterance of a frail old Tory nobleman. Lord Radnor presented some agricultural club in Wiltshire with a "good old English baron of beef," and promised, so it was reported, to send two barons next year in case Mr. Gladstone had "gone the way of all flesh." However, as his son writes to the *Times* to-day to explain that it was not Mr. Gladstone but Mr. Gladstone's administration that was to go the way of all flesh, the point of the story is spoilt.

Mr. Gladstone has been very lively of late, and has incidentally exhibited some of those queer streaks of eccentricity which blend so oddly with his general ability. He was reported to have said the other day, but it seems that reporters are not very trustworthy at Christmas time, that "every day must begin for him with his old friend Homer." Mr. Gladstone's faithful supporters were thrown into ecstacies of admiration. The *Spectator* plunged into profound psychological speculations as to the secret bond of harmony which somehow made it part of the essential fitness of things that the ancient Greek poetry should provide the richest nourishment for the soul of our modern statesman. It discovered that the same conception of the universe was at the bottom of Mr. Gladstone's statesmanship and Homer's poetry. According to Goethe, it seems, Homer regarded life as a conflict and a hell; and it was of course easy to demonstrate that Mr. Gladstone also regarded life as a conflict and a hell. The *Spectator* belongs to the philosophical school of the late Mr. Maurice, and seems to have inherited his extraordinary ingenuity in showing that any given opinion is at bottom the same as any other opinion. No doubt it would have been equally capable of proving upon occasion that Mr. Gladstone conceived of life as a peaceful heaven. The *Telegraph* is less given to refined speculations, though it idolizes Mr. Gladstone with a fervor so marked as to be a little damaging to its object. The *Telegraph* is supposed to enjoy the personal confidence of the minister to a degree which is not a little remarkable. Mr. Gladstone is a man of taste and refinement. The *Telegraph* panders to the appetite of the lower middle classes for a kind of unctuous balderdash which is singularly offensive to most cultivated minds. However, flattery seldom shocks its recipient, however gross the incense; and Mr. Gladstone, it would seem, really likes to be called "the people's William," and acknowledges the loyalty of those who bespatter him with such praise by what is generally thought to be unworthy condescension. It has even been generally rumored that the services of the *Telegraph* were to be acknowledged by the bestowal of a baronetcy on a person whose fitness for that honor was not very manifest to the ordinary mind. The *Telegraph* was of course in raptures with this revelation of the premier's habits. In a fine flow of eloquence, it discoursed upon this marvellous union of the scholar and the statesman, and declared that official labors which would break down the constitution of most men allowed Mr. Gladstone to prosecute the studies of his youth with a vigor and an energy which the keenest Heidelberg professor might envy. It did not hint that Mr. Gladstone has talked an amount of nonsense about Homer which Heidelberg or other professors contemplate with simple amazement. However, Mr. Gladstone has cruelly struck away the foundation of all these finespun speculations and this glowing rhetoric. It seems, according to the true version of his speech, it was not "every day," but every enquiry into certain historical subjects, that must for him begin with his old friend Homer. In fact, he has not read Homer consecutively during the last four years, and has not devoted to Homeric studies during that time more days than could be counted on the fingers. The whole beautiful fabric of speculation is thus demolished at one blow, and poor Mr. Gladstone is reduced to the standard of human nature. Even he cannot be at once a prime minister of England and a German professor.

It might be wished, however, that he could confine himself a little more closely to his ministerial functions. Although Mr. Gladstone, sleeping with Homer under his pillow, must be regarded as a purely fancy portrait, it is true that the old Oxford habits of thought make their appearance at times in very singular fashion; and that life, if it is not "a conflict and a hell" to him, is always provoking him to unnecessary ebullitions of sensibility. A Protestant clergyman in Ireland wrote to him the other day to put these singular questions: "Can you, as an Englishman, tell Irishmen as such that you have done to them and theirs as in the same case you would be done by? Or can you, as a son of man, tell him, the Son of Man, that you have dealt and are still dealing with his as he commanded?" Mr. Gladstone thought it necessary to explain his reasons for answering these questions in the affirmative instead of putting them in his waste-paper basket. Not long ago he went out of his way to advertise a blasphemous hymn-book of Mr. Bradlaugh's, and recently he has been making a speech which is really a curiosity in its way. He had promised to distribute prizes to a school at Liverpool, and of course he had to make a speech on the occasion. We all remember with what good-humor and shrewd sense Lord Palmerston used to discharge such duties, and, though Mr. Gladstone is in all essential respects a man of incomparably higher intellect than "Pam.," it is curious to remark the contrast. He could not help going into one of the most inappropriate discussions which could possibly be brought before a schoolboy audience. It seems that Mr. Gladstone has recently been reading Strauss's book, 'Der alte und neue Glaube.' It seems, too, that the book has very much puzzled and vexed him. In this there is nothing surprising. For a High Churchman of the Oxford type it is in many ways disagreeable to read a book in which a grave and learned professor, who has made the subject the study of a life, declares his profound conviction that all belief in the supernatural must be abandoned, and that the resurrection of Christ, if we are invited to receive it as a matter of fact, must be regarded as a "welthistorische Humbug." The phenomenon is clearly one which demands the attention of statesmen as well as divines. The odd thing is that Mr. Gladstone is so overflowing with the speculations to which it has given rise in his mind, that with characteristic intellectual incontinence he finds himself impelled to bestow them upon a set of schoolboys. He of course confesses that it would be absurd for him to attempt the refutation of Strauss under such circumstances. It may be added, that from the hints which he throws out it would probably be very rash in him to attempt the refutation of Strauss under any circumstances. His principal argument appears to be that as a good many doctrines were settled at the Council of Nice many hundred years ago, in which most Christians have ever since acquiesced, it would be a pity to reopen them again. The argument, if it is an argument, is not one which will very much trouble historical enquirers of the school of Strauss. But the question remains why Mr. Gladstone, being unable to refute Strauss, and being therefore able to do nothing but comment on the awful nature of his opinions, should have done so to a set of schoolboys. Why could he not simply hold his tongue? The only effect which he has produced upon their minds is to inform them that a very able and thoughtful enquirer has declared Christianity to be all moonshine, and to add that he, Mr. Gladstone, is very much frightened, and hopes that they will not think so too.

The reason of this strange performance is of course simple enough. Mr. Gladstone did not adopt the obvious course of holding his tongue because he is totally incapable of holding his tongue. That is the weakness which irritates and discourages his followers. They can never be certain that he will not at any moment burst out with some perfectly gratuitous bit of imprudence. Even his antagonists admit his extraordinary ability in his own particular province. There is no one among his colleagues, though they include some very able men, who can be compared to him for an instant for grasp of a complicated financial and legislative question and for power of expounding it. After everything has been said against him, the fact remains that he has beyond all comparison the most comprehensive and versatile intellect in his party, or indeed in Parliament. But his strength is alloyed by this incomprehensible weakness. Mandeville called Addison "a parson in a tie-wig," and Mr. Gladstone sometimes seems to be a High-Church curate placed by some strange freak of fortune upon the Treasury Bench. Incomparable in making a budget speech intelligible and almost poetical, he descends suddenly to the level of a popular preacher when the impulse unfortunately takes him. The main result of his last performance will be to give an excellent advertisement to Strauss, and we shall probably soon see a translation, with a testimony to the singular ability of the performance from the Prime Minister of England. To that I have personally no objection whatever; but Mr. Gladstone will have wantonly shocked a good many of his supporters, and helped to ruin whatever character he had left for common sense and prudence.

On the day of Mr. Gladstone's performance at Liverpool, two other prominent members of Parliament, Mr. Bruce and Mr. Mundella, were also making speeches about education. The subject is plainly coming up again for discussion, and amongst other points which will probably excite some interest is the proposed reconstruction of our universities. A commission recently appointed will soon publish a report upon their endowments, and

it is supposed that the revenues will turn out to be so great as to excite the cupidity of various schemers. The question is a very large one, and I shall probably be obliged to speak of it at length before the end of next session. Meanwhile, I will merely remark that there seem at present to be two parties. There are the pure utilitarians, who would wish to apply part of the revenues to the encouragement of technical education in our large towns, or to some similar purpose. These, however, are not at present a numerous or a noisy body. The larger number of University reformers are anxious to remodel them in such a way as to make them worthy centres both of the higher education and of original research, and to remove some of the anomalies derived from mediæval times, which at once hamper the activity of the universities and tend to make them obnoxious to the utilitarians. There are, however, so many difficulties in the way of adopting any generally acceptable scheme that these reformers are very much divided amongst themselves. Great changes may certainly be anticipated, but it is difficult to foretell what form they will probably take. To make the points at issue at all intelligible, I must go into the matter rather more fully than I can do at present, and I therefore postpone the subject till another opportunity.

Correspondence.

THE $15,500,000.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the able article of December 26, entitled "What shall be done about our Fifteen-and-a-half Millions?" there are some statements which seem to call for a reply. It is stated that all the Alabama claims by the United States for damages received as a nation were rejected at Geneva. It is true that the claims for the cost of pursuit of the Confederate cruisers were rejected on the ground that they could not be distinguished from the general expenses of the war; but there is no evidence that the claims of the United States for the destruction of public vessels and other property were rejected.

A brief examination of a part of the treaty, of the Case presented by the United States, and of the award, will show what was rejected and what was allowed.

By the treaty it was agreed that all claims *growing out* of the acts committed by the several vessels which have given rise to the claims generically known as the Alabama Claims should be referred.

After the ruling out of the indirect claims, the Case of the United States covered (1) losses growing out of the destruction of vessels and their cargoes by the insurgent cruisers, (2) the national expenditures in pursuit of those cruisers.

Under the first head, ships of the United States as well as of individuals were included. The United States did not prove any claims in detail, and in case the Tribunal did not award a sum in gross, reserved a right to present further claims and further evidence in support of the claims presented and of any further claims.

The Tribunal rejected the claims for the cost of pursuit for the reasons above stated. It also rejected the claim for prospective earnings and "set aside all double claims for the same losses, and all claims for gross freights, so far as they exceed net freights." It then awarded a gross sum of $15,500,000 to be paid to the United States, and then awarded that all claims referred to in the treaty, whether presented or not, were to be "henceforth considered and treated as finally settled, barred, and inadmissible." The award, therefore, covers all claims *growing out of the acts committed by the several vessels* for which Great Britain was held liable, except those expressly rejected. The arbitration was a transaction between two nations; no individuals were, or could be, recognized in it. The fund, when paid, will be held by the United States, trammelled by no technical rules of municipal law, but simply to relieve the hardships which have grown out of the depredations of the Confederate cruisers. The money was paid as a matter of comity between nations. No individual has strictly any legal right or property in it. The courts have no control over it, the legislature must determine where it shall go. In this view only can the duty of the United States be made clear.

To whom, then, should the United States pay this money?

1. There are the uninsured owners of ships and cargoes. They suffer losses growing out of the acts of the cruisers. The officers and crews of vessels destroyed lost time and property, and perhaps suffered in their persons; and for these they should receive compensation.

2. The owners of ships and cargoes who were fully insured, and received their insurance, lost nothing by the destruction of their property; they should recover nothing. Their claims can only rest upon the technical ground that they had the legal title to the property destroyed. But in substance they lost nothing, and the United States should look to substantial and not technical losses.

3. The insurance companies, if on the whole they lost nothing in consequence of these depredations, if their war premiums exceeded their losses, have no better claim than the insured owner. It may be admitted, for the sake of the argument, that if the insured owner has a right to the fund, and obtains it, the courts would compel him to transfer it to the underwriter, to whom he may have abandoned it. But, as we have seen, the owner has no right to it, and should not receive it. The insurance companies will, therefore, stand on the merits of their direct claims on the Government. Unless they can show losses growing out of the depredations. they should retain nothing.

4. The owners of ships and cargoes who paid the war premiums, or who, in other words, made up the fund from which the owners of the ships and cargoes destroyed were reimbursed, have an equitable claim, unless they received back their war premiums in the enhanced price of freight or merchandise.

It is said that they did not receive them back, but that merchandise imported under the flag of the United States was sold in competition with that imported in neutral bottoms, and that the war premiums were wholly lost. If this is so, these war premiums should be reimbursed, certainly to the extent to which they were caused by the cruisers for whose injuries Great Britain has been held liable.

Most of these premiums were deposited with mutual insurance companies, and would have been returned to those who advanced them if they had not been appropriated to indemnify the insured owners of ships and cargoes. The mutual companies are mere stakeholders, who receive premiums upon trust to pay out of them such losses as may happen, and to return the balance to the depositors of the premiums. They returned less because of these losses. This fund received from England should make up the deficiency.

Assuming that the shipowner has abandoned a right to a mutual insurance company, that company is merely a trustee for those who paid the premiums, and the United States should pay the money directly to those who are really entitled to it. If it goes to the insurance companies, they may attempt to divide it, and, perhaps, under technical rules of law, might divide it among their present members, who have no claim, either legal or equitable, to the fund.

The claim to war premiums is clearly stated by Mr. Pomeroy in an able article in the January number of the *American Law Review*. He says: "The claim of compensation for enhanced rates of insurance paid by American shipowners and shippers was in no respect indirect; . . . its amount could have been proved with exactness, and its necessary connection with the wrong was as plain as that of the capture of ships and cargoes; indeed, it stood upon exactly the same footing as the captures. During the progress of the general controversy it was urged that the injured shipowners and shippers were insured, and that even the losses paid to them by the underwriters were made up by the increased premiums for war risks. If this were all true, it only pushed the loss one step further back; it did not make the loss any the less or any the less certain. It is enough to say that every owner of an American ship, and every shipment of cargo by an American owner, and every dollar of increased insurance paid for such ship or cargo, can be proved with absolutely certainty; and that the claim for such enhanced insurance was in every respect as direct as the claim for destroyed ships and goods. This claim, so just, so certain, so direct, was lost by the inaccurate arrangement and classification made by the persons who composed the Case."

To this statement of Mr. Pomeroy there can be no objection except to the last clause. The claims for war premiums were rejected, when presented as distinct from, and *in addition* to, the claims growing out of the destruction of ships and cargoes. The premiums were received by the underwriters as the equivalents for the ships and cargoes destroyed. The war premiums are the exact measure of the injury caused to parties who insured, and the value of the ships and cargoes destroyed is another measure of the amount of the same damages. Both should not be allowed. The Tribunal did not reject the claims for war premiums as a measure of the damages or as the equivalent for the insured ships and cargoes destroyed. ***

"THE MODE OF ELECTING THE PRESIDENT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with some surprise the article in the *Nation* of January 2 on "The Mode of Electing the President." The *Nation* evidently inclines to a change in the Constitution which shall remit this question to be decided

by a majority of the popular vote of the whole country, irrespective of territorial limits.

This discussion is, I believe, by no means new. If the *Nation* will turn, for instance, to the *American Journal of Social Science*, it will find in No. I. (pp. 93-96) the election of the President by a majority of the popular vote discussed, and, in No. II. (p. 148), it will find the proposition abandoned—and this, too, for an obvious reason. We have heard something of election frauds, doctored returns, and candidates "counted in" in this country. Recently, in the well-ordered city of Boston, we have seen one ward try to "return" a mayor. In electing a President, we, in the better-ordered communities, may now regard with some degree of complacency frauds which only at most effect the electoral vote of one State, no matter how large. How we should regard vast "Pembina" majorities rolled up from the wilderness to offset our registered ballots, is wholly another question. Are not the temptations and opportunities for election frauds great enough now that we should amend the Constitution so as to make the first irresistible and the last unpreventable?

To avoid the possibility of an evil from which we never have suffered, it is proposed to rush on to an evil from which we have repeatedly suffered—an evil the most fatal to, and inseparable from, any system of universal suffrage. So far from the remedy lying in the direction suggested by your article of the 2d inst., it would seem to lie in the exactly opposite direction. The effects of fraud should be localized, and not still further extended. This was the conclusion arrived at four years ago, after the most thorough discussion of this long-vexed question; and the following proposed amendment to the Constitution was then submitted to Congress in accordance with it. It was never acted upon, but it will be found in House Docs., 3d Session, XLth Congress, Report No. 31:

ARTICLE.

"The electors of President and Vice-President shall be chosen as follows:

"Two electors of President and Vice-President shall be chosen at large, from each State, by the qualified voters therein.

"A number of electors in each State equal to the whole number of representatives to which such State may be entitled in Congress, shall be chosen in single districts of contiguous and compact territory, each containing, as nearly as practicable, an equal amount of population.

"Congress shall prescribe the mode of determining the validity of the choice of electors, and of contesting the right to the office of President and Vice-President."

Under this system of election, local frauds, no matter how extensive, could only affect three electoral votes, instead of thirty-six, as at present, on the final result, in case of choice by popular majority.

Under it the electoral college might be abolished, if thought necessary, and the votes of the several States returned by State or United States officials as so many electoral votes cast for such and such candidates. This would be election by local popular majorities.

The death of a candidate, successful or otherwise, as in the case of Mr. Greeley, would not affect the result any more in this case than under a system of direct voting. In each case the votes are lost, as needs must be, if a candidate dies.

Under such a system of small local results, the chances are infinite that the aggregate of local majorities will almost exactly reflect the general vote.

Finally, the "man inside politics" loses his greatest inducement to commit frauds when he finds that the effects of fraud are reduced to a minimum.

This question is important. In discussing it, I hope the *Nation* will not find in it another argument in favor of the destruction of one of the few remaining barriers against a general centralization. A.

BOSTON, January 4, 1873.

[The only thing to which the *Nation* really "inclines" is some change which will prevent the possibility of the purchase of the Presidency some fine day from three or four gentlemen holding "the balance of power" in the college. We have men among us now who would give a million for a chance of "moving the crops." They have debauched the Senate, and they are rapidly debauching all bodies small enough to be purchasable. But whether popular election is the best mode of preventing this, we do not feel sure. —ED. NATION.]

Notes.

A WORK in some respects overlapping Mr. Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Familiar Quotations' will be Mr. S. Austin Allibone's 'New Dictionary of Poetical Quotations,' covering the entire field of British and American poetry from the time of Chaucer to the present day. The work will have three indexes, and will be published by J. B. Lippincott & Co. They have also in press a translation, by George Vandenhoff, of Dumas's 'L'Homme-Femme'—'Man-Woman'; and, by Mary G. Wells, of Mme. Guizot de Witt's 'Marie Derville,' a story of a French boarding-school.——Lee & Shepard will republish the 'Memoirs of Baron Stockmar.'——Macmillan & Co.'s for list February embraces 'The Cavalier and his Lady'—selections from the works of the first Duke and Duchess of Newcastle ('Golden Treasury Series'); 'The Depths of the Sea,' as explored by Drs. Carpenter, Gwyn Jeffreys, and Wyville Thompson, on the *Lightning* and *Porcupine*, in 1868-9; 'Caliban: The Missing Link,' by Daniel Wilson; 'The Mystery of Matter, and other Essays,' by Rev. J. A. Picton; 'Essays in Theoretical and Applied Political Economy,' by Prof. J. E. Cairnes; and 'Plays and Puritans, and other Essays,' by Rev. Charles Kingsley.

—We wish to call attention to the new French quarterly journal *Romania* published at Paris ('Recueil trimestriel consacré à l'étude des Langues et des Littératures Romanes, publié par Paul Meyer et Gaston Paris'), of which the first three numbers are before us. Their contents are both interesting and useful, and undoubtedly have been welcomed by the students of Romance languages. The principal object of the *Romania* is the publication of the inedited old French literature, as a basis for etymological, grammatical, and lexicographical researches; besides which it is devoted to studies on all Romance languages before the Renaissance and the Reformation. The Anglo-Norman language forms a part of its programme, which will help to awaken a wider interest. The opening article, "Romani, Romania, Lingua Romana, Romancium," by Gaston Paris, shows great scholarship and independent research, and contains a good deal which is at once valuable and novel, mainly in reference to the historical character of the Romance nations. There are some statements with which many readers will not agree; thus, he considers "l'esprit de race" not less dangerous than "le rationalisme pur," and then he says: "Le principe des nationalités fondées sur l'unité de race, trop facilement accepté même chez nous, n'a point eu jusqu'ici de fort heureuses conséquences. A ce principe, qui ne repose que sur une base physiologique, s'oppose heureusement celui qui fonde l'existence et l'indépendance des peuples sur l'histoire, la communauté des intérêts et la participation à une même culture. Il oppose le libre choix et l'adhésion qui provient de la reconnaissance des mêmes principes à la fatalité de la race; *il est éminemment progressif et civilisateur, tandis que l'autre sera toujours par son essence conservateur et même exclusif.*"

—We have received from Messrs. L. W. Schmidt and F. W. Christern copies of the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1873. It contains a few more pages than the edition of last year, but, owing to the peace of Europe, it has had comparatively few changes to make, except in the diplomatic and official personnel, and in certain statistics which always require annual revision. In addition to the *Geographisches Jahrbuch*, which has of late years accompanied the *Almanach*, a special publication on the population of the globe has been found necessary, and was begun in September ('Die Bevölkerung der Erde'). The editors sharply rebuke two of their countrymen, Block and Dammer, for having borrowed too freely of their carefully prepared matter without acknowledgment. They also firmly defend themselves for continuing to place the cardinals under the head of the Holy See, in the 'Annuaire diplomatique,' instead of among sovereign princes in the first part of the 'Généalogie.' They have, they say, taken advice of competent authorities in civil and canon law, and remain of opinion that the cardinals must be regarded as the Pope's aids and the first dignitaries of the Church, but still at the same time as subjects of the states in which they reside. France resumes her place in the alphabetical arrangement of the 'Annuaire diplomatique.' The necrology contains only one prominent name—that of the late King of Sweden; Napoleon's death must be chronicled another year. Mr. Joseph Whitaker has sent us his *Almanack* for 1873, of which it may be said, as of its predecessors, that for English-speaking people it is as valuable in its way as that of Gotha. Great Britain and her possessions occupy, in the scheme of this almanac, five-sixths of the space, the rest being devoted to foreign countries. In the notice of the United States we remark on page 301 a few errors: *Canada*, N. J., for Camden; *Charleston*, as a suburb of Boston, for Charlestown—a mistake which, even if it were not clerical or typographical, would be far less gross than that of an English admiral, prominent in the Crimean War, who actually thought Charleston was situated on the Pacific Ocean; New Orleans, *Louis*, for Louisiana or La.; and 49,473 for 149,473 as the population of San Francisco.

—The *Atlantic Almanac* of Messrs. Osgood & Co. is only to a very limited extent serious and statistical. With a few pages of this kind, it mingles full-page illustrations, some of which have done duty in *Every Saturday*, and light reading in the shape of original and selected articles,

poetry, etc. The essay by Mr. Wilson Flagg, entitled "Picturesque Rambles," and that by Mr. Robert Morris Copeland on "Public Cemeteries," alone are worth (to use a common phrase) the price of the almanac. It is curious to observe how Mr. Flagg, who almost denies the landscape gardener any place in nature, and Mr. Copeland, whose business is landscape gardening, agree in denouncing the same sort of mistreatment of natural effects. The former tells of a certain "little pond bordered in its whole circumference by neatly-pecked curbstones, with a few formal clumps of shrubbery irregularly disposed outside of it"; while Mr. Copeland ridicules in his cemetery "the circular wash-basin confined by a stone wall, its shore paved with cobblestones set in geometric forms, and perhaps painted or whitewashed to give glaring contrasts of form and color, every wild plant gone, and every tree that has been retained robbed of its drapery, and clipped and pruned out of its typical form, to correspond with some idea of how a tree should look." Mr. Flagg has some very instructive remarks on the relations between certain kinds of trees and the houses of different periods in New England before which they are found planted; on the prevailing or once fashionable roadside trees; and on open-lot and pasture trees. We cannot say that we attach implicit credence to his theory that the oaks which have been preserved on cleared land "were planted by the Northmen from Greenland and Iceland, . . . whose ancestors were of the religion of the Druids," they cherishing the tree as still sacred, though previous to their emigration they had been converted to Christianity. Mr. Flagg, however, has no doubt of all this, or that "the colonists, not being reinforced by new arrivals of people, became absorbed into the native Indian population."

—Mr. Henry Blackburn's design for an annual exhibition of English and foreign water-color drawings and sketches, if carried out by the National Academy in the spirit in which it was originally proposed in England, should have a permanent influence on the American taste for water-colors, and encourage its practice as an art. Painting in water-colors is little understood in this country, and it is said by artists that it "does not pay." All this may be altered, and the taste for water-colors greatly increased, by the study of works by European artists, if only for a short season every year. The exhibition which is to be opened early in February next, will certainly be interesting; but it is experimental, and on its success will depend the establishment of future international exhibitions of art, both in oils and water-colors. But whatever the merits of this first collection, which has been got together in a very short space of time, it has none of the aspects of a commercial speculation, the artists who send their works being an independent body, some of whom will be willing to sell their works and some not. There will not, we are informed, be any auction or general sale of pictures, but the Council of the Academy, to whom they are consigned, will receive a list of those for sale, and either part with them at the artists' prices or return them to London at the close of the exhibition. As there will probably be a number of "sketches in black and white" from England and France, the American Society of Painters in Water-colors have just issued a notice that they will also "receive a limited number of drawings in black and white, on wood or paper," this year. In the present active state of illustrative art, this section of the exhibition, if well represented, as it certainly should be by American artists, will have an educational value worthy of all encouragement.

—"E. D. M.," referring to Gen. Garfield's recent letter in the *Nation* on the centre of gravity of our population since 1840, writes to the Cincinnati *Gazette* that in 1790, at the outset of the republic, the centre of gravity, as ascertained by Prof. Patterson, was in York County, Pa.:

"In the next eighty years—down to the census of 1870—it proceeded west (not exactly), but very near the 39th line of latitude. It passed a little south of the 39th degree, having begun something north of the 39th degree, and not having yet quite reached it. This variation is due to the space occupied by Lakes Erie and Michigan, which deflected to the south the advancing column of migration. The straight-line distance from the southeast corner of Pennsylvania (where it began) to Wilmington (Ohio), near which it now is, is very nearly 400 miles. The centre of the advancing column crossed the main ridge of the Alleghanies about 1833, a few miles south of where the old Pennsylvania road crossed Laurel Mountain, east of Uniontown. It crossed the Pan-Handle of Virginia in 1850, and reached the Scioto River in 1860. It is now crossing Ohio rapidly. Although the decennial average is but fifty miles, yet the great column of population is now moving west at the rate of eighty miles in each ten years. The centre will pass near Hamilton, O., and reach Brookville, Ind., about 1880."

—A correspondent has furnished us some calculations in regard to the cost of telegraphic messages in this country, made "on the supposition that the increased number of miles of wire," from 1867 to 1871, "represents no increase of business," "a supposition which," as he says, "he has no means of verifying." We may add that the supposition is incapable of verification. It has no foundation whatever. The new wire put up between 1867 and 1871 was erected in consequence of, and to provide for, the increasing volume of the telegraph business of the country. And experience shows that this growth is greatest between the large cities best supplied with telegraphic facilities. The further assumption that the increased mileage of wire was owing to the consolidation of private companies with each other is also untrue. During the period to which we refer, there were no consolidations of importance. Even if this had been the case, it would not justify the conclusions of our correspondent. It would be immaterial for our purposes whether between New York and Chicago, for example, the increase in business accompanied the union of competing lines or the erection of new wires. The question is, not where the messages came from, but what increase of expense did they involve.

—At Spandau, in Prussia, a shooting match lately took place between pupils of infantry and artillery schools, to determine the comparative efficiency of these two arms of the service. At the first trial each party was placed opposite targets representing its own arm, the infantry at a distance of from 900 to 1,200 yards, the artillery from 1,000 to 1,300 yards. Both practised together for the space of twenty minutes, at the end of which time the infantry had fired 20,000 shots and made about 200 hits; the artillery, using shrapnel-shells, 80 shots and about 1,200 hits. Targets were then exchanged, and firing for the same interval recommenced, with the result still decidedly in favor of the artillery. The numerical strength of the infantry of the Empire is about five times that of the artillery; but even so it would appear that its execution is considerably less effective than the latter's.

—The question whether Pope Adrian did or did not bestow Ireland on King Henry II. of England, which played so prominent a part in the controversy between Father Burke and Mr. Froude, is one on which the best Catholic historians by no means all take sides with the former. Cesare Cantù, in his classic 'Universal History,' admits the transfer. But there is stronger authority for it than Cantù's, and, if possible, one more unsuspected—Dr. Hergenröther, the ablest Catholic Church historian living, if we except perhaps Döllinger and consider him a Catholic. Dr. Hergenröther, who is the author of 'Anti-Janus,' and Professor of Canon Law and Church History in the University of Würzburg, has just published a work ('Katholische Kirche und Christlicher Staat in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwickelung und in Beziehung auf die Fragen der Gegenwart'), in which all the discussions are from the Catholic standpoint. Speaking of the case before us, he says: "Great weight has been attached to the fact that Pope Adrian IV. claimed Ireland and all islands converted to Christianity as the property of the Roman Church, and to the special fact that he made over Ireland to Henry II. in consideration of certain yearly tithes." He only adds that, in judging of this, "many things must be taken into consideration." Among those who have attached great weight to this transaction we find no less a man and no less good a Catholic than Bossuet. Hergenröther quotes from a letter of the Pope to King Henry II. to the effect that the latter had expressed a wish to him to extend the kingdom of Christ and the cause of morality, and had asked the Pope's advice as to how he should proceed to effect this. So low was the state of morals in Ireland, according to contemporary writers, that there was danger of the island's being depopulated by murder. All kinds of looseness prevailed, and even incest was not uncommon. Christianity had been abandoned in a great many parts of the island. Such a state of affairs demanded a remedy, and the remedy was to hand Ireland over to England, to be taken care of. Hergenröther quotes at length from contemporary documents, and from the letters of Adrian and his successor, in defence of these views. Indeed, like a good historian, he writes and does not make history, although he seems overanxious at times to defend the policy and even the political mistakes of the Popes. In addition to all this, our author shows that a council held in Dublin in 1176 acknowledged the sovereignty of England over the island, and that in 1213 Innocent III. warned the Irish to remain faithful to John of England, who had become his vassal.

THE STONE AGE OF GREAT BRITAIN.*

MR. EVANS has long been known as a most indefatigable worker in all that relates to the antiquities of Great Britain, and he has, in this work, given to the public the results of long and laborious examination of the specimens in his own and other large private and public collections of Europe. Being an ardent collector and a good artist, he furnishes not only accurate engravings of nearly five hundred different objects, but carefully prepared descriptions of those engraved, with many others of similar character found not only in Great Britain but in all parts of the world. So

* 'The Ancient Stone Implements, Weapons, and Ornaments of Great Britain. By John Evans, F.R.S., F.S.A., Honorary Secretary of the Geological and Numismatic Societies of London, etc., etc.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872. 8vo, pp. 640. 476 woodcuts and one plate of 20 figures.

full, indeed, is this comparison of allied forms, and so erudite is the author, that the work, though limited by title to a treatise on the stone implements of Great Britain, is in reality a most complete encyclopædia of information on the subject embodied in the works of the earliest writers down to those contemporaneous with our distinguished author, and here made doubly valuable by the large number of reference notes. The work is thus a most reliable guide to the student of archæology in this country, and one that must become the handbook of every worker in this field.

In a carefully prepared introductory chapter, Mr. Evans reviews the classifications that have been proposed for the different periods of prehistoric time during which man has existed, and, though adopting the terms of stone, bronze, and iron ages as the proper divisions of the period immediately preceding and running into the historic, now generally accepted under the term of Neolithic, he shows that such a classification must be taken with due consideration, and that, though the sequence from the stone age, through the bronze, to the iron age is unquestionably in the main correct, yet that sequence does not show itself as contemporaneous in all parts of Europe, and, consequently, we have not a perfect chronology when we adopt it as a whole, but only when we restrict it to any given district. This is perfectly well exhibited on our own continent even to-day, where we have, side by side, the stone age as existing in some tribes of Indians and the late iron age of civilization. Again, we find on this continent the remains of an early stone age, possibly before the neolithic period even, followed by a period corresponding to the bronze age of Europe (the Mound-builders, who were extensive workers in copper), which is again followed by a stone age (the prehistoric Indians), with no signs of a distinct bronze (copper) age, but jumping that age and running directly into the iron or early historic age, as exemplified by the Indians coming in contact with the first white explorers of the land. In this chapter Mr. Evans has fairly stated the case, and, with a full understanding of the subject, has divided his book into two great portions—the first embracing the whole of the neolithic period, consisting of the stone, bronze, and iron ages, and the second the palæolithic period, which he, for good reasons, divides into that of the river-drift and of the caves. That he has fully considered the contrasts exhibited in the execution of the implements of the different ages is evinced by the following summary quoted from page 49, chap. ii.:

"1. That in the Palæolithic, River-gravel, or Drift Period, implements were fashioned by chipping only, and not ground or polished. The material used in Europe was, moreover, as far as at present known, almost exclusively flint.

"2. That in the Reindeer or Cavern Period of Central France, though grinding was not practised, except for bone instruments, yet greater skill in flaking flint, and in working up flakes into serviceable tools, was exhibited. In some places, as at Laugeriehaute, surface-chipping is found on the flint arrow-heads. Cup-shaped recesses have been worked in other hard stones than flint, though no other stones have been used for cutting purposes.

"3. That in the Neolithic or Surface Stone Period of Western Europe other materials besides flint were largely used for the manufacture of hatchets; grinding at the edge and on the surface was generally practised; and the art of working flint by pressure from the edge was probably known. The stone axes, at least in Britain, were rarely perforated.

"4. That in the Bronze Period such stone implements, with the exception of mere flakes and scrapers, as remained in use, were, as a rule, highly finished, many of the axes being perforated and of graceful form, and some of the flint arrow-heads evincing the highest degree of manual skill."

In his second chapter Mr. Evans states the results of his enquiries and careful experiments as to the modes of working flint and the manufacture of various kinds of stone implements. That the Esquimaux should use a piece of deer's horn fixed to a handle as the most stubborn substance with which to work out their arrowheads of chert, after first roughly chipping them into shape with the stone hammer, will be a surprise to most readers of the book, as it is so generally believed that the whole process of making an arrowhead consisted in regulating a series of blows from a stone hammer; while, in fact, the head is finished by gently pressing off small fragments with the aid of the piece of deer's horn, thus securing the almost perfect symmetry and delicate finish which we so often admire in these implements.

With chapter iii. begins the description of the neolithic implements, each form of which is illustrated by the finest of woodcuts, with few exceptions of one-half the size of the originals, giving views of the face or broad surface, side, and section; a luxuriance in illustration which few American authors could afford to follow. Under the general term of "celts," four long chapters contain descriptions and figures of the various forms of cutting instruments comprised in a series starting with chipped flakes of the roughest and most simple make, and passing through the more perfect forms of chisels to the highly finished and polished hatchets and adzes. Many of these forms of cutting instruments were probably hand tools, but the discovery of several with bone sockets or with wooden handles is evidence that they were often mounted by their makers, in the ages long past, in a manner very similar to that still employed among uncivilized races. The similarity in form of the celts figured by Mr. Evans to those found in other parts of the world shows that like ends are attained by like means, and that the human mind has for the same purposes worked and developed in every country in the same direction, up to a certain stage. The great antiquity of these stone celts is well shown by the very prevalent belief in their supernatural origin and the superstition with which, to this day, they are regarded in all countries, of which Mr. Evans recounts many curious instances. Among the absurd but once prevailing notions of their origin is quoted that of Aldrovandus, who describes these stones as formed by "an admixture of a certain exhalation of thunder and lightning with metallic matter, chiefly in dark clouds, which is coagulated by the circumfused moisture and conglutinated into a mass (like flour with water), and subsequently indurated by heat, like a brick."

Chapter vii. treats of implements of an allied nature to the celts, but which, under the name of "picks, hand-chisels, and gouges," Mr. Evans considers sufficiently characteristic to be removed from his group of celts; though in America we have so many more varieties of these forms of implements, and among them are such perfect combinations of the adze and the gouge, that it would here be impossible to draw the line between the two forms, the extremes of which are well defined. The prevailing view in regard to the gouge-shaped implements having been designed for the purpose of hollowing out the trunks of trees for use as canoes, is also that of Mr. Evans, who, from the fact that gouges are rare in Britain, while very abundant in Denmark and Sweden (and, we may add, in North America), infers that the ancient inhabitants of these countries were more of a canoe-making race than those of Great Britain. Archæologists here, however, have generally considered fire to have been the principal agent in ancient canoe-making, and that, while these gouge-shaped stones may have been used to give the final scraping to the charred wood, yet probably they were more frequently used as skin-dressers, under which name they are generally classed, in common with the chipped instruments known as scrapers. This view is supported by the fact that the majority of the gouges were evidently hand instruments, and are generally made of too soft a stone for very effective work on hard wood.

We must pass over the next 260-odd pages devoted to the neolithic period, simply calling attention to the various forms of implements, utensils, and ornaments of which they treat. The finely-finished stone axes with perforations for the handle, the hammers made in a similar manner, and those with a groove around them for the attachment of the handle, like the common form found in this country, the interesting series of implements classed under the head of scrapers used for dressing the skins of animals and similar purposes, the splendid series of arrowheads and javelin points, the flint knives and saws, stone-drills, whetstones, mortars and pestles, cups of rude stone, amber and gold, amulets and ornaments, etc., etc., are all most beautifully figured. The dryness of the technical description is charmingly relieved by general remarks on their modes of use and the conditions under which they have been found, and by instructive comparisons with those of other regions. We cannot close our imperfect review of the neolithic period without allusion to the very important discovery of the nodule of iron pyrites and a round-ended flake of flint found in a barrow in Yorkshire. Mr. Evans has concluded from a careful study of these specimens, together with other evidence, that the iron pyrites must have been used in connection with the flint for the purpose of producing fire, and that we have, in these simple and natural means, at least one of the early modes of producing fire explained.

We now pass to the second division of the book, the Palæolithic period. Here the author, who is of the committee appointed by the British Association for the Advancement of Science to explore the famous Kent Cavern, has with the greatest care brought together the results which have been attained, and which prove the existence of man at a time when the cave lion, the hyena, the cave bear, grizzly bear, mammoth, woolly rhinoceros, the urus, the bison, the Irish elk, reindeer, and other animals now wholly unknown in Great Britain, and many of them extinct species, were the common animals of the region.

"What," asks Mr. Evans (p. 464), "do the presence and condition of these instruments denote"?

"The flint flakes occur in great numbers, and have mostly been used; the blocks from which they were struck are present; there are traces of fire on some of the bones; there are hammerstones, whetstones, weapons of the chase, and the needle of the housewife: all prove that during the accumulation of the cave-earth the cavern was, at all events from time to time, the habitation of man."

Again (p. 476), he says, in his concluding remarks on the cave period:

"Were no other evidence forthcoming, the results of an examination of these British caves would justify us in concluding that in this country man

coexisted with a number of the larger mammals now for the most part absolutely extinct, while others have long since disappeared from this portion of the globe. The association, under slightly differing circumstances, and in several distinct cases, of objects of human industry with the remains of this distinct fauna, in which so many of the animals characteristic of the existing fauna are 'conspicuous by their absence,' in undisturbed beds, and for the most part beneath a thick coating of stalagmite, leads of necessity to this conclusion. This becomes, if possible, more secure when the results of the exploration of other caves on the continent of Western Europe are taken into account. How long a period may have intervened between the extinction or migration of these animals and the present time is, of course, another question; but such changes in the animal world as had already taken place at least three thousand years ago, do not appear to occur either suddenly or even with great rapidity; and, leaving the stalagmite out of consideration, we have already seen that in some instances the physical configuration of the country in the immediate neighborhood of the caves seems to have been greatly changed since the period of their infilling."

The next 145 pages of the volume treat in a thorough manner of the implements of the river-drift period. As our author says, he proposes, "first, to give a slight sketch of the origin and nature of the discoveries which have been made in this particular field of archæology; then to furnish some details concerning the localities where implements have been found, and the nature of the containing beds; next, to offer a few remarks on the character and possible uses of the various forms of implements; and, finally, to consider the evidence of their antiquity"; and most admirably has this been done. Mr. Evans shows, in this part of his book, how carefully he has pursued the geological side of the subject, giving a most instructive résumé of the whole subject of the formation of the river-gravel beds. Though the high antiquity of man on the continent of Europe may be considered settled, from his having been found to be contemporaneous with a number of large animals, such as the fossil elephant and fossil rhinoceros, long since extinct, to fix the time in years with any degree of precision is impossible, and our author makes use of the following equation to represent it:

"The antiquity, then, that must be assigned to the implements in the highest beds of river-drift may be represented (1) by the period requisite for the excavation of the valleys to their present depth; plus (2) the period necessary for the dying out and immigration of a large part of the quaternary or post-glacial fauna and the coming in of the prehistoric; plus (3) the polished stone period; plus (4) the bronze, iron, and historic period, which three latter in this country occupy a space of probably not less than three thousand years."

On this head the following is Mr. Evans's impressive summary:

"On the whole, it would seem that for the present, at least, we must judge of the antiquity of these deposits rather from the general effect produced upon our minds by the vastness of the changes which have taken place, both in the external configuration of the country and its extent seaward, since the time of their formation, than by any actual admeasurement of years or of centuries. To realize the full meaning of these changes almost transcends the powers of the imagination. Who, for instance, standing on the edge of the lofty cliff at Bournemouth, and gazing over the wide expanse of waters between the present shore and a line connecting the Needles on the one hand and the Ballard Down Foreland on the other, can fully comprehend how immensely remote was the epoch when what is now that vast bay was high and dry land, and a long range of chalk downs, 600 feet above the sea, bounded the horizon on the south? And yet this must have been the sight that met the eyes of those primeval men who frequented the banks of that ancient river, which buried their handiworks in gravels that now cap the cliffs, and of the course of which so strange but indubitable a memorial subsists in what has now become the Solent Sea.

"Or, again, taking our stand on the high terraces at Ealing, or Acton, or Highbury, and looking over the broad valley four miles in width, with the river flowing through it at a depth of about 100 feet below its former bed, in which, beneath our feet, are relics of human art deposited at the same time as the gravels; which of us can picture to himself the lapse of time represented by the excavation of a valley on such a scale, by a river greater, perhaps, in volume than the Thames, but still draining only the same tract of country?

"But when we remember that the traditions of the mighty and historic city now extending across the valley do not carry us back even to the close of that period of many centuries when a bronze-using people occupied this island; when we bear in mind that beyond that period lies another of probably far longer duration, when our barbaric predecessors sometimes polished their stone implements, but were still unacquainted with the use of metallic tools; when to the historic, bronze, and neolithic ages we mentally add that long series of years which must have been required for the old fauna, with the mammoth and rhinoceros, and other, to us, strange and unaccustomed forms, to be supplanted by a group of animals more closely resembling those of the present day; and when, remembering all this, we realize the fact that all these vast periods of years have intervened since the completion of the excavation of the valley and the close of the Palæolithic period, the mind is almost lost in amazement at the vista of antiquity displayed.

"So fully must this be felt, that it is impossible not to sympathize with those who, from sheer inability to carry their vision so far back into the dim past, and from unconsciousness of the cogency of other and distinct evidence as to the remoteness of the origin of the human race, are unwilling to believe in so vast an antiquity for man as must of necessity be conceded by those who, however feebly they may make their thoughts known to others, have fully and fairly weighed the facts which modern discoveries have unrolled before their eyes."

RECENT NOVELS.*

ON the whole, we think that the novel reader should certainly rejoice at the appearance of translations of works of fiction which were written in foreign tongues, so long as the choice of books is discreetly made, and the rewriting them in English (for translation almost amounts to that) is done by competent persons. There is, of course, a large class who are for ever reading French novels, although, perhaps, with an eye to their newness rather than to their merits, while there are almost as many who vary the somewhat monotonous reading of German tragedies by taking up the almost equally monotonous German novels. But besides the difficulty of determining the moral worth of an unread novel, most of those written in French will be found rather hard reading by those who are not very familiar with the language, and while this is true of most, it will be found especially true of those which are written by Victor Cherbuliez. Of his merits as a writer mention has already been made in these pages, and it is of the novel, 'Joseph Noirel's Revenge,' which is the last he has written that we have to speak to-day. Before discussing the quality of the novel, there is something to be said about the merits of the translation, which bears too great marks of having been hastily done. At the best, reading a translation is like looking at a picture through tinted glass, but when the glass has flaws in it that might have been avoided by very slight attention, the reader is naturally impatient. One is resigned beforehand to the loss of the peculiar elegance of the French, and of the grace and facility with which Cherbuliez uses it; let one think how Thackeray, for example, would read in the French translation; but of the faults that need not have occurred we will mention a few. Had Cherbuliez written the novel in English, we should hardly have found "I guess I was," which is to be seen on page 50, nor, page 107, "If anybody should ever murder me, I think it would be splendid to have Royer blow up his billiard table"—perhaps, however, we should be grateful that "elegant" was not used. "Struggled some," page 63; "considerable of a fall," page 95; "I'm not through yet," page 48; and, most remarkable of all, "bottoms of my feet," page 199, are instances of gross carelessness, though on almost every page we miss anything like the smoothness of the original. As to the title, 'Joseph Noirel's Revenge,' in the French it is 'La Revanche de Joseph Noirel,' and to translate *revanche* by revenge is a bit of inaccuracy; the word means rather "turn" or "innings," although neither of these words lends itself to a smooth-sounding title. It should be mentioned, however, that those who take up this novel will not be tempted to seek refreshment for themselves on their way through it by parsing ungrammatical sentences. As a clever novel, as one that fixes and holds the reader's attention, it is certainly deserving of very great praise. It is, in a way, a model sensational story. Cherbuliez is always clever—clever, with great wit, a charming style, and a happy invention, and the reader is carried on to the end of his novels, puzzled about the issue of the story and fascinated by the author's wonderful dexterity. Poems in prose they are not; they are too much the best work of cleverness to be that; but Cherbuliez is by no means unmindful of the charm which ingenuity alone can never produce, and in every one of his books there are passages which imply something more than mechanical facility.

'Joseph Noirel's Revenge' tells us the story of a young girl, Marguerite, a charming person, the daughter of a rich Genevan *bourgeois*, with whom a handsome count, not middle-aged but no longer a youth, falls in love, and whom, to the delight of her ambitious parents, he marries. Joseph Noirel is a young workman employed by her father, who has held a vaguely defined position in regard to the family, he being half workman and half friend. Growing up in this intimacy with the family, he falls in love with Marguerite, while the obscurity of his origin and his own inferior social position prevent him from presuming to mention his love. Around the count's

* 'Joseph Noirel's Revenge. By Victor Cherbuliez. Translated from the French by Wm. F. West, A.M.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1872.
'Off the Skelligs. By Jean Ingelow.' Boston: Roberts Bros. 1872.
'The Harveys. By Henry Kingsley.' Berlin: A. Asher & Co. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.
'The Ordeal for Wives. By Mrs. Edwards.' New York: Sheldon & Co. 1872.
'The Doctor's Dilemma. By Hesba Stretton.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872.
'Liza. By I. S. Turgenef. Translated by W. R. S. Ralston.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1872.
'Drei Novellen von Iwan Turgénjew. Deutsch von W. A. Polowinoff.' Wien, Pest, Leipzig: A. Hartleben's Verlag. 1872.
'Bessie. By Julia Kavanagh.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872.
'Hills of the Shatemuc. By the Author of 'The Wide, Wide World.'' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.
'Kaloolah: Adventures of Jonathan Romer of Nantucket. By W. S. Mayo, M.D.' New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1872.
'Premiums Paid to Experience. By Edward Garrett, author of 'Occupations of a Retired Life,'' etc. New York: Dodd & Mead. 1872.

life there is a great mystery which his wife, not from curiosity, idle or busy, but from a wish to sympathize with him, tries to discover. But let no reader imagine for a moment that we are going to take the words out of Mr. Cherbuliez's mouth, and tell any more his carefully concocted story. Those who have read it do not need to have it repeated, and those who have not would not thank us. The curious reader cannot do better than take up the novel and solve the mystery for himself. We are sure that he will be interested, and that he will find it difficult to lay the book down before finishing it. Whether on his cooler second thought he will be so well pleased with the novel is another question; he will not deny its interest, but there will be left a feeling of sympathy for the people who are tormented in the story for his idle entertainment. But, on the other hand, its objectivity of treatment, its avoidance of the temptation to linger over morbid self-analysis and obscene psychological difficulties, save the book from being a dangerous one. It is nothing new to find in French novels a discussion of the state of mind of a man who is in love with another man's wife, but in few of the stories do we find such innocence as is here portrayed in Marguerite's character. If it were otherwise, the book should be tabooed; but as it is, one must be very prone to evil to be hurt by it. To some people, even 'Blue Beard,' which this novel resembles, must be an objectionable story.

A novel of as firmly settled moral tone as the Constitution of the United States is Miss Ingelow's 'Off the Skelligs.' In regard to literary merits, however, the palm must be given to the book we have just been discussing. Miss Ingelow puts the story into the mouth of a young girl, the heroine of placid love-affairs, which are much less interesting reading than the more exciting yacht voyages which she takes with her eccentric uncle and a brother, whose relation to the story is about that of a fifth wheel to a coach. She flirts with a young man named Valentine, who is a conceited rattle of a half-grown youth, while grimly flitting about in the background is the earnest man whom she marries after a series of misunderstandings. In construction, the novel is lame to a great degree. The story unwinds itself with depressing slowness; the love-making, even to those who do not care for elopements and feverish transports, seems as passionless as tea-parties. There is a fearful dulness throughout the whole book. Many pages are given up to records of the talks of the different characters, which are, for the most part, dreary enough to make one wish to turn Trappist.

Before laying aside the rod, we should like to mention Mr. Henry Kingsley's novel, 'The Harveys,' as a book to be shunned. The author outdoes all his previous failures in the way of jauntiness and ease of manner. A book that has so little that is good it is hard to criticise justly without seeming to be unwarrantably abusive, but in the way of affectation it would be hard to find anything that exceeds Mr. Henry Kingsley's later novels. This one is poorer than even 'Old Margaret,' of which mention was made a few months ago.

Those who remember Mrs. Edwards's very readable novels, 'Susan Fielding' and 'Ought we to Visit Her?' and are induced to buy 'The Ordeal for Wives' under the impression that it is, as it is advertised to be, a new novel of hers, should understand that it is not a new novel, but an old one, which is offered them. How fair it is to an author, who has no means of setting herself right, to take one of her earlier and less successful novels, which she would probably be glad to let remain in obscurity, and to put it before the public as a recent work, every one can judge for himself. This novel is far inferior to Mrs. Edwards's later stories, and bears much stronger resemblance to the sensational novels of Mrs. Rhoda Broughton than to any better models. But there is besides much of the humor, of the keen observation that make the later writings of our author so very readable. The sentimental reader will find no lack of that important quality, but it is only too evidently the work of an immature hand.

'The Doctor's Dilemma' is the title of a new novel by Miss Hesba Stretton. The question which disturbed the doctor was whether or not he should poison one of his patients. The temptation was strong; the sick man was a low-lived character who made himself very odious to the doctor, and, furthermore, he was the husband of a charming young woman with whom the doctor was in love; so that the patient's chance seemed to be a bad one, especially since he could have been put out of the way, not by having poison mixed with his pills, but by the doctor's abstaining from putting him under a new treatment, which is always successful in novels. Virtue wins the day, but still the patient is not immortal; in due time, illnesses, for which no cure has been discovered, seize him, and he dies, leaving his wife and the doctor to marry with clean consciences. The story needs no praise nor blame; it is simply one of a thousand which kill the idle hour, though sometimes by a lingering death.

Of a very different kind is Turgenef's 'Liza,' which is the last of Messrs. Holt & Williams's admirably chosen 'Leisure Hour Series.' A French translation, with the title 'Une Nichée de Gentilshommes,' has been before the public for about ten years, but this English version has been made, and with much more literalness. It can be recommended without reserve to those who are anxious to read a novel that differs as much from the ordinary kind—for example, from 'The Doctor's Dilemma'—as Keats's 'Ode to a Nightingale' differs from a chapter of ornithology. Of those which have already appeared, 'Fathers and Sons,' in spite of its very great interest, contained so much that needed for its entire comprehension a tolerable knowledge of Russian life and recent history, many of the problems it introduced were so different from anything familiar to the experience of most novel-readers in this country, that the impression it made could never be so complete as that which the original must have made upon those for whom it was properly written. In 'Smoke,' too, much of the long-drawn-out conversation in which Turgenef, with a sort of Dickens-like exaggeration, ridicules the foibles of his fellow-countrymen, has wearied many readers to whom the state of society that it caricatured was something unknown; and then, notwithstanding all that women-writers have done in the way of accustoming the public to high-seasoned food, there was something distasteful in the subject to many who did not stop to see how it was treated, as well as to many others who did. To 'Liza,' however, these objections do not apply; it is simply a beautiful story, in which no one need fear to find a dull or offensive page. The heroine, whose name in the English translation, with the author's permission, gives the title to the story, is a young girl of a serious, religious nature. If Turgenef knows how to describe perplexing, fascinating, evil-minded women like Irene in 'Smoke,' he understands just as well how to draw pure and lovely women like Marie in 'The Correspondence,' or Helen in 'On the Eve,' or the heroine of this novel. He represents her receiving the attentions of a young man, Panshine, who is an intelligent, cold-blooded, self-esteeming man whose only real ambition is political success, but who is in love with Liza. Soon there appears Fedor Lavretsky, a married man, who is separated from his wife on account of her infidelity. She was a frivolous, heartless woman whom he had married when an inexperienced youth, and who afterwards went entirely to the bad. Just as he becomes interested in Liza, he receives the news of his wife's death, he declares his love to her, she confesses her own, after a moment of happiness their dream of greater bliss is broken by the return of the wife, the report of her death having been false. Liza goes to a convent, he to his own work. Although we crowd the story into these few lines, there is vastly more in it than so brief an analysis shows. Nothing could be more delicately told than Liza's readiness, in the first place, to marry Panshine, simply because she is in a certain way pleased by his various accomplishments, and by so doing she could gratify her mother; then, when Lavretsky's influence teaches her how much more serious is that passion of which she had previously been ignorant; and, finally, when marriage with him is impossible, the dignity with which she resigns herself to her sad fate, the loftiness of mind with which she treats Lavretsky, whose whole action is controlled by her, is all set before us, or rather we see it all going on, as only clear eyes see the tragedies of life, and as only poets narrate them. A story of this sort should be read more than once before its full charm can be felt, there is so much untold, so much suggested, that its interest is never exhausted. There is, for instance, the story of Lemm, the old music-teacher, with his impossible love, which he knows to be impossible, and his futile, ardent longing for musical success, making a touching episode which only seems the more impressive the more it is thought over. Then, with regard to the whole novel, in spite of its sadness, there is no impotent outburst against the sternness of fate, any more than there is a dexterous riddance of all difficulties through some unexpected back-door; the people have their troubles, they suffer, they bow to their fate, and time brings what consolation it can.

A German translation of three shorter tales of Turgenef's has just appeared. They are 'The King Lear of the Steppe,' which was recently published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*; 'Der Fatalist'; and 'Der Oberst,' which many will remember as 'Le Brigadier' in the 'Nouvelles Moscovites.' This last is an exceedingly interesting story—one of the best that the author has written. The 'Lear of the Steppe' is, to our thinking at least, one of much less interest. 'Der Fatalist,' which is the only one that will be absolutely new to most of our readers, is the story, told by an old officer of a friend of his youth some forty years ago, of a man who, feeling his insignificance in the world, and yielding to the intellectual fashion of that day in Russia, and mistaking some ordinary occurrences, which are afterwards satisfactorily explained, for supernatural tokens, takes his own life. It is a study of a morbid, half-mad character, like many of this writer's shorter tales, and so the sketch, in spite of the skill with which the grimness of the events is told, is far from being one of general interest. Still, no admirer of Turgenef will be satisfied until he has read it. In comparison with this and with the

'Lear of the Steppe,' we praise the more warmly 'Der Oberst,' in either the German or French translation.

For those who wish a swift transition to the monotony of everyday life, there is Miss Kavanagh's 'Bessie,' by the side of which any dull routine would be interesting and almost poetical. Miss Kavanagh has told us so many readable, if over-sentimental, tales, that one sees with regret her endeavor, in this novel, to represent greater complications than intricate flirtations can bring about. It is a story with a mysterious close, but when this is found out, it seems but a ridiculous mouse which has caused all the trouble. Still, the story reeks with love-making of different kinds, though all the people, in spite of their resemblance to Greek gods who bite their nether lips, and of the way the young women flirt desperately without seeming to be aware of it, are vague and misty creations.

Quite as remarkable as would be the appearance of a stage-coach to take travellers from this city to Boston, or a fine sailing packet to ply between here and Albany, is the reappearance of 'The Hills of the Shatemuc,' which we thought had as irretrievably disappeared from human knowledge as the Mountains of the Moon have from the map of Africa. But the book appears again, with its long talks between the man who will take no more pie and the woman who tempts him to overeat himself, or whatever the rustic imitations of a plot may be, as if novels were rare in the market. One cannot help wondering who they are who read these novels nowadays.

Twenty years ago and more, 'Kaloolah' was the delight of many young readers, and puzzled some of the older ones to decide whether it was in greater part fact or fiction. Dr. Mayo says in his preface that it would, if his notes upon the story had been printed in connection with it, have incurred the danger of being "taken by the public as mere authority on certain questions in geography, ethnography, natural history, and mechanics." A second reading of 'Kaloolah,' after the interval referred to, does not, we find, renew the pleasure of our youth, nor raise a doubt that we have been guilty of novel-reading, nor add greatly to our previous stock of knowledge about ethnography or mechanics. In a word, the story is violently improbable, and quite unworthy of resurrection at this late day.

Mr. Garrett tells us in his prologue that "life is like a roll of costly material passing swiftly through our hands, and we must embroider our pattern on it as it goes," and his book is written throughout in the serious Anglo-Saxon spirit which Mr. Taine assures us forms, rather than our creed, the basis of Englishmen's best doings in the world. 'Wheat and Tares,' 'The Crackling of Thorns,' 'A Well without Water,' 'A Sin of Omission,' 'An Israelite Indeed,' are some of the titles of chapters in which the author describes certain experiences of his life, reflecting that "if you buy a bit of wisdom at any price, it is a good bargain." He tells stories of his early companions, of their struggles in business and disappointments in love. He interests us "in a problem that vexed me sadly for many, many years"—the mystery of the "Providence that rules the world," as exemplified in its dealings with Messrs. Knight, Archer, and Henry Cromer, "the second son of the chief corn and grain merchant of Middleboro, Shropshire." He criticises his own early experiences under the derogatory title of the 'Wisdom of Fools.' Each chapter is a story, and we gather from the book a quite vivid impression of certain phases of life among the middle classes of English Dissenters, especially of lives of which privation, and suffering, and religious principle are the leading features. In the last chapter, he severely describes "one of those light natures with whom feeling follows the semblance," who "said what ought to be said and meant it afterwards." Mr. Garrett maintains throughout the story such a uniform superiority to his gay young friend, and lectures him so solemnly when he comes to grief, as he deserves, that we find our sympathies forcibly transferred to the wrong side—an accident which will hardly overtake the solid British Dissenter, who, after all, will be, we presume, the person mainly edified by these narratives.

The City of God and the Church-makers. An Examination into Structural Christianity, and Criticism of Christian Scribes and Doctors of the Law. By R. Abbey. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1872.)—Mr. Abbey's theological method is above all things simple, but that its simplicity is identical with that which is said to be an essential element of greatness may safely be doubted. His conception of an exhaustive treatment of the rather large question which he proposed to himself to discuss is like this: he has discovered in the course of a long life and a good deal of not overdiscriminating theological study, that the "Church of God" is seriously hampered, not to say on the very verge of being crushed out of existence, by twenty-four fundamental errors. These he states as briefly as possible, and among them are such as these: That Jesus Christ instituted a new church; that the law was abrogated by the Gospel; that the Jews offered true sacrifices; that the Jews crucified Jesus Christ; that the Jews were lineally descended from Abraham; that Jesus Christ "established new sacraments," etc. To these twenty-four errors, Mr. Abbey very peremptorily opposes twenty-four contradictory truths, which he does not propose to argue at all, because he thinks them self-evident, and that immediately on their assertion they will "probably be held incontrovertible." His next step is to summon into court "two hundred authors" in order to prove that the erroneous notions in question are, preposterous as it seems, actually believed and taught by Christian writers. Thus, the "Rev. E. P. Murphy, D.D., of Kentucky," is openly convicted of having taught in that department of "the church" that "two methods of salvation have at different times been proposed to mankind"; and having shown up the unfortunate Murphy, who doubtless never considered himself as an entirely authoritative teacher, Mr. Abbey goes on to say, with a fine irony, that this sort of thing "passes in Christian lands and among Bible readers for theology." Dr. Stuart, of Andover, fares no better, and his remark, that our Lord "proposed to teach a new religion," is met by Mr. Abbey with the retort: "The only new religion known in those days, that I know of, was the new faith set up by the rejecting Jews, in opposition to the Saviour." Even "Milligan, Carrol & Co., of Cincinnati," who published at some time or other an apparently anonymous "philosophical treatise" in which it was taught that Christianity was introduced into the world by Jesus Christ, do not escape the searching eye of Mr. Abbey, which sees all that is insignificant, and apparently sees nothing else. He arraigns "a tract published in 1860 by the Rev. Messrs. Boyce and Quintard—now Bishop Quintard"; "An American Sunday-school Book"; Hannah More; "The Methodist Catechism," and other weighty authorities, and from each of them he quotes a line or two in support of one or other of the "twenty-four errors," and then proceeds to demolish them by opposing a line or two of his own, equally weighty, equally convincing, in the way of flat denial or contemptuous comment. It is astounding, he thinks, that "the Church" has borne up so long under such misrepresentations of its true character, and he is happy in the thought that he has lived long enough to clear away so much encumbering rubbish. His notion of a general clearance is suggestive of an idea broached by a student in one of our colleges on the subject of making decently habitable one of his two rooms. The true theory of housekeeping, he submitted, was always to have two rooms, "one of them to throw the rubbish in." We shall not say on which side of the house, the new or old, a convert to Mr. Abbey's views would find the most litter; but we advise all readers who have a great deal more time than they know what to do with, and all who having more time than they know what to do with are entirely indifferent whether they spend it profitably or with complete unprofitableness, and all who being in this above-mentioned condition are careless whether or not the unprofitable employment amuses them, or on the other hand makes them low-spirited and dismally dull, to hasten and purchase "The City of God," and give it a careful perusal.

Major Jones's Courtship: Detailed, with other scenes, incidents, and adventures, in a series of letters by himself. Revised and enlarged. To which are added, Thirteen humorous sketches. With illustrations by Cary. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872. 12mo.)—Twenty-eight years ago Mr. W. T. Thompson wrote the history of the courtship of Major Jones, "to give variety and local interest to the columns of a Georgia country newspaper," by portraying "Southern rustic life and character, with no more of exaggeration than was necessary to give distinctiveness to the picture." The author's very modest preface informs us that in the present edition "puerilities have been eliminated, needed amplifications have been supplied, and many verbal and orthographic changes, not inconsistent with the general character of the thing, have been made."

Major Joseph Jones was a Georgia "cracker" who lived about the year 1842, in Pineville, Georgia, was a major of militia, fond of the manly arts of coon-hunting, candy-pulling, and courting, in the habit of saying "sense" for *since*, "monstrous" for *very* or *extremely*, "yeath" for *earth*, "pore" for *poor*, and in many other ways exhibiting the peculiarities of the Georgia "mean white"—as in his contempt for "niggers," his love of country, and pride in the good old State of Georgia. For this at least we take Mr. Thompson's word, for, according to our own experience, Major Jones, though having many other dialectic peculiarities of the "cracker" tribe in Georgia, is morally above the level which we should have drawn as typical. There is a trifle too much romance, perhaps, about his relations with Miss Mary Stallins for cracker life, and indeed it may be doubted after all whether Mr. Thompson, when he uses the term "rustic life," is not more correct than when he selects the other epithet. Major Jones is certainly ignorant and vulgar, but he has not the degradation of the true mean white. We speak with hesitation on the subject, for apparently Mr. Thompson knows the field thoroughly; and the field has doubtless

changed a good deal since the picture of it was drawn; but is there not a good deal of the small Georgia farmer of the upper counties in Major Jones's character, and would the refined Miss Stallins have married a real mean white? Besides this, is there not a good deal too much of Mr. Thompson himself in this Major?

The book gives, as we believe, a very fair picture of the condition of society in the Southern interior among the poorer classes, at the period when railroads were a new thing; when service in the militia was still regarded as a matter of pride; when the memories of the Revolution and the men who took part in it had not wholly faded away; when abolitionists were regarded in the South much as the early Christians, in the second or third centuries, were by the contented worshippers of Jupiter; when the "North" was an unknown country, reputed to contain many wealthy but also dishonest and cowardly people. It was a society which read, wrote, and spelt with great difficulty, but was very contented with its own ignorance, and indeed not sufficiently familiar with other forms of society to know how ignorant it was. The description of the life led by Major Jones and his friends can hardly be called interesting reading; but it has some value, or will one of these days, as the records of extinct life always have, particularly when they are left behind by those who cannot be suspected of unfairness. The "thirteen humorous sketches" are very much like "Major Jones's Courtship"; they consist of such stories as in all frontier and half-civilized countries are told to amuse the audience which gathers round the fire after the day's drudgery or idleness is over; which is very willing to be amused, and not critical as to the means. The humor is of that broad kind which finds more delight in practical jokes, the accidents occasioned by drunkenness, "scares" in church-yards, and repartees of the *tu quoque* kind, than in the appreciation of those very remote resemblances and recondite analogies of which the best authorities assure us true wit, or true humor, we forget which it is, consists. We must not forget to add that the main story will enjoy a sort of immortality, as one of the sources of Mr. John Russell Bartlett's "Dictionary of Americanisms."

Latin School Series. Selections from Classic Authors, Phædrus, Justin, Nepos. With notes and a vocabulary, by Francis Gardner, Head Master; A. M. Gay and A. H. Buck, Masters, in the Boston Latin School. (Boston: Lee & Shepard, Publishers. 1873. 12mo, pp. 281.)—It is a good sign for the interests of classical learning that even the Boston Latin School has yielded to the demand for a more generous method, and has undertaken to substitute the study of the ancient writers themselves for some part of that exclusive grammatical dish which used to characterize it. This volume of the 'Latin School Series' proposes as a definite aim to enable the pupil "to read a Latin author with a facility which the methods hitherto pursued of studying the language have rendered impossible"—of providing "such selections as shall contribute to the most rapid and pleasant advancement of the pupil." It is very hard to make such selections in Latin—much harder than in Greek, to find passages which shall be at once easy, interesting, and in a good style; and it illustrates the difficulty that not one of these three authors can be pronounced unequivocally classical, nor, for the matter of that, either easy or really interesting. Yet these passages will perhaps do as well as any that could be found, and at all events will afford a variety from the everlasting repetition of the same books of Cæsar, and same orations of Cicero, which is one of the greatest disadvantages of our classical courses. The notes are prepared with care and accuracy, and show at every step the hand of an experienced teacher. The vocabulary is equally good; clear, compact, and giving just such information as the boy needs. The etymology is particularly good.

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Schulte (Prof. J. F. von), Ueber Kirchenstrafen, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Snider (D. J.), Clarence; a Drama, swd	(E. F. Hobart & Co.)	
Snow (Mrs. S. P.) and Floy (H.), Christmas Stories about Santa Claus	(Nelson & Phillips)	
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Part X., swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	$0 50
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Stricker (Dr. W.), Der Blitz und seine Wirkungen, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

January 13, 1873.

THE money market is slowly returning to a more satisfactory condition, although, by holding off from accepting the legal rate, lenders have been able to obtain small commissions (compared with those of last week), varying from 1-64 to 1-16 in addition to 7 per cent. per annum. As a rule, borrowers have had no difficulty in supplying their wants at 1-64 to 1-32 and interest, and, on some days, at 7 per cent. gold per annum. By the 20th of the present month a steady 7 per cent. market may be reasonably expected. The last of the "relief money," amounting to $1,345,846, was called for by the Treasury from the national banks on January 4. The total amount deposited in the banks in October was $6,023,387, which, together with the proceeds of the weekly gold sales, amounting to $11,242,486, making a total of $17,265,873, has been withdrawn by the Treasury from the banks of this city since Nov. 1. The amount paid out by the Treasury in the same time for 5-20's purchased was $5,529,212, making a net loss to the banks of $11,736,611.

In commercial paper, business has been more active, and, in view of the near approach of easy money, there has been a greater disposition to buy, and the tendency of the market is towards lower rates. The paper of some of the large railroad corporations has lately been in the market, and has found ready sale, among which we may mention that of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company and the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. 9 to 12 per cent. is the range of rates for good names.

The Governor, in his recent message to the Legislature, has taken strong ground in favor of the repeal of the usury law, and bills have been introduced for its abolition. We hope to see the matter pressed to a favorable result, and New York placed in as advanced a state of civilization, in this respect, as some of her sister States.

The bank statement for the week ending January 11 is favorable. The gain in reserve is in specie only, and is due to the disbursements of January interest on the public debt. The receipts of currency from the country so far have been in national bank notes, which are not available to the banks, and go to swell their liabilities in the shape of deposits. The banks now hold $4,690,025 in excess of the 25 per cent. reserve required. The excess for the week ending January 4 was $2,788,025, and the banks have consequently gained $1,902,000 in their net reserve, as shown by the following statement of averages, compared to that of the previous week ending Jan. 4:

	Jan. 4.	Jan. 11.	Differences.
Loans	$277,720,900	$275,552,800	Dec. $2,168,100
Specie	19,478,100	22,539,100	Inc. 3,061,000
Circulation	27,613,800	27,461,600	Dec. 152,200
Deposits	203,808,100	207,441,500	Inc. 3,633,400
Legal tenders	41,165,400	40,876,700	Dec. 288,700

The following analysis of the above statement shows the relation of the total liabilities and the total reserve:

	Jan. 4.	Jan. 11.	Differences.
Specie	$19,478,100	$22,539,100	Inc. $3,061,000
Legal tenders	41,165,400	40,876,700	Dec. 288,700
Total reserve	$60,643,500	$63,415,800	Inc. $2,772,300
Circulation	$27,613 800	$27,461,600	Dec. $152 200
Deposits	203,808,100	207,441,500	Inc. 3,633,400
Total liabilities	$231,421,900	$234,903,100	Inc. $3,481,200
25 per cent. reserve	57.855.475	58,725,775	
Excess over legal reserve	2,788,025	4,690,025	Inc. 1,902,000

Advices from London have been favorable. The Bank of England, on Thursday, reduced its rate of discount from 5 to 4½ per cent., while outside of the Bank the rate for money is 3½ per cent.

If we except two or three of the leading speculative stocks, the week at the Stock Exchange has been dull, and free from any interesting features. Pacific Mail has made a further decline, and sold on Thursday at 70. The speculation in the stock of the Western Union Telegraph Company carried the price up to 84 on Saturday, from 78⅞, the price at the commencement of the week. The revelations in the Crédit Mobilier investigation frightened the holders of the stock of the Union Pacific Railroad Company, and their efforts to sell have caused a decline in the price from 39¼, the quotation on Monday, to 35½ on Friday, from which point only a slight reaction has taken place, the stock closing on Saturday at 36¼.

The leading feature of the week has been New York Central and Hudson, which advanced to 104 on Friday. A great many reports and rumors have been afloat regarding the earnings of the road and the large future dividends to be paid. One report places the gross earnings for the year 1872 as high as $30,000,000, and for the month of December $2,700,000. As Commodore Vanderbilt never publishes the earnings of his roads until it suits his convenience, there is no way of ascertaining the truth of the matter. There has been some uncertainty whether the money to be provided for increasing the capacity of the road, by laying two new tracks, would be raised by a division of new stock among the stockholders at a low price, or by the issue of bonds, which the directors recently authorized, amounting to $40,000,000. At a special meeting, held on Saturday, at the Commodore's office, the directors altered the form of the mortgage, and provided that one-fourth of the amount shall be in sterling bonds, £2,000,000, bearing 6 per cent. interest; the remainder, $30,000,000, to be currency bonds, bearing 7 per cent. interest. Whether the whole, or any part of them, will be issued remains to be seen; but the action of the directors at the special meeting rather discourages the recent expectation of the stockholders that, in making the proposed improvements, they would share in any division of new stock.

The general market has been heavy, with a falling off in prices. The stock of the Michigan Central Railroad Company has declined to 104—a decline of about 7 per cent. for the week, and has been caused by the disappointment of the stockholders in having to accept 4 per cent. stock in lieu of the usual 5 per cent. cash dividend, which set some of them to selling out. The following statement, taken from the *Daily Bulletin* of January 10, shows the number of shares of the leading stocks sold at the Stock Exchange during the year 1872, with the par amount of capital stock of each issue:

	First 6 months. Shares sold.	Second 6 months. Shares sold.	Year. Shares sold.	Capital stock.
N. Y. Cen. and H. R.	1,620,600	1.366,400	2,987,000	$89,428,330
Erie, com.	3,487,700	2,968,000	6,4 5,700	78,000,000
Lake S. and Mich. S.	2,084,500	2,041,300	4,125,800	49,000,000
C. and Pitts.	93,400	6 000	99,400	11,250,854
O. and Miss., com.	3,177,700	1,428 000	4 615,700	19,995,847
C. and N. West., com.	3,246,100	2,339,000	5,585,100	15.033,480
" pref.	105.100	81,000	186,100	21,289,563
Chicago, Rock Is., etc.	1,191,700	1,028,700	2,220,400	19,000,000
Pitts., Fort W., etc.	5,800	4,300	10,100	21.114,285
Mil. and St. P., com.	304,000	200.600	504.600	14.398,500
" pref.	156,100	43 300	199,400	10,825,719
Tol. and Wab., com.	197 300	418,200	615,500	15.000,000
Han. and St. Jo., com.	205,200	69,400	274,600	9 167,700
" pref.	20.800	24,400	45 200	5.087,224
Harlem, com.	110.300	42,300	152,600	7,500,000
Del., Lac. and West.	128,400	107,000	235,400	18,858,850
New Jersey	27,200	20,710	47,900	7,295,200
Pacific Mail	4,363,200	6,603,800	10,967,000	20,000,000
West. Union Tel.	2,515,900	3,387,900	5,903,800	29,000,000
Quicksilver, com.	208,300	66,700	275,000	5,700,000
Union Pacific	3,797,700	1,69 ,300	5,489,000	36,745,000
Adams Express	17,000	18,400	35,400	10,000,000
A. and Mer. U. Ex.	26,400	16,400	42,800	18,600 000
United States Express	109 300	34.100	143.400	6,000,000
Wells, F. & Co. Express	17,400	9,000	26,400	5.000 000
Col., Ch. and Ind. C.	1,665,200	1,087 700	2.752,900	13,000 000
Bost., Hart. and Erie	1,002,500	267,600	1,270,100	24.183,960
Total amount of stock, par value				$578,871,512

The amount of 5-20's offered to the Treasury on Wednesday amounted to only $71,500, at prices ranging from 111 74 to 112 50. The amount purchased was $21,100, at 111 74. The demand from investors and shippers has developed a great scarcity of bonds, and a consequent advance in prices of all the different issues has taken place, amounting to from 1 to 1½ per cent. on the more recent issues of the 5-20's and on the 6 per cents. due in 1881. The foreign bankers report their inability to fill their orders, owing to the scarcity of bonds in this market. Three years ago there would have been less difficulty in purchasing $1,000,000 Government bonds in the open market than is now experienced in purchasing $100,000. The ready market which Government securities always have causes them to be a favorite investment with savings-banks and other moneyed corporations which are liable, through losses, to be suddenly called upon for large sums. The amounts held by such institutions, together with the bonds deposited in Washington by the national banks as security for their circulating notes, and the very large amounts owned abroad, leave but a small supply floating in this market, which is being gradually absorbed by the Treasury in its weekly bond purchases.

The transactions in State bonds have been light, the largest dealings having been in Missouri sixes, which, on account of their comparatively low price, 92¾, have held out better inducements to investors than any other State bonds upon which interest is regularly paid. A committee of the Virginia State Senate is to confer with the representatives of the bondholders on Feb. 3 next, and try to arrange some terms of settlement for the payment of the interest due Jan. 1, which payment was suspended by law.

A well-distributed business has been done in railroad bonds, those of the Union Pacific Railroad, as well as the stock, having been unfavorably affected by the developments of the Crédit Mobilier investigation, especially the Income bonds, which declined from 83¾, the opening price of the week, to 75½ on Saturday. The first mortgage bonds and the Land Grants also fell off, but the decline in these was not so marked as in the Income bonds. A good deal of speculation has been going on in the first mortgage bonds of the Boston, Hartford, and Erie Railroad Company, but the price of last week has not been maintained, the closing sales of this week being 43¾.

In consequence of gold shipments during the week, the general feeling in the gold market was one of strength. The export of specie for the past week was $2,695,233. The total shipments since January 1, 1873, have been $3,527,153, against $572,827 shipped during the same time in 1872, $977,997 in 1871, and $715,893 in 1870.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 23, 1873.

The Week.

THE Finance Committee of the Senate has reported, by a majority of five to two, against the extraordinary claim of Messrs. Boutwell and Richardson to issue paper-money to the amount of $44,000,000, in their own discretion, for the purpose of "moving the crops" and otherwise assisting the community. The majority report makes several propositions which can hardly be shaken—(1) that the provision of the Act of June 20, 1864, (which was a Loan act), that the total amount of United States notes issued, or to be issued, should not exceed $400,000,000, and such additional sum not exceeding $50,000,000 as might be temporarily required for the redemption of temporary loans, "was not only a limitation upon previous acts authorizing issues of paper money, but a declaration of public policy and a pledge of the public faith to the national creditors that their securities should not ever thereafter be impaired by an increase in legal-tender notes"; (2) that the object of the financial measures which were adopted after the close of the war, under the Administration of Mr. McCulloch, was the still further "limitation and reduction of the volume of the legal-tender notes"; that the Act of 1866, under which this controversy has arisen, forbids by implication the reissue of notes ordered and authorized to be "retired and cancelled"; that the plain intent of the act was to "reduce and contract the currency"; "that any other interpretation would have enabled the Secretary to defeat or evade the whole act, even its funding provisions, and to increase the public debt"; (3) "that the intent and legal effect of all these acts, when fairly construed, was to reduce the maximum of legal-tender notes to $356,000,000"; (4) that "to overthrow this construction, and establish the authority of the Secretary of the Treasury to reissue $44,000,000 at his discretion, would require some clear and unequivocal expression of the legislative will"; (5) that the two decisions of the Supreme Court which Mr. Boutwell cited in his letter to the House Committee "have no bearing on the case before us."

The Committee draw attention also to the patent fact that the power claimed would enable the Secretary of the Treasury on his own motion to alter the value of all commodities, and impair the obligation of all contracts to the extent of at least ten per centum, and deny it to him, not only on a fair construction of the law, but on grounds of public policy, in very emphatic language. If the Senate adopts the resolution reported by the Committee, as we trust it will, it of course will relieve us from all danger of this particular species of expansion. But if politics were in a healthy condition in Washington, it would also lead to the resignation of both Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson. To be charged officially, as these gentlemen have now been, with disregarding "the plain intent of a statute"; with increasing the public debt without authority of law; with sheltering themselves in a matter of money under legal decisions which "had no bearing on the case" before them; with the assumption of a power to disturb the existing value of property and the obligation of contracts to the extent of ten per cent., is, or ought to be, to men in their position a serious matter. To be sure there has been no great harm done by the claim, but it revealed a state of mind on the part of those gentlemen which shows inaptness for their place. If any trustee displayed such extraordinary notions of duty and expediency, notions so dangerous, so wild, and so much opposed to the ordinary theory and practice of prudent business men, no *cestui que trust* of mature age would want to leave property in his hands. Mr. Boutwell's translation to the Senate, if that should happen, will relieve the country of all embarrassment as to him, but Mr. Richardson is talked of as his successor. It will be interesting to see whether his appointment will now be ventured upon.

The Boutwell-Richardson performance, by illustrating the dangers to which we are constantly exposed as long as we use inconvertible paper as money, is apparently likely to rouse us into renewed efforts after specie payments. Mr. Sherman, the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Finance, has reported a bill from the Committee on Finance, which provides that the Assistant Treasurer in New York shall, after January 1, 1874, either redeem in gold, or exchange for five per cent. ten-year bonds, at his option, all United States notes presented to him in sums of $1,000, or multiples of $1,000; repeals limitation on aggregate circulation of national banks; secures circulation of such banks by deposit of United States bonds; relieves those banks from present obligation as to specie or legal-tender reserves, which, after Jan. 1, 1874, redeem their bills in coin or legal-tender notes. There is no probability of its passing, so there is little use in discussing it.

Some bankers have been examined by the Committee of Ways and Means touching the Syndicate operations, the most prominent being Mr. Butler Duncan and Mr. L. P. Morton of this city. Mr. Duncan's testimony or opinion on the whole bore pretty hard on Mr. Boutwell, who sat by. Mr. Duncan considers the Syndicate "an entire mistake." He saw no reason why the Treasury should not have continued the operations in the open market under which it disposed of the first $65,000,000, as there was no pressing necessity for its making a new loan at all at that moment. Offering the five per cent. bonds in the manner resorted to had a tendency to change the United States bonds, which are now a permanent investment in the hands of small holders all the world over, and therefore not likely to be seriously affected in value by commercial or political crises, into a speculative security held by great bankers and operators, and therefore likely to be thrown on the market in great quantities in moments of panic; for this reason, the conversion as made, or as attempted to be made, was not a benefit to the old bondholders, and was likely to prove injurious in the long run to the credit of the United States. He thought the placing of the loan on the London market was the result of a "vigorous, ingenious, and able stock operation"—that is, great activity in exciting "an unnatural demand," and thus getting rid of the loan under cover of this rather than on its merits. He put down the expense of the new loan at 1¼ per cent., and agreed with Mr. Boutwell in thinking the three months' interest on the old bonds an inevitable loss under any circumstances.

Mr. Morton thought the Syndicate arrangement the best that could have been made at the time, and fortified this opinion by the assertion that at no time since could the new bonds have been got rid of by the persons holding them without loss, which seems to confirm Mr. Duncan's statement as to the unnaturalness of the demand. Mr. Morton also recommended the disposal of the remainder of the loan in the same manner. Mr. Maynard of Tennessee examined Mr. Duncan as to the par of exchange, a point which troubles him exceedingly, but which we trust is gradually growing clearer to him. Mr. Duncan explained that the pound sterling was worth $4 44, plus 9½ per cent., or $4 86·65, and we recommend Mr. Maynard to grapple this fact firmly, and not let it go under any new wind of doctrine. Mr. Duncan also made some unpleasant observations, to the effect that the new loan was affected injuriously in foreign markets by the taking away of the United States banking business just about that time from the Barings, and giving it to two new and comparatively little known houses. One of them is, however, a banker simply, while the other is a New York politician.

The House Committee on Post-offices have reported a bill reducing the rate of letter postage to two cents for every half-ounce, but it appears that it is only regarded as an experiment which, if found unsatisfactory, may be abandoned in two years. The Committee also propose to recommend the compulsory prepayment of the postage on newspapers, owing to the enormous losses sustained by the Post-office in this branch of its business, through the failure of persons to whom printed matter is addressed to pay the postage, and the failure of the postmaster to account for such postage as is paid. The Committee estimate that the newspapers now transmitted through the mail ought to pay $2,292,307, whereas they only pay $984,940; in other words, the Government loses over a million. We know of no good reason why the stamp system should not be applied to newspapers in some form, and thus ensure payment, and save an enormous amount of account-keeping or attempts at account-keeping, besides fraud and defalcation. But if there exists any demand for the reduction of the letter postage, we have thus far failed to hear of it. We hear a great deal of complaint about the franking privilege, and we hear still more of the inefficiency of the Post-office, but we never hear any complaints about the dearness of the postage. We venture to assert, moreover, that what the country wants is not cheaper transmission but surer and quicker transmission of letters, especially in the large cities. The way in which this is done in the thickly peopled States of the East is generally admitted to be a disgrace to the nation, and we believe nine persons out of ten would approve of an addition of one cent to the postage, if it ensured us better carriage. On this point, however, it is impossible to get a hearing from Congressmen. When you speak to them of the abolition of the franking privilege, they gaze steadily at the sky, or are astonished by the odd behavior of a dog in an adjacent field; and when you propose to them the appointment of clerks and letter-carriers and postmasters for merit and during good behavior, they ask you savagely what is to become of the one-armed soldiers, and the soldiers' widows, and the sailors' orphans, and the loyal "workers"; and you then learn that the Post-office is not, as you supposed, a machine for facilitating the intercourse of members of the community, but a kind of hospital for the relief of destitute or disabled worthies of both sexes who sort letters as a kind of distraction, and whom it would be cruel to call to account for their errors or omissions.

There was too much money in the San Domingo annexation scheme for its supporters to be disheartened by its failure in Congress last year, so it has been withdrawn from politics, and is now launched as a commercial undertaking. A company with a capital of $20,000,000 in shares of $100 each, having Dr. S. G. Howe of Boston as its president, has entered into "a treaty with the Dominican Government," by which all that was to be granted to the United States by the Convention of 1869 is granted to the present Company, and even more. The Company gets "eminent domain"—as Dr. Howe says in the lyrical letters he has written to the *Tribune* about the matter—over the peninsula of Samana, the bay, the islands and reefs, with high and low justice, power of taxation direct and indirect, power of establishing banks, and, in fact, all sovereign powers, including the maintenance of an army and navy. Its means of making money are almost endless in their variety. In the first place, for each league of railroad, wagon-road, and telegraph line it constructs on the island it is to have a land-grant from the Dominican Government of every alternate square league within two leagues of the road or line on each side, and if there are no public lands within these limits, it may "locate" on any other public lands it pleases. It is expected that the Company will in this way shortly get hold of the entire domain of the Dominican Government. Besides this, it has unlimited power of purchasing real estate where it pleases, and will, it is expected, monopolize the entire commerce and mining of the island; in fact, there is no reason why it should not. Once the Company gets fairly started, the native Dominican Government will become a mere shadow, like the Great Mogul in the hands of the East India Company. One provision of the "treaty" is that the Dominican Government shall grant no charter to any other company without having first offered it to the Samana Bay Company on the same terms.

There is an occasional sign nowadays that the strain which marked politics during the stress of the past few months, and indeed of the past few years, is slightly relaxing. Among such signs may be placed the report of the Congressional Committee in the contested election case which has been going on between those two political ornaments, Mr. Bowen, of South Carolina, the cadet broker and bigamist, and Mr. De Large, a colored corruptionist of some promise. In October, both these gentlemen were candidates for a seat representing the Second South Carolina District, which contains the city of Beaufort, but the greater part of whose voting population is composed of negroes who are extremely ignorant, and who as regards the right performance of a voter's duty are as ignorant as a horse or a sheep. Among these people are, however, some cunning and utterly unscrupulous file-leaders, such as itinerant preachers and the like, and the amount of cheating done in election canvasses is both amazing and amusing. The De Large men cheated enormously, and the Bowen men cheated "all they knew," which also was enormously and almost miraculously. Each side must have admired the other. But De Large got the certificate of election. Bowen at once set to work to contest, reflecting in his own mind that as long as the Treasury Department pays your bills while you are contesting, no matter if you had but four votes against your adversary's 400,000, and though you bought these four, why then, contesting is a good, legitimate carpet-bag or "scalawag" trade to follow, and as worthy as any other. Mr. De Large forthwith engaged a lawyer to defend his rights, and as far as our recollection goes this professional gentleman did indeed collect testimony enough, and that with ease, it being exceedingly thick all over the Second District; but when his employer desired to produce the same and triumphantly destroy Mr. Bowen, he was told that he could have it if he paid the cost of it.

However, Mr. De Large got leave to take more testimony, and the Committee have just got done with the examination of it. They find, first, that there was so much fraud and irregularity on both sides that no man can tell, and only the gods know, who did get a majority of the votes legally cast; secondly, they find that on the same day when, as he asserts, he was elected to Congress, Mr. Bowen caused and procured himself to be elected to the South Carolina House of Representatives, as knowing that his cause against De Large was just and righteous, but as also liking "a dead sure thing," and regarding the chances of thieving rather better, if anything, at Columbia than at Washington. Besides, the State needed reform, and Mr. Bowen felt that strongly. In the third place, says the report, the same Mr. Bowen got himself elected Sheriff of the city of Charleston for four years, and that too is an office the duties of which cannot be performed by a Congressman. The Committee, therefore, recommend that the seat in dispute be declared vacant, and the property of neither of these two model legislators.

There could hardly be a better example of the way in which a story grows in travelling than is afforded in the last comments of the London *Spectator* on Jay Gould's "restitution." The *facts* of that matter were, that when the Erie directors found that Gould had got in his possession over $9,000,000 of the property of the road, they brought an action against him to recover the amount, and availed themselves of the provision of the Code which permits the arrest of the defendant when affidavit is made that the debt sued for was fraudulently contracted, but the arrest causes no inconvenience beyond the finding of bail. The mention of "fraud," however, in connection with the arrest filled the minds of some of our own editors with the notion that Gould was being pursued criminally; and when the directors accepted a "cognovit" from him, or, in other words, payment of the amount for which

they sued, these editors began to wail piteously and denounce the transaction as the "compounding of a felony," and ask if there was no justice in New York for thieves any longer. As the Erie stock rose on the news of the restitution, and Jay Gould was reputed to be dealing in it, it was announced solemnly that he had made as much as he lost by the compromise. What he bought was first asserted to be 200,000 shares, and as the stock rose ten per cent. he *might* have made on this $2,000,000. According to the *Spectator*, however, he made $4,000,000. Even this is, however, far short of $9,000,000, so it makes up the total amount, and more, by alleging that "the New York papers" assert that "his total gains amount to $12,000,000." To have made this sum, Gould would have had to hold or agree to deliver $40,000,000 more than the whole stock of the road, common and preferred. What "New York papers" asserted this we do not know, but we advise the *Spectator*, which trusts this mysterious authority a great deal too often, to be very cautious in believing it again.

The *Economist*, which is rarely led astray, also has a severe article on "commercial morality in America," and the *Pall Mall Gazette* another, based on the report in the *Tribune* of an "interview" with Gould, in which he said he had stipulated before disgorging that he would be "informally admitted into the direction," that is, consulted on all important matters connected with the road; that "the road" should "lay a third rail and connect itself with the Lake Shore Road, instead of the Atlantic and Great Western"; and that "he should be allowed to make the first market bid for 200,000 shares of stock." This last assertion is on its face so absurd that it is curious that it should not have excited the suspicions of a financial paper like the *Economist* with regard to all the others. We now beg to assure the friends of "commercial morality in America" that the story is a pure fiction; that no such conditions or any conditions at all were made with Gould; that if any such interview ever took place, and Gould gave any such information, he lied, as is not uncommon with him, from beginning to end; that there has not for a long while been a transaction of such magnitude more creditable to American morality; and that it is a curious illustration of the mischief done in this world by "a story" to find the recovery of a large amount of property, by due process of law, from a wearied or frightened knave, converted into an argument against investing money in American securities.

England is rejoicing over a year of extraordinary commercial prosperity, as indicated by the revenue returns. During the last nine months the receipts have been $258,423,430, against $240,520,400 during the corresponding period of last year, and two-thirds of this sum comes from customs duties on about twenty-six articles. The estimated surplus will be about $16,000,000, which will be almost completely absorbed by the payment of the *Alabama* indemnity. On the other hand, there is a tremendous strike of the colliers and iron-workers in Wales. It is really the colliers, 11,000 strong, who have struck, but as there can be no iron without coal, the iron-men, 60,000 strong, had to join in. The *casus belli* has been found in a proposed reduction of wages to the amount of 10 per cent., which the employers justify by the fall in the price of iron, but the workmen refused to believe their statement, and on being referred to the books refused to examine them, on the ground that they would not be able to understand them, which is probably true. Even if the workmen had some knowledge of book-keeping, the books are not kept in such a way as to present this particular point in a comprehensible form; so the strike goes on, and, as it has the support of the English colliers, is likely to last long, but will probably result in the establishment of some permanent machinery of arbitration. It is due in great part to the backward condition of the Welsh laborers, who are only now making their way to the position of independence and intelligence which their English brethren have long enjoyed, and who have been held by their employers in a contempt which numerous strikes and prolonged agitation have destroyed in England.

The Pope's last "Allocution" has reached this country in full since our last issue. It opens with a lamentation over the condition of Rome, in which "clerical persons have been torn from the foot of the altars and deprived of their immunity, and been summoned to military service" (*Anglicè*, monks have been made liable to military service); bishops have been deprived of the right of teaching, and seminaries closed; religious orders driven out, and ecclesiastical property "subjected to an enormous tribute" (*Anglicè*, made liable to taxation) and taken possession of by the state. There is, however, nothing on which so much indignation is expended as on the secularization of the property of the religious orders, and on this the Pope exhausts all his missiles. He pronounces null and void all legislation in this direction, and warns all purchasers of ecclesiastical property that their title will be worthless, and all vendors of it that they are laying up for themselves a terrible retribution at the day of judgment—which ought to "cloud the title," but does not seem to do so. His Holiness also hurls denunciations against Germany for trying to "subvert the Church from its very foundations" by "secret machinations or open force," rebukes those in authority in that country for attempting to define Catholic dogmas and rites, and persecuting the prelates and priests for "refusing to prefer the laws and will of the civil empire to the holy laws of God and the Church." Switzerland undergoes similar castigation for favoring apostates and interrupting the exercise "of episcopal authority." The Canton of Geneva, in particular, has suppressed Catholic schools, banished religious orders, and deprived others of the rights of teaching, and has been guilty of divers acts of hostility towards "our venerable brother Gaspar, Bishop of Hebron." Spain, it appears, is just as bad as Italy, Germany, and Switzerland, if not worse. That once pious country has not only been "breaking solemn treaties and conventions, but trampling every rule of right and justice under foot," by tampering with the endowments of the clergy. Bad as the Spaniards are, however, they appear to be surpassed by "an impudent band of Armenians" who are doing a little "schism" on their own account at Constantinople, behaving with the most disgusting violence and craft, having prepared their schemes in a caucus (*conciliabulum*). In fact, whichever way the Holy Father turns his eyes, he sees the laity engaged in some form of rascality, and finds consolation only in the conduct of the bishops who have charge of these unruly goats.

There has been a curious "conflict of veracity" going on lately between Spain and the United States. Some time since, Mr. Fish, thinking that Spain was not acting in good faith with regard to the proposed abolition of slavery in Cuba, sent instructions which, according to ordinary diplomatic usage, would have been of the most private kind, to General Sickles at Madrid, suggesting that he should urge upon the Spanish Government the necessity of taking steps to free the slaves—that the Government of the United States regarded the inaction of the Government of Spain with those moderate diplomatic feelings of regret and surprise proper to the occasion, but intimating that unless Spain did something or other pretty soon, other more passionate emotions would take their place, and then no one could say what might happen. The Government of Spain immediately promulgated a decree, or law, of the most satisfactory nature, whereupon Mr. Fish published his correspondence with General Sickles, and thereupon Zorilla, the head of the Ministry, publicly and officially denied the receipt of any suggestions or recommendations on the subject from Mr. Fish, General Sickles, or any one else. Now to clinch the matter, Mr. Fish publishes a despatch from Sickles of an earlier date than the rest, also of the most private character, in which he handles the Spanish Government without gloves, and in a rambling way shows the absurdity of its attempting to put down the Cuban insurrection, and gives some interesting statistics as to the number of "casualties" caused by the war.

THE NEW SAN DOMINGO SCHEME.

THE leasing of the bay and peninsula of Samana by a private corporation from the Baez Government is an excellent example of doing a thing "by hook or by crook." A small body of persons, mostly in New York, are exceedingly anxious, for reasons of their own, that the United States should become possessed of one-half of a distant island inhabited by semi-barbarous blacks. By working on General Grant's professional eagerness for a military harbor in the West Indies, and particularly on his somewhat peculiar notions of the nature and objects of foreign commerce, they induced him to take their scheme up, make it his own, and urge it on Congress with great energy and pertinacity. Neither Congress nor the public, however, could be got to entertain it, and it was withdrawn in spite of the favorable report of the Commission sent down to examine the island.

The undertakers were not, however, men to be easily disheartened. When their attack failed on one side, they began diligently to push their approaches on another. They withdrew from "politics" altogether, and, in fact, disappeared for a season from the public view, and went to work to form a company, which speedily acquired the bay and peninsula, and ever so many privileges and perquisites, from the Dominican Government, on a long lease. Their "privileges" indeed seem only to have been limited by their demands. Baez and "the people" in Dominica were willing to cede anything, and they have really given the company sovereign powers. One little right they have reserved, but really only one, and that is "the right of inspecting, or ordering the inspection of, the books of the Company." The directors, if men of average humor, must have made this concession with much hilarity. The feeling that the eye of Baez and the "Consulting Senate" will be upon them during their ninety-nine years' lease will hardly infuse any great solemnity into their proceedings. To throw a romantic air over the transaction, and indeed give it the appearance of a missionary enterprise, Dr. S. G. Howe has been put into a prominent office; and that he has entered into the enterprise in the spirit of an apostle is easily inferred from the dithyrambic letters he has been writing in the *Tribune*, describing the great things in store for Dominica and the United States through the operations of the company.

The next thing will of course be—of this Dr. Howe at least makes no secret—to get the United States Government in some manner involved in the affair, so as to compel it to take possession of the Dominican Republic. If the Company exercises even half its power, the Republic will soon become a mere dependency on it; and whether the two work well or ill together, the Company, as a body of Americans abroad possessing extensive property on foreign soil, will have a constant claim on the protection and assistance of the home Government. Their title to this will be asserted in two ways. One will be by working on the national pride of their countrymen; the other, by appealing to the cupidity of Congressmen. The public will be treated to glowing accounts of the operations of the Company—the enormous profits it is making, and the great work it is doing for civilization, and the wonderful benefits it is conferring on "the African race"; stock will be "assigned" to members of Congress, or "placed where it will do most good," in order to "induce them to look into the thing"; a powerful "Dominican lobby" will be established in Washington, with fine rooms and a good supply of champagne; "facts" will be supplied to the Washington correspondents by "intelligent Dominicans" to be "worked up" for their respective journals; a large corps of lady writers will be sent down to sit under the palms and wander along the banks of "the ever-flowing streams," and take rides among "the grand old mountains" on mules supplied by the Company, and will, under the influence of flowers and warm weather, commemorate their impressions in gushing letters to the weekly papers. In this way "enthusiasm" for Dominican annexation will be worked up like the enthusiasm for the Union Pacific Railroad, only twice as great, owing to the tropical element in the Dominican problem. New reasons for annexation will every day make their appearance. "Commerce," we shall be told, "demands it; manufactures demand it; the army and navy demand it; posterity looks for it; the health of our people is suffering for want of it; art, science, and literature will be the better of it; the prairie breezes sigh for it; the lonely loon of the Northern lakes cries for it. In the name of our common humanity, then, open the door to this dusky daughter of the sun-kissed seas, and let her take her seat in her golden robes among her frost-crowned sisters of the continent." We would refer those who think this picture too highly colored to the following argument for the admission of Colorado to the Union. It appeared in leaded type in the columns of a leading morning paper, and it is worthy of note that the writer describes herself as "ravenous" in her "demands for woman's rights":

> "I really believe a great mistake, even for Congress to make, will be made if, after coming for the third time to the door of the Union, with her silver lamp trimmed and burning, Colorado knocks in vain; is told she is too early for the wedding-feast. *The question, I understand, is simply of numbers, but it seems to me the character of the population should have some weight. It is composed of brave women and pretty fair men, and of the most dashing, daring, wideawake boys and girls on the continent.* In the mountains are miners of the best quality, the unsettled and adventurous sort pushing westward to the more tempting treasure-fields of Utah and Nevada. Along the river-courses and in the towns are the very pick of Eastern agriculturists, mechanics, and railroad men. There is a great deal of social refinement and intellectual culture among the women of Colorado, that would show well even at a Washington reception, and there are men in any one of the Colorado colonies who might stand up against the best eleven of the Forty-second Congress, and be bold."

When the "tidal wave" had done its work, and the Congressmen had "looked into the thing," and the politicians had "fixed it," the terms of transfer would have to be arranged; and here the Sentimentalists would hang up their harps and go home, and "the practical men" would come out from their holes and corners and go to work. If the Company only exercises a quarter of its rights, the number of things it will have to sell to the Government—the telegraphs, railroad lines, piers, wharves, bridges, warehouses, dry and floating docks, buildings, lumber, and stores of all kinds—will, to the common eye, be past counting; but there will, nevertheless, be no difficulty experienced in making the bills up, and perhaps, at the rate we are going, not much difficulty in getting them paid. It is already almost impossible to gainsay a great corporation, and the greatest we have yet seen is but a pigmy to what this Samana Bay Company may become.

Dominica once annexed, the conquest or absorption of Hayti would soon follow, almost as a matter of necessity. For the government of such communities as these are, either for their good or for ours, the Constitution supplies no machinery. Principle, and the precedent set at the South, would compel us to admit them to the Union as equal States, and the island would cut up naturally into two, sending four members to the Senate and several to the House. Bands of white men would of course undertake, as at the South, to show the Africans "how to run the machine," and we should then have a pleasant addition to the existing complications of our politics. We may rely on it, the "Custom-house party" at San Domingo and Port-au-Prince would not be in any respect inferior in ingenuity or audacity to its great prototypes nearer home; and it is safe to conclude that each election would give us four or five governors and as many legislatures, who would barricade themselves in halls and other strongholds and bid defiance to their enemies, till an Attorney-General's "opinion" or a battalion of infantry came from Washington to settle the dispute. The influence on the Senate and House, and on the morals of politicians of the Southern States, and of "the wild-cat States" of the West which have been recently admitted, is already pretty well known to our readers. We do not need to enlarge on it. Let no one, however, read the poetical effusions of the Dominican undertakers without thinking of these things, of South Carolina and Louisiana, of Kansas, of the Crédit Mobilier, and without asking himself how long the Government can stand the indefinite expansion of this awful volume of ignorance and corruption. There is no way of hindering as many gentlemen as please from investing money in San Domingo, and buying privileges from Baez and his people, but there is a way of hindering the full execution of the programme by drawing the United States into the net.

That part of the scheme can be defeated by watchfulness and by reform; but watchfulness without reform is of no use. We are evidently getting every day nearer to the point at which either virtue or money must get final control of the Government, and we see very plainly what is going on. It is not perspicacity which is wanting, but the remorseless determination to get rid of rogues and put down "schemes."

TWO HUNDRED AND THIRTY-EIGHT MILES OF NATIONAL HIGHWAY.

THE investigation into the operations of the "Crédit Mobilier of America" now going on at Washington, throws a great deal of light on existing principles of finance, of railroad management, and of politics. The investigation is not yet over, and until it is, the complete history of the Union Pacific Railroad will not be known—if it is even then; but a good many facts of importance have been already brought out.

It is just ten years since Congress passed an act incorporating a company for the purpose of building a railroad and telegraph between a point in the Territory of Nebraska on the 100th meridian and a point on the western boundary of Nevada. The capital authorized by the act was $100,000,000. The Company was granted a right of way two hundred feet wide through the public lands, a right to take grounds for stations and other necessary buildings; the right also to take from any adjacent public lands earth, stone, timber, and other materials for construction. Besides this, a grant of land was made of alternate sections along the whole line, twenty miles wide. The act also authorized the company, on the completion and equipment of forty consecutive miles, to call upon the Secretary of the Treasury for United States six per cent. bonds, at the rate of $16,000 a mile, this loan to be a first mortgage on the whole line and equipment. For 300 miles of the road, however (the most mountainous and difficult part), the loan was to be $48,000 a mile, to be issued as each twenty miles was completed. On still another part the loan was to be at the rate of $32,000 a mile. This was the act incorporating the Union Pacific Railroad Company. Under this charter, however, nothing was done for a long time; $100,000,000 of capital are always difficult to raise, particularly in the middle of a great civil war; and besides this, the capital under the act was to be *bonâ-fide* paid-up stock—for every certificate issued by the Company the Company must have received its full value in lawful money of the United States. In this condition affairs remained for two years, when it occurred to some ingenious and hopeful men that the act might perhaps be modified so as to make the enterprise a less difficult one. They accordingly applied to Congress, and obtained what they asked. There was about this time a very general feeling of interest in the enterprise; "it was felt by the people that we ought to have a railroad connecting the Atlantic with the Pacific, a great national highway, bringing the products of China and Japan—their silks and teas and their labor—to our very doors." The newspapers were in favor of it; Congress was in favor of it; Mr. Lincoln himself gave it his warm support. The legislation applied for was granted with a sort of enthusiasm. This time the Company received for a land grant, instead of five alternate sections per mile, ten; the grant was made forty miles wide, instead of twenty; provisions in the former act in favor of the Government were repealed, and the road was empowered to issue first mortgage bonds for an amount equal to the United States loan, whenever they had completed twenty miles of road. This act made the United States loan a second instead of a first mortgage. In return for all this, it was provided that the Government directors should be five in number instead of two. The land-grant by this new act was equivalent to 12,800 acres, or twenty square miles for every mile of road. It is worth while to observe that Mr. Oakes Ames was at this time on the Pacific Railroad Committee of the House of Representatives.

Still, little or nothing was done. Half a million was subscribed in New York; but as Mr. John B. Alley pathetically observed at the time to Mr. Oakes Ames, "capitalists are generally very timid," and the requirement in the charter that the books should be kept open till one hundred million dollars had been subscribed, was impracticable. "Everybody regarded it in that light," Mr. Alley said. Mr. Ames had by this time (1865) been applied to by certain people in New York to take the road on his shoulders.

When everybody regards a valuable charter as impracticable, it generally happens that some way is found of making it work by carrying out its spirit; this way Mr. Ames discovered. He asked his friend and fellow-Congressman, Mr. Alley, to go into the enterprise with him. Mr. Alley declined, on the ground we have just mentioned. Mr. Ames became urgent, and explained to Mr. Alley how, although it would be impossible to build the road "under the provisions of that bill, you could construct it by a contracting company, to which parties owning stock could subscribe a limited amount, and be in no danger of losing any more than they subscribed."

At this time there was in existence a charter which had been granted by the Legislature of Pennsylvania, some fifteen years before, incorporating some gentlemen as a "Fiscal Agency." The word "syndicate" had not then been invented. What were its original objects is a secret of no less a person than Mr. George Francis Train, but it is probably safe to say that building a great national highway was not one of them. Its name had, meantime, been changed to the "Crédit Mobilier of America"; and as the stock was almost worthless, and the liabilities of stockholders of course limited, it occurred to Mr. Oakes Ames that, instead of proceeding according to the terms of the charter of the Union Pacific Railroad and subscribing the very large sum of $100,000,000, it would be a far simpler matter to buy out the Crédit Mobilier for a few thousand, and let the Crédit Mobilier build the road. He accordingly approached Mr. George Francis Train on the subject—or, at any rate, Mr. Train was approached by some one on the subject; Mr. Train went to Philadelphia, and the result of his journey was that the charter of the Crédit Mobilier changed hands for $20,000 or $30,000.

In order to understand fully the character of the undertaking, it is necessary to know something more of the principal person interested. Mr. Ames has given a full account of himself in the investigation now going on.

In any age of the world he would have been a remarkable man. Having accumulated a fortune in the modest business of shovel-making, he finds himself in middle-life in control of one of the main commercial avenues of the country, levying toll to the amount of millions annually on all passengers and merchandise passing between the western and the eastern coast of the continent, and at the same time in considerable doubt from year to year whether he is a millionaire or a bankrupt. According to his own account, he has an extremely bad memory and no head for dates; yet he has not had till within a year or two any book-keeper, and has never even seen the books of the corporation which built a quarter of the Union Pacific Railroad, which he himself employed as a means of avoiding personal liability, and which guaranteed a contract of his amounting to $47,000,000. Some idea of the simple plan on which Mr. Ames's financial operations have been carried on may be gathered from the testimony of Mr. George W. Kennedy, at present his book-keeper. He testified that he owned no Crédit Mobilier stock, and never had any information that stock stood in his name on the books of that Company; had never heard Mr. Oakes Ames say to whom he sold stock. On being informed that on the books of the Company thirty shares of the stock stood in his name, he said that he knew nothing of it. On being asked about the alleged transactions with members of Congress, he "thought he had seen on some books some transactions; did not remember what they were; could not recall the entries; it was a long time ago; had no positive memory about them." On being questioned further, "thought he had seen two or three entries in reference to parties he supposed to be members of Congress; had read so much in the newspapers that he had got it all mixed up; thought he recollected Mr. Patterson's

name; thought he saw something which tended to refer to Mr. Colfax; could not remember what it was; the entries were made in a pocket memorandum-book; remembered nothing he could swear to positively."

Of Mr. Ames's associates we have not a very impartial account. Col. McComb was formerly in the leather business, and according to his own statements bore a very high character in that trade. According to his enemies, however, he has more lately been engaged in the less creditable occupation of "robbing the soldiers and the Government, as the records of the Government could show"; and according to his own account trying to force Ames to compromise the difficulties which soon arose between them by threats of "exposure." Then there was also Dr. Thomas C. Durant, vice-president of the Union Pacific and president of the Crédit Mobilier, a financier of established reputation, who, of the same party with McComb, went, according to Mr. John B. Alley, further even than McComb was willing to go—mailing a letter on one occasion "directed to Elihu B. Washburne, accusing the companies of the greatest rascalities." McComb, however, "knew the Post-office clerk," and got the letter out of the mail.

Then there was Mr. John B. Alley himself, not a capitalist, he says, but formerly in the leather business, where he learnt something about the character of Col. McComb which was not to the latter's advantage. Then there was Mr. John M. S. Williams, member of the Congress which meets next March, who was treasurer of the Union Pacific Railroad from May, 1869, to March, 1871; was elected a director, but never served as such; was one of the original subscribers for $20,000, and held from time to time stock to the amount of $400,000; took an interest in the Crédit Mobilier in the beginning of 1865; he and his partner, Glidden, subscribed $62,500 each; was a director from June, 1865, to May, 1867, and on the Executive Committee with Thomas C. Durant and A. Griswold Gray, and who considered that the Crédit Mobilier and the Union Pacific were "so nearly identical that there was no diversity of interest," and who, in reply to the question whether the cost of the road was larger to the Union Pacific than to the Crédit Mobilier, suggested that this was merely a question as to whether certain gentlemen had "more money in one pocket than in the other." There were other financiers interested, but those we have named have thus far cut the principal figure.

The construction of the Union Pacific Railroad now began. The stockholders in the two companies were the same, and the way in which they built the road was this: First, Two hundred and thirty-eight miles were built under the management of the Union Pacific Railroad, at a cost of $27,500 per mile, and then the Union Pacific made a contract, through Mr. Oakes Ames, with the Crédit Mobilier to complete the undertaking at from $17,000 to $103,500 a mile; this contract was made to apply to the two hundred and thirty-eight miles already built; that is to say, the Crédit Mobilier agreed to build a road already built, and for this the same corporation agreed to receive as a profit for not having built it the difference between the actual cost and the contract price. This contract was made in October, 1867, and it proved very profitable. On June 17, 1868, the stockholders of the Crédit Mobilier received 60 per cent. in cash, and 40 per cent. in stock of the Union Pacific Railroad; on the 2d of July, 1868, 80 per cent. first mortgage bonds of the Union Pacific Railroad, and 100 per cent. stock; July 3, 1868, 75 per cent. stock, and 75 per cent. first mortgage bonds; September 3, 1868, 100 per cent. stock, and 75 per cent. first mortgage bonds; December 19, 1868, 200 per cent. stock; while, before this contract was made, the stockholders had received, on the 26th of April, 1866, a dividend of 100 per cent. in stock of the Union Pacific Railroad; on the 1st of April, 1867, 50 per cent. of first mortgage bonds were distributed; on the 1st of July, 1867, 100 per cent. in stock again.

In the winter of 1867–68, stock in the Crédit Mobilier was naturally valuable property. In fact, the value of the property was in Congress rather a joke. Members of the House of Representatives used to ask Mr. Ames "when he was going to divide." About the same time a quarrel arose in the corporation itself, Col. McComb alleging that he was entitled to a certain 250 shares to which Mr. Ames said *he* was entitled. At the same time dark doubts began to be cast upon the condition of the road. There had been a Government inspection, and one of the inspectors had found that it was not well built; there were threats of investigation into the management, and it was necessary that no investigation should be made. The 250 shares were decided to belong to Mr. Oakes Ames, and were transferred to him, he alleging that he had contracted before this to sell them to a number of people, many of them members of Congress. According to the general practice, if A agrees to sell to B a certain number of shares of stock, he completes the contract by delivering him a certificate, or procuring for him the assignment of a certificate of the stock sold. The certificate is the evidence of title. Mr. Ames, however, had, it appears, a totally different way of selling stock. He was anxious that the transaction should be managed in such a way "as to do most good," and the way he managed it was this: He kept all the stock in his own name, and whenever he found any member of Congress who had any money to invest, he simply let it be understood that so many shares were his at about half or a third their actual value, and in order to save any trouble about the transfer of papers he was willing to keep the stock and pay over the dividends as they accrued. Still more obligingly, he was willing to return the stock if the investors did not like the bargain, and guarantee them ten per cent. on their money. Many members of Congress took the stock, innocently supposing, as they have all testified, that there was no more wrong in the transaction than in their investment in the stock of a national bank or a factory. They did not know, they say, anything about the Crédit Mobilier, but they knew the high character of the gentlemen connected with the enterprise, and that was enough for them. Into all the details of these investments and the subsequent legislation we cannot go. Some of the members kept their stock, and received dividends on it; some of them, hearing of the difficulties in which the road was becoming involved, returned their shares to Mr. Oakes Ames, or rather rescinded their contract to take them, for the stock had never been transferred.

Meanwhile the building of the road went on, "and it will be remembered," Mr. James F. Wilson, of Iowa, says (and he ought to remember, for he secured ten shares of the stock for a thousand dollars, and was fortunate enough, according to his own account, although he knew "almost nothing of the organization and the details of the Crédit Mobilier, or of the value of the stock he had purchased," to make a profit of three thousand dollars on his investment),—"it will be remembered that the praises of what was being done swelled on until they burst forth in the ringing of bells and the firing of cannons all over the country," until, "in the spring of 1869, it was announced that the last spike had been driven, and that the tracks of the Union Pacific Railroad and Central Pacific Railroad companies had been united, and that an iron way spanned the continent from ocean to ocean." It is the feeling of the Hon. John B. Alley, too, that "if the American people could know all the facts, instead of bestowing upon Oakes Ames one word of censure, they would far sooner erect a monument to his name in grateful recognition of his eminent services." Two Congressional committees and two prosecuting attorneys are now engaged in looking into this question.

LACOMBE'S HISTORY OF THE FRENCH PEOPLE.

PARIS, December 31, 1872.

"KNOW thyself" is a maxim as difficult in its application for nations as for individuals. I have often been struck by the singular fact that the French people, which by race is chiefly Celtic, is in its language almost completely Latin. The University of Oxford has just confided the task of making an etymological dictionary of the English language to a young Frenchman, M. Brachet, who has made a very good etymological dictionary of the French language. The latter work, which has been received with great favor in the scientific world, shows that this nation, which Goldwin Smith invariably calls, and to a certain extent has a right to call, Celtic, has

hardly any Celtic roots left in its language. It presents the curious and, I believe, most exceptional instance of a race which completely forgot its own language after it was conquered by another race. The French language is really quite Latin, and more German roots than Celtic are mixed up with the Latin ones. What can be the reasons of such a phenomenon? They can only be found in the history of the Roman conquest of Gaul.

I was talking on this subject not long ago with M. Brachet, and he said to me, "Have you ever read a small book called 'Petite Histoire du peuple français,' by M. Paul Lacombe?" I had not even heard of it; but I immediately sent for it, and after reading this small volume, which costs only twenty-five cents, it immediately struck my mind that I had never seen any book better adapted to give to strangers a correct idea of French history in its great features, and of the growth and development of the French nationality. It is no small praise of this modest work to say that it would be an admirable text-book for primary schools (for your excellent American schools especially), and that those who are the most familiar with the great works of the best historians, the 'History of Civilization' of Guizot, the 'History of Southern Gaul' by Fauriel, and, in fact, all the historical literature of France, will not find in M. Lacombe's little volume a single error or any false judgment. I hope I am not in the state of mind of La Fontaine, when he met all his friends with the question, "Have you read Baruch?" I really am very much struck by the immense amount of solid information which is found in this 'History of the French People,' and which is almost concealed in an unassuming, simple, and quiet exposition of the transformation of French society. It is hardly possible for a foreigner to get acquainted with all the details of French history; whoever wishes to have an accurate knowledge of it must read at least three hundred volumes of original documents and memoirs. But it must interest everybody, the philosopher, the lawyer, the moralist of all countries, to see how the French nationality was formed, out of what elements, and to understand what has been in this great work the part of Rome, of the church, of the barbarians, of the feudal system, of monarchy, of the Revolution. M. Lacombe enters into this vast and difficult subject with a fair spirit of equity; he is evidently a Liberal, and a strong Liberal, but he is also a critic, and he does not judge French royalty, for instance, or the church, in the spirit of a sectarian. Whatever may be thought of the actual influence of the Catholic Church, it is not difficult to prove that this church was for four centuries the best protection of Gaul against the cold cruelty of Rome and the brutality of the barbarians. It is not so much to Rome and its functionaries that Gaul surrendered what seems the dearest treasure of every race, its own language, as to the softening and mild influence of the church.

We speak now in vague terms of the cruelty of Rome; let us try to realize it. Cæsar prided himself on having sold as many as a million of Gauls as slaves in Rome. The conqueror was followed everywhere by slave-dealers, and Cæsar had the greatest interest in their cruel operations. These men not only lent him money, they were his electioneering agents in Rome. M. Lacombe does not relate these curious facts, but he shows well the effects of the Roman administration in Gaul. Brittany, it is well known, became a desert, and was only settled afterwards by emigrants from Great Britain. Most Gauls became, under the name of *coloni*, real slaves. This painful period of the administration of Gaul by Rome is not sufficiently dwelt upon by M. Lacombe; and he does not sufficiently explain the important part played by the church when the Roman Empire became divided. It is a very significant fact, however, that the German tribe which succeeded in getting possession of Gaul was the most barbarous and the smallest of all; the Franks were only a handful, if you compare them with the Burgundians and the Visigoths, who had taken possession of the Jura, the valleys of the Saône and Durance, of Toulouse and the South. But the Burgundians and the Visigoths were Arians, heretics, and the whole influence of the Catholic Church was exerted in favor of Clovis and his cruel followers, who had made themselves Catholics. The German hordes which conquered Gaul were not so large as may be supposed. We have seen by a recent experience that a handful of organized soldiers can rule a whole province. A few battalions of Germans reigned by terror in Touraine, in Champagne, in large provinces; the Gallo-Romans were accustomed to obey; they made very little resistance to the invaders. The first Frank kings were merely military commanders. The great Roman centralization disappeared, and the feudal system was established. Every military service was followed by a grant of land, and by degrees the domain thus given became hereditary. A great process of disintegration of sovereignty began, which lasted several centuries; it was followed by a contrary process. The atomic or nebular state of the Middle Ages was not without its advantages. The slave of antiquity could be sold, without his family, far from the estate where he was born. The serf of the Middle Ages could not be separated from the land. The tenth and the eleventh centuries, on the other hand, were filled with private wars, as the old Roman idea of a centralized justice had quite disappeared. There were no real tribunals for the lords of the land; the modern law of nations, which forbids any unnecessary cruelty towards non-combatants, was unknown. One can imagine the misery produced by such a state of things. It is, however, not a little singular that the Normans, who began their invasions at that time, and who soon conquered Normandy, attained a remarkably high culture in the course of a century. Their architecture shows it clearly enough. This extraordinary Scandinavian race seems to have a wonderful elasticity; the first Normans were pirates, their sons and grandsons became feudal lords; they forgot their own language completely, and adopted the Latin language, which had already assumed its French form. The civilization of Normandy was much advanced for the period at the time of the English Conquest. Wherever they have gone—to Sicily, to Canada—the Normans have shown a marvellous power of adaptation and commanding abilities; they are a truly imperial race.

The Capetian dynasty found its origin in the first struggles against the Normans. It was essentially a popular, a Parisian dynasty. The Capetians were not the successors of Charlemagne; they were strong allies of the clergy, which was at that time half military, and they preserved order, first in the small horizon of the district of Paris, and afterwards in Touraine, in Poitou, Aquitaine. Consciously or unconsciously, they became the adversaries of the feudal system. Wherever there was a quarrel, they interfered in the interest of peace and justice. France is really the work of this dynasty. I have no time to dwell on its long and patient efforts, which culminated in the administration of Richelieu, of Mazarin, and of Louis XIV. Whatever may be said against the Grand Roi, whatever were his errors, it must be acknowledged that his image, surrounded by such warriors as Turenne, Condé, Vendôme, Villars, Catinat; by a host of great men, Descartes, Bossuet, Pascal, Molière, Corneille, Racine, marks an era in the history of the world. But the condition of the people was far from happy in the seventeenth and in the eighteenth centuries. Nothing can be more interesting than the account M. Lacombe gives of the general state of society before the French Revolution. The system of taxation was really barbarous. The *taille* was the land-tax, and was only paid by a third of the inhabitants. The noblemen, the priests, and the officials were all exempt from it; and they contrived to have their farmers, when they had any, exempted. The *taille* was fixed every year by a royal council for each *intendance*. Nobody could ever know how much he would have to pay the next year. The distribution of the tax among the inhabitants was nearly arbitrary. The collectors were responsible for the amount of the tax; they taxed, in consequence, the most prosperous of the peasants very heavily, for fear of not being paid by others. Thence it became customary for the French peasants to conceal their fortune, to dress miserably, to live in hovels. Even now this class is sordid; the peasant is always afraid of appearing too rich; he hides his money. Every sign of prosperity was punished in old times by a sudden increase of the *taille*. Bois-Guillebert has given a graphic description of the collectors, who met in a public-house, and there fixed the *taille*. They were often met with imprecations, and they went away. They came back with soldiers and huissiers; seized, in the refractory villages, all the cows, even the furniture of the houses. The most industrious, the best peasants, became the victims of the lazy, of the disorderly. How can we wonder at the famous description of La Bruyère?

Lacombe is very partial to the French Revolution; it certainly rendered an immense service in abolishing the privileges of the nobility and the clergy; but, after many years, the condition of the French peasantry is not so different as might have been hoped from what it was in the last century. You can still find in the heart of the Gaul this frightful hypocrisy of misery, which comes down from the Gallo-Roman colonies and from the serf of the Middle Ages; and this fear of every outward progress, of every sign of prosperity, is the chiefest obstacle to a high culture. France owes to it an immense and seemingly inexhaustible reserve of capital, but frugality may become suicidal, and the principle of equality may drag all men down as well as lift them all together.

TAXATION IN ALSACE-LORRAINE.

STRASSBURG, Dec. 13, 1872.

IT is a well-known fact that the Alsatian mind is, in general, of a more material turn than the German. With an energy almost equalling that of a genuine Yankee, the Alsatian devotes himself to the pursuit of the goods of this world, and even a Parisian hardly knows better how to enjoy them. This characteristic trait of our population has been often adduced as almost a guaranty that in a few years they would be completely reconciled to their fate. Though their attachment to France is sincere and strong, yet the *Thaler* will weigh heavier in the scales; that has been from the beginning

and is still one of the principal reasons of the hope entertained by most Germans for a speedy reassimilation of the Reichslande. That their pockets would find their account by the change of government was hardly doubted by any German somewhat acquainted with their former condition. Only the large manufacturing interests, it was allowed, would form an exception for some time to come. Now, it is a curious fact that exactly the peasants, and all other classes of people with but modest means, are complaining the most and the loudest, and their complaints are to a great extent well founded. They do not earn less money than they used to, but they are more heavily taxed, and that is the standard by which the great mass—so far as their relations to the Government are concerned—commonly measure their material well-being. Yet, on the other hand, the Imperial Government cannot be charged with having fallen into the gross mistake of intentionally overburdening the people in order to subdue them. We are still under the dictatorship of the *Reichskanzler*, and it is felt in every respect that we are governed by an iron will; but this iron will stands itself under the control of the enlightened ideas of a profound statesman. Inclined by nature to a most reckless absolutism, Bismarck has learned by experience that whip and spur are not always the right means to break unruly spirits. The Government is really desirous of winning the people's good graces by justice, mildness, and assiduous care for the promotion of their general welfare; and, what is of no less value, the people are thus far, to a rather astonishing degree, willing to acknowledge that. Yet it is an undeniable fact that everybody, and especially the poorer classes, have now more than ever before to dread the tax-gatherer in all his various forms. The explanation is to be found in the other fact, that the old French laws, with but a few exceptions, are still in force, while they are executed by German officials.

It was one of the immoral maxims of the Imperial Government of France to fix the taxes at a really exorbitant rate, in order to collect them with great leniency. This way of seeking popularity by systematically demoralizing the officials and the whole population has, of course, been utterly repudiated by the present Government; everybody has now actually to pay what was formerly but the nominal amount of the taxes, and that is often simply ruinous. The peasants (farmers) are, perhaps, worse off than all the rest. They work hard and with intelligence, and the soil is rich, but, nevertheless, as a rule they are always short of ready money. Any of those "extraordinary" events which occur every day—a burial, a marriage, a bad crop—renders a loan necessary, and every loan is with them a real calamity. There are no agricultural banks where the peasant could get money to meet sudden exigencies, and much less to use for the improvement of his lands. A mortgage is the beginning of his ruin, for, beside the interest, he has to pay the Government 5 per cent., and his neighbors begin to regard him as a lost man as soon as the rumor spreads that he has been obliged partly to mortgage his estate. So he looks out for some friend to lend him money without a mortgage. Such friends are always on hand, and their rate of interest exactly corresponds with the genuineness of their friendship: the usurers are now the curse of the Alsatian peasants, as in the time of Napoleon I. The Government, however, is almost still more merciless than the usurer. Suppose a peasant divides his estate, valued at 20,000 francs, but encumbered with a mortgage of 12,000 francs, amongst his eight children, one son getting the estate to pay one-eighth of the real property, *i.e.*, 1,000 francs to every one of his brothers and sisters; now the Government considers the mortgage as not existing, and charges at first $1\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. for the whole nominal value of 20,000 francs=220 francs; secondly, 4 per cent. for seven-eighths of the mortgage=420 francs; and thirdly, $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for transferring the property of 20,000 francs=300 francs. So the estate of an actual value of but 8,000 francs is charged by the Government with 940 francs. Suppose furthermore the son who got the estate dies before he has been able to pay his brothers and sisters their share, he leaves to his heirs, in fact, but 1,000 francs, as there is a mortgage of 12,000 francs and debt of 7,000 to be paid out of its full value of 20,000 francs. The Government, however, still regards only the 20,000 francs, and charges $6\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. on them, equal to 1,220 francs, *i.e.*, 122 per cent. of the whole real property left. Perhaps the case is not quite so bad, and the happy heir is still left in possession of 500 francs, which he invests in real estate, in a hut. The Government steps in again and gets, under various heads, 39 francs 5 cents out of him. If but 300 francs were his own money, so that he had to borrow 200 francs, he has to pay the Government 30 francs 60 cents more. These examples will amply prove that the present Government cannot be quick enough in doing away with the *enregistrement* and the *droits de mutation par décès*. The division of the soil having been carried to almost the extreme in Alsace, they are all but ruinous to the peasants.

Another tax deserving special mention is as heavy, and in many cases not less iniquitous. It is a kind of income tax, the rent of the lodgings occupied by the taxpayer serving as the standard by which the amount of the tax is determined. The French collector, like the American appraiser was wont to put down a lodging of 1,000 francs at 700 or 600; thus, in fact, reducing the nominal tax of 10 per cent. to 7 or 6 per cent.; the German collector sticks mercilessly to the letter of the law, the tax being, therefore, at present equal to an income tax of about 2 to $2\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. Only with those happy few whose income is considerably larger than their yearly expenses, the percentage is proportionately smaller, while with that numerous and most unhappy class who have to live upon a fixed salary, it is steadily increasing. A. is in the Government employ, and receives a salary of 1,000 thalers. He makes his calculation, and finds that he is able to support a wife. The lodging of the young couple costs 600 francs, the tax is accordingly 60 francs. After a year a baby appears, and the landlord raises the rent to 700 francs, and the Government taxes him 10 francs more upon the supposition that he has more to spend than last year. There is a kind of bitter humor in this conspiracy between the ever-greedy landlords and the Government.

The exact amount of the real-estate tax, and the manner of assessing it your correspondent has not been able to ascertain. One of the principal Imperial officials maintained that it was not heavy. The peasants, however, seem to think very differently, although they admit that it is inconsiderable in comparison with the above-mentioned burdens. The head-money (*Kopfgeld*) is also of no great consequence: its equivalent for those who are unable to pay it is three days' work on the public roads.

The only class of producers thus far considerably benefited by direct action of the Government are the wine-growers. In former times they were utterly unable to compete with the wine-growers of Southern and Western France. Even now they find it difficult, although the duties levied on the French wines serve them as a protective tariff. The difference in the price is, however, sufficiently reduced to be outweighed, to a great extent, by the predilection most of the Alsatians have for the wine of the country, which has quite a decided character of its own. Besides—and it is this for which the producers as well as the consumers have to thank the Government—the heavy *octroi* formerly levied by the cities has been abolished. For the former class, it is perhaps of still greater importance that their wine has to pay no duty on the other side of the Rhine. It does not seem quite improbable that the Alsatian wines, mixed with the light wines from the Moselle, will find a market in Silesia and other provinces of Germany not producing themselves any wine. As to the tobacco-growers, another interest of much importance, it is hardly doubtful that they also will soon find themselves in a better condition than they were under the French Government. The Imperial Government, which had until now retained the monopoly, has just sold its stock, etc., it is said, for 1,800,000 francs.

To give satisfaction to the just demands of the people, however, it is not sufficient to mend here a little this year, and there a little the next year. The whole manner of raising revenue has to undergo a thorough reform. Everybody knows, of course, that the French laws will not remain in force for ever; but the people are growing impatient, and not without reason. Such a radical change of the whole system of taxation is no child's play; but the provinces were not annexed yesterday, and no one has the slightest idea if the change will take place in six months or in three years. The *Courrier du Bas Rhin* remarked the other day with great justice, "You have taken from us what was dear to us in our connection with France; now, if you want us to cease complaining of our fate, and to become good Germans, at least make haste to abolish what was always hateful to us in our connection with France." Here *is* the rub, and the Government *should* make haste.

In conclusion, I might mention an interesting fact to show how "the sober second thought" is beginning to carry the day over the heart-burnings, even where they are the strongest. The manufacturing princes of Mülhausen had the strange presumption to ask permission to send their goods, intended for the Vienna Exposition, to the French department. When this was refused, they demanded a separate building, for which they were willing to pay a very considerable sum. This also not being granted, most of them—only about six standing grimly aloof—have finally made up their minds to appear as Germans at the world's fair. Thus far about 600 firms have declared their intention to exhibit at the Exposition—manufactures, agriculture, *Forstwirthschaft* (economy of forests), and mining each being represented by about 150.

Correspondence.

MORE ABOUT THE ALABAMA DAMAGES.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your comments upon the communication in your paper of January 16, in relation to the "Alabama damages," you agree with your corre-

spondent that the Legislature must determine where the fund is to go, and that it is not trammelled, as a court would be, by any technical rule of municipal law. You, however, contend that the Legislature is bound to follow the analogies of the law. Under your rule, as I understand it, if the builder of the *Alabama*, or any other British subject, had insured some of our ships, and paid the loss, and the ship had been abandoned to him, he is entitled to his share of the money, although it might be shown that he had received twice as much in war premiums from American citizens as he had paid in losses.

You say you find no fault on the score of abstract justice or "equity" with the rules I lay down.

The precise issue between us is whether Congress should follow the analogies of the law, or whether it holds the fund to distribute equitably to relieve the actual hardships. It is understood that there is a difference of opinion among those who acted for the United States—that Mr. Evarts and Mr. Beaman take the former view, while Judge Hoar and Mr. Cushing take the latter. It is undoubtedly a fair question for discussion.

The question whether the *courts* even are bound by the rules of law in administering a fund of this kind has been raised. Sir Thomas Plumer, Master of the Rolls, in a case before him in 1818, said of a fund of this kind: "Whatever the individual obtains is not on the ground of right or private property, but of hardship and injustice. Though this therefore is not a case of pure donation, as of a gift without anything in the nature of consideration, yet for the purpose of being contrasted with property or right it is donation, not a restoration of a former right, but from a new fund, belonging to an independent authority; a grant to the sufferer for what he lost." Although Judge Story did not concur with the view as a rule for courts, may it not be a proper view for a legislature to take?

Is abstract justice such a "very queer article" that a legislature must shun it and do injustice in order to conform to the analogies of technical law?

* * *

[We ought to have mentioned in our article last week that this question about the rights of the insurance companies in this controversy was not raised until recently. From 1863 until the close of the war the claims of the insurance companies against the British Government were regularly received and presented by Mr. Adams and Mr. Seward on precisely the same footing as those of individuals, and were received by the British Government in the same manner. Moreover, it was understood by insurers and insured all through the war that the underwriters succeeded to all the owners' rights as against the British Government in all cases of total loss. The idea that the underwriters' total receipts ought to be looked into in order to ascertain the exact amount to which they are entitled is of quite recent origin. It is worth notice, too, that the preparation to deal with their claims in Congress is conducted under the superintendence of that great moralist and "equity" man, Mr. B. F. Butler, and, characteristically enough, in profound secresy. He has taken the most extraordinary precautions to prevent the public's knowing what he is about, partly in order to prevent discussion, but partly because he never feels like himself till the night falls. Our correspondent's closing remark begs the question.—Ed. Nation.]

THE OTHER VIEW OF NAPOLEON III.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In view of the prevailing tone of the criticism of our press upon the life and character of the late Emperor of the French, which is to my mind exceedingly harsh, and in great part devoid of common sense, I beg that you will allow me to publish in your paper an estimate of the man and of his government which I believe to be shared in by many close observers of French history, even although it be a different estimate from that which will be given in your own editorial columns. I have no desire to open a controversy on what would be an interminable theme; my only purpose is to put on record opinions which, though entertained by a minority doubtless of our people, are nevertheless entitled to respect.

Those, then, whose views I present start with the notion that the reign of the late Emperor cannot be properly estimated apart from the previous history of France. They regard the French people as having been, in 1789, totally unfitted by their ignorance, and by their utter want of practice in the art of governing themselves, for a republic. They see clearly, however, that by the destruction of the old nobility, the restoration of the monarchy as the permanent form of government became impracticable. They regard the First Empire, therefore, as the only form of government possible for the French people at that point in their history. They regard the forcible expulsion of Napoleon I. from France, by the allied powers, as necessarily undermining the principle of allegiance, and bringing about a series of experiments in which the very form and structure of the government were made to depend upon the popularity of a particular king or of his counsellors. They do not undertake to justify the revolutions of 1830 or 1848, but they see in them the proof that the old monarchy is without roots and without real support. They regard the Republic of 1848 as an attempt to govern a great country, the masses of whose people were, through lack of education in self-government, entirely unfitted for the republican system, by a self-appointed oligarchy, composed no doubt to a considerable extent of excellent men and of enlightened thinkers, but containing also bad and dangerous components; having no reliance on the masses of the people, yet governing in the name of liberty and using the forms of the Republic. In fact, they regard the Republic of 1848, as it evidently was regarded by France at that time, as obviously a provisional government, which, having no justification in the tyranny of the late king, no weight with the people, and no roots in the past, was, every day that it lasted, a cause of alarm to the friends of civilization in France and elsewhere. They see in the *coup d'état* of 1851 the violent close of this exceptional state of affairs—an act not to be justified on strict grounds of morality, certainly; but also an act by no means to be confounded with a deliberate overthrow of a lawful free government. They are not blind to the almost universal satisfaction with which the event was accepted by the nation; nor are they forgetful of the many years of peaceful order which succeeded it, and the benefits thence resulting.

They have seen in the Emperor a hard-working and enlightened monarch; a man who devoted more time, and labor, and intellect to the task of governing his country than any of his contemporaries. They do not believe that in the matter of personal morality or of domestic duty he fell below the average of the men of his time similarly situated. They are unable to recognize in the friend of Cavour and of Cobden either the incapacity or the lack of honest purpose to carry out wise and enlightened measures which so many deny the Emperor to have possessed. They see in the alliance with England and the war with Russia a solid benefit conferred upon the European family of nations; recognizing as they do the immense value of the extinguishment of that jealousy between France and England which has led to so many bloody wars, and the disastrous consequences to European progress had the Emperor Nicholas been allowed to extend his too powerful reactionary influence in Germany by the conquest of Turkey. They find that the Italian war of 1859 brought a great and permanent benefit not only to Italy but also to all Europe. Italy, changed from being the hotbed of revolution into a constitutional monarchy, has amply justified the enlightened policy which led Napoleon into his alliance with Cavour. While they cannot be blind to the fact that the Emperor Napoleon, in common with the leading statesmen of England, considered the victory of the United States over the rebels as impossible, and that he consequently urged upon England a prompt recognition of what he considered as a fact, they are equally free to recognize the perfect neutrality with which he observed the duties of his position. They deplore the Mexican expedition as the great mistake of his reign; but they are free to confess their doubts as to the advantages to Mexico which have resulted from its failure.

They do not find any evidence in the Emperor's policy towards Germany of a resolution to bring about a war. They blame him for not having been satisfied with the abandonment by the Prince Leopold of his candidature. They cannot but admit that the French Government asked what the Prussian Government ought not to have been asked to do. But they are not blind to the fact that the affair was of Bismarck's making; that a frank and open policy on his part in the outset would have given no ground for a quarrel. Nor do they forget that it was the (so-called) liberal opposition that had been goading the Imperial Government into a war with Germany ever since the battle of Sadowa.

A writer in the *North American Review* for January has said:

"Both of the Napoleons maintained their hold upon the nation through two classes of people—the first embracing a small but intelligent minority, who believed in an absolute government as the best which the nation could have; the second, made up of the vast but ignorant majority. With the firm support of the former class in the cabinet, and with the overwhelming numbers of the latter as a kind of ultimate court of appeal, Napoleonism was for a long time able to sustain itself, even in opposition to the great mass of the intelligence of the nation."

This we regard as substantially true. But our conclusion differs from that of the writer of the article. We regard a nation, "overwhelming numbers" of whose people are ignorant, as a nation which cannot be successfully ruled by the majority of the intelligent classes, unless those intelligent

classes constitute a powerful aristocracy. A country in which the vast majority is ignorant can be ruled only by a despotism or by an oligarchy. For the "intelligent classes," who, of course, must differ among themselves, to establish a new government, without a history, without traditions, without previous experience of any value, and to attempt to carry it on without the prestige of great names or families, by a crude adaptation of the methods of republicanism, is not only to attempt an impossibility, but to war with the most deeply rooted prejudices of human nature. Such a people as this must have a government of some traditional authority, identified with the national history, recalling the days of the national prosperity and glory. To liken Paris and Lyons to Boston and Philadelphia, the peasantry of Gascony to the yeomen of New Hampshire, is absurd.

The writer in the *North American* goes on to say:

"When at last it [Napoleonism] gave way, *crumbling into very dust at the mere touch of the enemy*, the world expressed its surprise, and fell to studying the causes of the disaster. What had long been understood by the most intelligent observers came now, on closer observation, to be generally admitted, namely, that Napoleonism has proved a lamentable failure, and that it may be well characterized as *a system of appearances without substance, and of pretence without reality.*"

What ideas of "a mere touch of the enemy" the learned writer may entertain I know not. Neither the formidable armies of the Germans nor the ability of the Count von Moltke has ever given rise to a similar reflection in my own mind. But the remark, absurd as it is, shows how easy it is for a writer on history to idealize everything, and to fail to examine the facts. The truth is, that, taking into account the immense advantage possessed by an invading army since the building of railroads, the invasion of France in 1870 was more dangerous than the invasion of Russia in 1812, which was at the time the greatest military expedition of modern times. And disastrous as the war was for France, every one must admit that the means employed to effect her overthrow were unprecedented. She went down under the attack,—but not at "the mere touch" of the enemy. Prussia succumbed in 1806 in half the time, and Austria, in 1866, in less than that. If the French Emperor had acted with the prudence of his Austrian brother, he would have saved his throne. It is true, the French were greatly outnumbered; but they suffered more from incompetent generals than from being outnumbered. Bazaine surrendering 180,000 men; the insane march of McMahon to the Belgian frontier—these are what ruined France and dethroned the Emperor. Am I asked, Is not the Empire responsible for this incompetence by its demoralizing effect on the tone of public men? I ask in return, What would have been the result if Lee had met McClellan on the Peninsula with twice his numbers? Or if the sapient strategy of Lincoln and Stanton in the Valley had been met not only with Stonewall Jackson's skill, but by an overwhelming force of numbers at his back? I cannot forget the hasty opinions of our English brethren on the value of our institutions expressed at these junctures, and I call upon those who desire only the truth to remember how long it has taken a nation like ours to select the best generals.

The French put into the field by the first of August over 250,000 men, and by the first of September 150,000 more. These facts alone confute the charge that the Empire was "a system of appearances without substance, and of pretence without reality." But these armies were sacrificed through lack of skill. The Emperor undoubtedly showed himself an incompetent general, and painfully irresolute in all his decisions, during the campaign; so did his chief officers. The enemy were in overpowering numbers; they lost no time, they made no mistakes; the regular army of France went down, and the Empire with it. But does any one, even the bitterest opponent of Napoleon, believe that Louis Philippe or Charles X. would have survived such an invasion as this?

I have perhaps said too much; I have, however, said what I believe to be true. I have said but little of the Emperor's faults, but in the existing state of public opinion it is not necessary to enlarge upon them.

J. C. R.

Boston, January 13, 1873.

SOME FACTS FOR "GOVERNOR" KELLOGG.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Accompanying this we send you a copy of a pamphlet containing a condensed statement of the proceedings in the State Courts of Louisiana with reference to the Boards of Returning Officers. You will see by this that your New Orleans correspondent errs in his explanation of the case, as follows:

First: The Lynch-Hawkins Board was enjoined by Judge Dibble, as well as the Warmoth-Wharton Board. (See page 4.)

Second: The Eighth District Court, Judge Elmore presiding, subsequently dismissed all the cases relating to the boards, for the reason that the law approved Nov. 20, 1872, abolished the offices, and thereby terminated all rights or claims upon them, on the part of either plaintiffs or defendants. (See page 4.)

Third: The Lynch-Hawkins Board made their promulgation under Judge Durell's decision, and without *any* official returns.

Fourth: The Lynch-Hawkins Board was restrained by the Eighth District Court from counting votes, or assumed votes, not included in the returns, and from excluding votes except upon the affidavits and testimony required by law; and to this injunction they paid no attention whatever. (See page 7.)

Fifth: The list of persons assumed to constitute a legislature was placed by the United States Marshal in the hands of the officer commanding the United States forces occupying the State House, and that officer admitted to the building only those thus designated.

Sixth: The Legislature thus composed impeached and removed Governor Warmoth, partially remodelled the State judiciary, and declared the election of Kellogg and Antoine, being all that time, and at this moment, protected by United States soldiers who now occupy the State House. Very respectfully yours,

E. B. Wheelock,
Albert C. Janin,
Representing Citizens' Committee of Louisiana.
Durant da Ponte,
Representing Joint Committee Louisiana Legislature.

Washington, D. C., January 17, 1873.

PUBLISHING COLLEGE EXAMINATION PAPERS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Everybody has heard of the humorist in Newport and his new fence. The native Newporter is said to spend his time in nothing else but either to tell or to hear some new thing. In deference to this amiable weakness, a placard was put on the fence, running somewhat in this wise:

"NOTICE.—This fence is to be built by John Jones, and painted by John Smith; it is to be 127 feet long and 4 feet 4½ inches high; it is to be done on the 27th of August."

A university in this State caters to a morbid public curiosity quite in the Newport way by printing the examination-papers of the year in the annual catalogue. Whether the publication of such domestic details is likely to do any good, either to the student in search of a university to go to, or to the public at large, is doubtful. Examination-papers necessarily give a very imperfect idea, even to scholars, of the character or amount of the instruction given. To the outside public, who cannot see the bearing of the conundrums put, or their connection with the daily teaching, they must often seem puerile, sometimes even farcical, and must tend to lower the low estimate in which universities are too apt to be held by men of affairs. Besides, public curiosity is as insatiable as the daughters of the horseleech. If Mr. Beecher should put a notice in the *Christian Union* that he was to dine to-morrow on beefsteak and fried potatoes, some fidgety spirits would never rest till they were told whether the potatoes were Jackson Whites or the Early Rose, and how he came to have them fried and not boiled in the jacket. That numerous class in the community, meddlers with education, will hardly be contented with the imperfect revelations of the college catalogue, and we may expect soon to hear their unsatisfied "give, give." The only persons benefited by the publication of these papers are the undergraduates of the university, who with a little shrewd cramming-up on past papers will be enabled to anticipate their future examinations. This may in the end do good by making examinations of less account, and thus counteracting the evil toward which the American College just now seems drifting—that of attaching too much importance to examinations.

N. N.

New York, Jan. 20.

Notes.

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO., following the example of other leading American publishers, have begun the publication of a 'Library of Choice Fiction.' The first issue is Mrs. Oliphant's 'At His Gates.'——Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, will publish 'The Bonaparte-Patterson Marriage in 1803, and the Secret Correspondence on the Subject,' collected and arranged from inedited letters by W. T. R. Saffell; also, 'Romain Kalbris,' from the French of Hector Malot, by Mrs. Julia McNair Wright.——A biography of the late Rev. Dr. Eliphalet Nott, by Prof. Tayler Lewis and Dr. C. Van Santvoord, is in preparation and will be published by Gould & Lincoln, Boston.——J. R. Osgood & Co. are to reproduce all the works of Jules Verne, whose 'Adventures of Three Russians, etc.' was lately noticed in the *Nation*.——'Buckle's Posthumous Works and Remains,' edited by Miss

Helen Taylor, will be reprinted here by Scribner, Welford & Armstrong, as will John Timbs's 'Clubs and Club-Life in London'; a uniform illustrated edition of the 'Life and Works of Charlotte Brontë and her Sisters'; a pocket edition of the Waverley Novels; and a 'Manual of Mythology,' by Alexander S. Murray.——G. P. Putnam's Sons' spring list embraces a large number of works published jointly with London houses, of which we need only mention the reprint in one volume of the 'First Three English Books on America: 1521–1555 A.D.,' to be subscribed for at $9. Other works, manufactured here, are 'The Mother's Register,' by Prof. J. B. Fonssagrives; 'A Manual of Thermometry,' by Dr. Edward Seguin; 'First Steps in Geography,' by Theodore S. Fay; 'The Berber,' a romance of Morocco, by W. S. Mayo, M.D.——A work which ought to give a great impulsion to the study and practice of phonography is the 'Dictionary of Munson's Practical Phonography,' to be published shortly by Mr. J. E. Munson, of this city. The prospectus states that "besides giving the most approved phonographic outline of each word in the language, and its position, it will present all the principles of phraseography, illustrated with numerous examples, so that the learner as well as the experienced writer will have a perfect book of reference to guide him at every point, and also securing the desirable result of absolute uniformity of writing among phonographers." Along with this Mr. Munson will also publish a much-needed 'Text-book of Munson's Phonography,' prepared with particular reference to school instruction.—— Dodd & Mead have in press 'Wanderings in Spain,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, with illustrations; 'Luchmee and Dilloo,' a novel by Edward Jenkins, author of 'Ginx's Baby' and 'The Coolie,' perhaps based on his Guiana experiences; 'De Soto,' by J. S. C. Abbott; also new editions of Edward Garrett's 'Occupations of a Retired Life,' and 'Crust and Cake.' "Edward Garrett," by the way, is not, as would naturally have been inferred from our notice last week of 'Premiums Paid to Experience,' a man but a woman (Mrs. Isabella Mayo, of London), and still young. She is a leading contributor to the *Sunday Magazine*.

—In the new-born zeal of the Japanese for reform and improvement of every kind, there seems to be absolutely no limit to what they are willing to attempt. The attention of our public has been again during the past week attracted to this by the publication of a letter from Mr. Mori to Prof. Whitney of Yale College, proposing the adoption by the Japanese nation of the English language in place of its own vernacular; but of our English language improved by planing out its irregularities, and also reformed in orthography. The correspondence is not very recent, but dates from last May and June. It is to be, we understand, in due time brought out in full by Mr. Mori. In anticipation of its more public appearance, it was laid before the American Oriental Society last October, in New Haven, and discussed and commented on at some length. The sentiment of the Society appeared to sustain the principal positions taken by Professor Whitney in his reply, which are somewhat as follows: In all the history of the world, no nation has exchanged its own dialect for another because of the intrinsic superiority of that other as an instrument of thought and means of improvement; the inducement has been mainly external—the desire to enter into a community of culture with a more advanced race. This advantage the Japanese would in great measure lose if, in adopting English, they worked it over into a shape that made it strange, and even ridiculous, to its English and American users; the very slight gain in point of ease of acquisition would not at all make good the loss. For similar reasons, they cannot afford to ignore the established English orthography, although they may well enough bridge over the difficulty by first learning spoken English in an orthography accordant with that which they shall adopt for their own language, reserving the written form (pending the phonetic reform which may some day come in English itself) for a higher stage of education. But to substitute a new and wholly different language for an old one through the whole mass of a great community must be, if practicable at all, an extremely difficult and slow process; and that the educated and leading class should do their work wholly by means of a foreign tongue would have deplorable results; it would lead to the foundation of a learned caste, separated by a wide gulf from the main body of the people, and might defer indefinitely the general elevation of the nation. To prevent this, the Japanese tongue must also be the object of utmost care; it must be first emancipated from Chinese influence, and written phonetically with the Western alphabet, and then made accessible to and enriched by new stores of expression from English or other Western languages, as intercourse and the growth of knowledge shall bring them in. Perhaps, with such care, the Japanese will prove itself equal to all that the future shall demand of it; this the future alone can decide, and will. The present generation can only initiate the movement, and their leaders need to beware lest they attempt the impracticable, and put obstacles in the way of the progress they have most at heart. There is indeed something startling in the suggestion that our language should be adopted by the leading race of the extreme East, when hitherto not one Oriental people possessing culture of its own has been found willing even to adopt our mode of writing; and we are in some danger of being thrown off our balance by the magnificence of the idea, and led to favor and abet a precipitate radicalism which will defeat its own ends.

—If we are to believe the captains of the ten police precincts in Brooklyn, life in that city is remarkably free from almost all the pests of modern civilization. The Police Commissioners recently directed the police captains to make a thorough investigation into the number of gambling-houses, "policy-shops," "panel places," and other houses of doubtful reputation in Brooklyn; and according to the reports made, there are really no places of this sort worth mentioning within the city limits. For example, we take from the *Herald* the account given of the third precinct:

"*Third Precinct* (Captain Daniel Ferry).—This precinct, which is one of the largest in the city and embraces the most thickly populated section of South Brooklyn, is free from the haunts of vice described in the general order to which his attention was called. In his report the veteran and energetic captain states that some time ago a man who called himself Edgar Wallace sold policy slips in a lamp store at 52 Union Street, and was arrested no less than four times for the offence. Upon one occasion Wallace was fined. If again caught, he will be attended to."

It is a little singular, considering the Arcadian condition of society described in these reports, that the board to which they were made immediately issued an order announcing that the commanding officers of the precincts or subprecincts will, "from this date" (Jan. 9), be held responsible "for a more effective protection of the person and property of our citizens, the enforcement of all city ordinances and excise laws, the suppression of gambling, lotteries, and other violations of law, in their respective precincts." We learn from the *World* that this order was issued "in view of the recent increase in crime in Brooklyn."

—The late Rev. Joshua Leavitt, D.D., whose death occurred last week, was one of the oldest journalists in the country, having been an editor in this city for the past forty-four years. He was a native of Massachusetts, born in 1794, and graduated at Yale, after which he began the study of law, practised awhile in Putney, Vt., then prepared for the ministry, and was settled in Stratford, Conn. He left the pulpit to engage in the reform movements of the day as secretary of Temperance and Seamen's Friend societies, and at length in 1831 became editor and proprietor of the N. Y. *Evangelist*, to which he gave so decided an anti-slavery character that it could not circulate at the South, and began to lose its Northern patronage also, till his timely reporting of Dr. Finney's Revival lectures gained for the paper the then large number of 12,000 subscribers. Obliged to dispose of the *Evangelist* in consequence of the financial crash of 1837, he at once took charge of the N. Y. *Emancipator*, while in other ways actively promoting the anti-slavery cause both in the moral and political field. In 1848 he became office editor of the *Independent*, and death overtook him while still one of its editors, though his advanced age had for some years made his duties little more than nominal. He retained to the last, however, a lively interest in all matters relating to the national welfare, more especially in free-trade and cheap postage. For his writings on the former subject he was awarded a gold medal by the Cobden Society. Of late years, also, he published pamphlet essays on Denmark and Poland, in which he combated the modern principle of nationality—at least in its exaggerated pretensions—in favor of the state which is now *par excellence* the champion of nationality in Europe. Dr. Leavitt's style was clear and forcible, and in the religious controversy once so fashionable he had few superiors. He was altogether a typical New Englander for his day and generation, and will long be remembered for his services to the country, as well as for those personal qualities which ensured him a green and kindly old age.

—By the death of Lord Lytton, on Saturday last, the guild of British men of letters loses one of its most prominent members. To literature itself the loss is not so great, partly because it is now some years since Lord Lytton completed and rounded his literary career, and partly because, industrious and successful as he was, and he was very industrious and in many ways successful, to no one of his many and various works can any high rank be assigned. He was a writer of poetry and a clever one; but his metrical productions, although workmanlike and skilful, fail of being poetry. He was a dramatist, and one or two of his plays seem certain to keep the stage for many a year yet; but it is with a feeling that the theatre of our day is indeed mainly an amusement for the immature and youthful that one witnesses the love, and pride, and magnanimity, and honor, and devotion, and other fine sentiments of Claude Melnotte and Mademoiselle Deschapelles. He was a popular novelist and won much praise, and some of it very well

deserved; but it was rarely that the judicious were not compelled to grieve over some radical fault, moral or intellectual, in one of his novels, and he may be said to have all but outlived a much-faded reputation. Perhaps it is the easier to feel a dissatisfaction with him, that clever as was his performance on almost every occasion there used formerly to be a pretentiousness about it which was out of all proportion with the result. He was perpetually talking of his "art" and then making poorish books. Is he to turn out an entirely commonplace poem about King Arthur, unreadable even by reviewers? We may be sure that it will be an epic poem in twelve books or twenty-four books, and that it will be prefaced by an elaborate theory of epic poetry, as calmly put forth as if the topic were a new one, and the theory and the poem both worth having. So, too, of his novels and his dramas, whenever he builds a good-enough wooden Gothic castle, there is sure to be put up an amount of scaffolding which nothing less than the erection of a massive and enduring structure would justify. In all this there appeared to be something of charlatanry; and it seemed altogether in harmony with the false sentiment, and false thought, and false morality, which abound in all his earlier works, and which Thackeray used to lash so unmercifully and so humorously in his representation of "Bulwig," and against which he fought so ably in the really terrible novel of 'Catherine.' Very thoroughly the castigation was deserved, for bad enough is the morality and feeble enough the thinking in such stories as 'Alice,' and 'Devereux,' and 'Paul Clifford.' These were produced, however, in days which, as this death and the rest of the long necrological roll of the last few months cause us to remind ourselves, were the days of long ago. It is nearly half a century since 'Devereux,' for instance, was the latest novel that had engaged the attention of the town. In 1829, that work of fiction appeared, when George the Fourth was king, and its author was a youth not quite twenty-four years old; but he had already published half a dozen volumes, none of which, as may be conceived, contained all the wisdom in the world, and the fame of which never reached the ears of the reigning Queen of Sheba. As years and experience sobered him, nothing was to be urged on the score of morality against his books. And very good they are, some of them, in other senses too, as is well known to all readers of 'The Caxtons,' 'My Novel,' 'What Will He Do With It?' Of 'Zanoni,' "the well-loved work of my mature manhood," and the still later 'Strange Story,' with their somewhat fustian profundities and terrors, not so much can be said; but in general the later works and essays have surely given much rational pleasure to many minds, while as to the earlier, there are at least some readers left—whether or not there are many more coming—whose hearts will always have a soft side for 'The Pilgrims of the Rhine,' those singular tourists, and even for the choice sentiments of the Maltraverses and the other gentlemen who lived and loved and had their being in the "Bulwig" period.

—Lord Lytton (Edward George Earle Lytton Bulwer Lytton) was born in May, 1805. He was emphatically literary, and is said to have begun writing at the age of six years, though it was one of his characteristic affectations throughout his life to profess small regard for his reputation as a novelist and dramatist. His inclination in this direction was fostered by his mother, a woman of some attainments, who personally supervised his early education. He graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1826, and by the end of that year had published two volumes of verse and one of prose. 'Pelham, or the Adventures of a Gentleman,' came out anonymously in 1827, and speedily became a success. In the same year occurred his marriage to an Irish lady, Miss Rosina Wheeler, of much vivacity of temper and intellect, who after a few years separated from him and thereafter made a practice of showing up her husband's foibles and faults in novels much forgotten, whose principal attraction for the public was their lively delineation of Bulwer and his friends, Dickens among others coming in for some raps. These never hurt Bulwer in reputation, and it seems to be the best-accepted opinion that they should not. Regularly with each year publishing his one or two or three volumes, we find him in 1831 a Liberal Whig member of the House of Commons, he being then Mr. Bulwer. In 1838, on the occasion of the coronation of Queen Victoria, he was made a baronet, he having been selected for that honor as a representative of literature, and the late Sir John Herschel, the astronomer, as a representative of science. It was in 1836 that Bulwer made his first attempt at dramatic literature; but the play, 'The Duchess of La Vallière,' was rather a failure than otherwise. It was like him to return to the attack. His confidence in his own ability to manufacture any species of literary work was like that which animated Southey when, as a boy, he remarked that nothing was easier than to write a tragedy. And of him, too, it might as fairly have been said as it was said of Southey, that indeed nothing is easier than to write a tragedy—except to a writer of really good tragedies. However, in 1838, Sir Edward Bulwer produced the brilliantly successful 'Lady of Lyons'—a play which, we may be sure, will be captivating our children long after we have ceased to interest ourselves in sublunary affairs. We have not space to chronicle so much as the titles of all our author's volumes—novels, political pamphlets, translations, poems, historical works, plays, addresses, essays. He continued to work steadily in literature and politics for many years—even, we may say, till he died. In 1843, he succeeded to his mother in her valuable estate, at the same time changing his name to her maiden name of Lytton. In 1866, he was made Baron Lytton, and he will be succeeded in the title and estates by his son Robert Bulwer Lytton, who is somewhat known as a poetical writer. The latter, by the bye, was at one time attached to the British Legation at Washington; and the father was Under-Secretary of State of the Colonies in 1858 and '59, when the Hudson's Bay Company monopoly was abolished.

—The mistakes that the compositors in newspaper offices in Italy make in the spelling of English are often amusing. In the *Giornale di Modena* of December 20, 1872, is an account of the life of General Palma di Cesnola and of his discoveries, of which we have given a description on another page. Mentioning the banquet given last Thanksgiving Day in London by Mr. Cyrus W. Field, at which General Cesnola was a guest, the *Giornale* speaks of it as "il gran banchetto del *Iakes pivinny day* della festa nationale americana, tenuta a Buchigham Palace Hotel." "Iakes pivinny" must be a puzzler to the young Italian eager to learn English.

MIDDLEMARCH.*

I.

THERE is a well-known remark of Novalis that character is destiny, which George Eliot criticises severely in the 'Mill on the Floss,' on the ground that destiny depends rather on circumstances than on disposition. 'Middlemarch' might have been written to illustrate at once the truth of the dictum and of the criticism. The main feature of the book is, that it is a history of the development, and generally of the tragic development, of characters which are sometimes noble, sometimes base, and generally neither very noble nor very base, amidst the commonplace circumstances of a country town. That this is the author's theme, as regards Dorothea, is patent. Her outward history, and the moral to be drawn from it, are thus summed up:

"She was spoken of (in Middlemarch) to a younger generation as a fine girl who married a sickly clergyman old enough to be her father, and in little more than a year after his death gave up her estate to marry his cousin, young enough to have been his son, with no property and not well-born. Those who had not seen anything of Dorothea observed that she could not have been a 'nice woman,' else she would not have married either the one or the other. Certainly these determining acts of her life were not ideally beautiful; they were the mixed result of a young and noble impulse struggling under prosaic conditions. Among the many remarks made on her mistakes, it was never said in the neighborhood of Middlemarch that such mistakes could not have happened if the society into which she was born had not smiled on propositions of marriage from a sickly man to a girl less than half his own age, on modes of education which make a woman's knowledge another name for motley ignorance, on rules of conduct which are in flat contradiction with its own loudly asserted beliefs. While this is the social air in which we mortals begin to breathe, there will be collisions such as those in Dorothea's life, when great feelings take the aspect of error and great faith the aspect of illusion."

This passage is remarkable in itself, but its main interest for our present purpose is that, though written of Dorothea, its spirit applies to all the principal personages of the novel. In Lydgate, in Rosamond, in Casaubon, in every other person meant to incite interest, what we are called upon to note is the action of circumstances upon character. "There is no creature so strong that it is not greatly determined by what lies outside it." This is the text of the whole work. Like most texts, it sounds at the first hearing like a truism, but it is a truism to which George Eliot's genius has restored all the vividness of a truth.

The main instance, of course, of its application is to be found in the history of Dorothea herself. The actual events of her life are summed up with fairness by Middlemarch gossip. She did marry a clergyman twice her own age, and she committed this folly without anything which, to ordinary persons, would seem a great temptation to the step. She married his cousin shortly after her first husband's death, and again acted free from the stress of any overpowering necessity. Neither act was, as George Eliot admits, "ideally beautiful," yet no one can doubt the nobleness of Dorothea's character, and few persons who study 'Middlemarch' will long maintain that her actions, blamable or praiseworthy, were not, on the whole, the most natural outcome of her disposition and

* 'Middlemarch: A Study of Provincial Life. By George Eliot.' Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons. New York: Harper & Brothers.

circumstances. From the first moment you meet her dividing her jewels with Celia, you perceive that she is full of noble aspirations, of life, ignorance, and of impatience. The beauty, and also the defects, of her nature arise from this fulness of life and impatience. She is always trying to escape from little commonplace ways and thoughts, and in the hurry to do so is constantly overlooking things which are commonplace enough, but which, unfortunately, are also true. "Celia," said Dorothea with emphatic gravity, "pray don't make any more observations of that kind." "Why not? They are quite true," returned Celia. . . . "Many things are true *which only the commonest minds observe.*" "Then I think the commonest minds must be rather useful. I think it is a pity that Mr. Casaubon's mother had not a commoner mind, she might have taught him better." The two sisters are discussing Mr. Casaubon's disagreeable manner of eating his soup. He is already, although unknown to Celia, Dorothea's accepted lover. Dorothea had accepted him because she saw he had a "great soul," and while dreaming about great souls had neglected to make the observations which occur to commoner minds. The tragedy, in fact, of her life turns on her being so occupied with very noble notions, and so impatient to carry them out, that she failed to notice the commonplace things at her feet. In all her ways, great and small, there is manifest the rush and movement of life. Her delight in riding at a time when she thought the amusement rather worldly, her rapid driving and walking to work off her indignation at her lover's supposed treachery, her sudden, abrupt speeches, are all the outward signs of the same tendency to movement, expression, and action. This tendency is balanced by the keenness of feeling and intensity of sympathy which are sometimes seen in natures overflowing with vigor. The sympathy and the energy combined lead to the noblest act of her career, when, by a gigantic effort of self-sacrifice, she saves her supposed rival, her lover, and herself. But though in the interview with Rosamond you see all the grand side of a noble, impetuous disposition which disdains little things and breaks through petty rules, yet you are never supposed to forget that the same impetuosity is perpetually dragging Dorothea into errors, sometimes of trifling importance, but occasionally of infinite magnitude.

Two curious traits connected with the sympathetic, and at the same time vehement, turn of her mind, are specially worth notice as being true to nature but likely to escape observation. She was interested in intellectual pursuits, and her good uncle, Mr. Brooke, amongst others, obviously believes that she had carried her taste for learning beyond the certain point at which he held that every course of action ought to stop. "You have not," he says, "the same tastes as every young lady; and a clergyman and a scholar who may be a bishop, that kind of thing may suit you better than Chettam. Chettam is a good fellow, a good, sound-hearted fellow, you know, but he does not go much into ideas. I did when I was his age." But in spite of appearances, and in spite, probably, of Dorothea's own estimate of herself, she has little taste for knowledge. Her admiration for Casaubon's supposed learning really arose, as George Eliot is most careful to point out, from the idea that his wide knowledge would give her an insight into the problems of life which affected her personally. How to make and act up to a noble theory of life for herself was what she thought she wanted to achieve. What she seems truly to have needed was sympathy and a wide field for her power of affection. But for knowledge in itself she cared as little as was possible for any person gifted with keen intelligence. She was again, though some of her ardent admirers may dispute this, deficient in tact. This deficiency did not arise from obtuseness, but was, as it sometimes is, the result of impatience. The same characteristic which led her to rush nobly to Lydgate's defence without considering as accurately as more prudent persons whether his conduct might not turn out indefensible, led her also to press Mr. Casaubon on the two points on which his mind was naturally the most sore—the slow progress of his great work and the way in which he was bound, in Dorothea's view, to make restoration to Will. The latter instance is peculiarly characteristic, because, to give even a pedant his due, as regards the provision for Will, Casaubon was in the right and Dorothea distinctly in the wrong. There is, perhaps, nothing in the whole work better than the way in which the readers see that, while Dorothea had sacrificed herself through mistaking the pettiest and dreariest of pedants for a man like Locke and endowed with a great soul, they are also made to feel that this miserable scholar could hardly have met with a greater calamity than his marriage to Miss Brooke. "I," says George Eliot somewhere with the curious irony which distinguishes 'Middlemarch,' "am rather inclined to pity Mr. Casaubon;" and though this sentiment may strike some enthusiastic readers like an expression of compassion for the sufferings of an odious and cold-blooded reptile, yet it is perfectly just. You have in Mr. Casaubon the worst type of that much praised, and at best not very noble character, the gentleman and the scholar. Except in the matter of his will, when jealousy and ill-health had broken down his gentlemanlike habits, he acts as a gentleman. He also shows distinctly enough that he really is a scholar. He has, in fact, developed a kind of dreariness of mind which could be the result of nothing but a life devoted to the cramping pursuit of inner scholarship. But for the rest, he is a man who is always deficient in vitality, eaten up by egotism and jealousy, and by an indistinct consciousness of his own incapacity. His one consolation in marriage would have been a wife stupid enough to admire him, and apathetic enough to leave him to repose. He does marry a wife who, within six months, finds out that he is a sham and suspects "the reconciliation of the mythologies" to be an imposture, who is prepared for every effort of self-sacrifice, and whose sense of duty and superabundant vitality scarcely leave a moment's true repose either to herself or to her husband. If it is possible for the fate of an utterly mean and contemptible nature to be tragic, the marriage with Miss Brooke makes life as great a tragedy to Casaubon as to his wife. Each of them is, by the irony of circumstances, placed in an utterly false position. Indeed, though Dorothea's life is, in many respects, a failure, still you close the book with a feeling that a noble nature succeeded at last in finding genuine happiness, if not in developing to true greatness. The real tragedy of 'Middlemarch,' and by far the most original part of the book, lies in the story of Lydgate, which records the steps by which genius and energy sink at last, overpowered by the force of circumstances, and of circumstances of the pettiest nature.

The flaw in Lydgate's nature, and the ultimate source of his fall, is a certain "commonness" in his views of everything unconnected with his science. Hence his liking for respectable appearances, hence his original underestimate of Miss Brooke because she was a woman a little out of the common line. Hence his immediate admiration for Rosamond and the marriage which is the bane of his life. The thing to notice is how perfectly natural is this commonness, and how naturally it works out its results. Most readers probably detest Rosamond, principally because of her complete satisfaction with herself, too much to do justice to her victim. But take Rosamond with all her self-satisfaction, pettiness, and duplicity as she is known to the reader, and as, be it remarked, she could be known to nobody else, and she still remains a woman with whom ninety-nine men out of a hundred would most indubitably fall in love. Nor, again, was Lydgate's commonness the only cause of his failure. He fell as men do fall, quite as much by his merits as by his defects. Being a man of genuinely strong affections, he was always in dealing with Rosamond at the untold disadvantage of loving much and scarcely being loved at all. Every pain he gave her was a double pang to himself, whilst her flinty nature was incapable of feeling that she gave pain to others, or of suffering from any pain except mortification to herself. Lydgate's affection, as far as it had any effect on Rosamond, disgusted her, for it deprived him of the kind of calmness which might perhaps have impressed her imagination, or at least cowed her will.

The action and reaction of Lydgate's character upon Rosamond, and Rosamond's upon Lydgate, is merely one example of that power of analyzing the effect of one nature upon another which is one of the most marked features of George Eliot's mind. Contrast her writings, for example, with the works of Thackeray. You will find in the latter a number of characters quite as striking and perhaps more consistent than those painted by the author of 'Middlemarch.' But with rare exceptions, the characters of Thackeray each stand out distinct and separate from one another. You know Ethel, and you know Clive. You perfectly understand Becky or Sir Pitt Crawley, but you do not generally see, and Thackeray does not generally care to make you see, the exact influence say of Ethel upon Clive. You do not feel that they, acting together, are something essentially different from what either of them would have been uninfluenced by the other. But throughout 'Middlemarch' the influence of mind upon mind is never left out of sight. Dorothea is half-checked, half-irritated by Celia. She is oppressed in the presence of Casaubon, and develops freely under the sunshine of Will's superficial geniality. Casaubon himself is constantly suffering from the consciousness that he is surrounded by unadmiring acquaintance. Lydgate's impatience is brought into play by Rosamond's cold-hearted impassibility, and Rosamond herself chills into something slightly more icy than she was by nature under disgust at Lydgate's violence. Take what page you will of the book, and you will find examples of this play of character upon character, and you will also find that, in general, by a strange irony, the inferior character warps and in a sense triumphs over the superior nature.

For, after all, if it were necessary to fix upon any one quality as the characteristic trait of the book, few attentive critics would hesitate to name irony, taking a very extensive sense of the term, as its distinguishing feature. The avowed irony of much of the writing is too obvious to call for much notice. What is better worth observation is the indirect forms in which the

same tendency shows itself. There is, for example, a constant irony of situation. Misfortunes befall men just at the moment when they feel the safest from them. Bulstrode buys a charming house, and walks there on a summer evening wrapped in satisfactory religious meditation. He finds in the garden the villain who makes his life a misery. At the cost of something very like murder, he rids himself of his tormentor. He rides home happy after weeks of misery, and almost immediately discovers that the disgrace he had risked his soul to avoid has fallen upon him. This irony of situation often appears in George Eliot's other works, as, for example, where Arthur Donnithorne returns to take possession of his estate, full of good spirits and good intentions, and finds that his intrigue with Hetty has led to all its miserable results. But this contrast between a person's own estimate of his circumstances and his real position is by no means the most subtle way in which George Eliot draws the eternal contrast between what seems and what is. It appears often in the merest turn of a sentence. What, for example, can be a more bitter sarcasm between a man's own feeling of misery and his friend's vapid consolations than Mr. Brooke's advice to Casaubon, broken-hearted with the knowledge that his life would not suffice to finish his work?

"Yes, yes," said Mr. Brooke, "get Dorothea to play backgammon with you in the evenings, and shuttlecock. Now I don't know a finer game than shuttlecock for the daytime. . . . But you must unbend, you know. Why, you might take to some light study, conchology, now—I always think that must be a light study—or get Dorothea to read you light things, Smollett, 'Roderick Random,' 'Humphrey Clinker.' They are a little broad, but she may read anything now she is married, you know."

"I never give up anything that I choose to do," said Rosamond (referring to her engagement). "God bless you," said Lydgate, kissing her again. This constancy in the right place was adorable.

These sentences are simple enough; but any one who has followed Lydgate's career to its close will hardly read them without something like a chill of horror, for Lydgate pours blessings upon that wretched constancy of purpose which constitutes his lifelong torture. Exactly the same characteristic appears in the conversations of common people, auctioneers, horse-dealers, and landladies, in which George Eliot delights. They are no doubt amusing and truthful enough in themselves, but they derive a peculiar gusto from their presenting an unconscious parody on the thoughts and language of educated persons. But all the minor forms of irony sink to nothing compared with the irony of the lesson enforced by the conclusion of 'Middlemarch' itself. Every one who has commenced life with high aspirations either, like Lydgate, ends in misery, or, like Dorothea, purchases happiness by foregoing all ideal aims. The only persons who prosper are either selfish or commonplace. Fred, who is the very model of an ordinary selfish young man, ends as a prosperous gentleman. Will, who throughout life is and could be nothing but an amateur, gains all his wishes. Rosamond, after causing misery to others which she had not the sense even to perceive, is "rewarded" by getting rid of her husband, whom she did not like, and keeping his fortune and position, which were sufficient to make her happy. The conclusion of the whole matter is, that happiness depends on the adaptation of character to circumstances, and that, therefore, in a commonplace world, commonplace characters alone have a fair chance of happiness.

Fine Arts.

THE CESNOLA COLLECTION OF ANTIQUITIES FROM CYPRUS.

IT has been known for some time past that this collection of antiquities has been secured by the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of the Fine Arts as the foundation of the archæological department. It has just arrived in New York, and, although some time must elapse before it can be properly arranged for exhibition, our readers may be glad to have a more complete account of it than has been given in such brief notices as have already appeared in the journals, including our own.

During the past autumn and early winter the collection has been on view in London, where the present writer had an opportunity of seeing it, and there has been but one opinion among those competent to judge as to its extraordinary interest and importance, as well in the illustration of ancient history as of ancient art. A very general regret is expressed in England and on the Continent that, through the supineness of the authorities of the British Museum, a collection so precious to the scholar and to the artist should have been lost to Europe. Since the days when the Elgin Marbles came to England there has been no collection of works of ancient art of such importance as this brought to the country. Layard's Ninevite discoveries had a more novel interest, and his collection gave a view of a less known civilization; Sir Charles Fellowes's researches in Lycia and Mr. Newton's at Halicarnassus brought to light extremely interesting works of art and antiquity; but they are not to be compared, either in extent and variety or in their illustration of the general history of ancient art, with this collection made by General di Cesnola.

It will be remembered that General di Cesnola was one of those foreign officers who offered their swords to our Government at the beginning of the rebellion, and one of the most distinguished during the war for the efficiency and brilliancy of his services. Very shortly after the war he received from our Government the appointment of Consul at Cyprus, and there he has resided, with short intervals of absence, up to the present time. His consular duties were not so arduous that he was unable to devote a portion of his time to other pursuits. His taste and culture led him to the study of the history and art of the island, and he soon convinced himself that, although both the French and English had at times made partial explorations of its soil for such antiquities as it might contain, much more remained to be brought to light than had as yet been discovered.

From a very early period Cyprus was the meeting-place of three distinct currents of civilization. It attracted the Phœnicians, it felt the influence of Egypt, it was long held by the Greeks. Its temples have been the resort of people of many nations, and its devotion to Venus was known throughout the ancient world. Pausanias reports the tradition that when Agapenor led a colony from Troy to Cyprus, and founded there, at Paphos, the famous temple dedicated to Venus Aphrodite, the Cypriotes already adored this goddess in a temple dedicated to her worship in the city of Golgos. And Catullus, addressing her, says: "Quæque regis Golgos, quæque Idalium frondosum."

The fame of Paphos eclipsed that of Golgos, however, and in the course of time the latter city was deserted, and disappeared; its very site became uncertain.

General di Cesnola, having secured a firman from the Porte authorizing him to make excavations, and to retain such articles as he might discover; having gathered such information as the ancient geographers afford; having personally inspected the localities, and acquainted himself with the lines of former exploration, set to work with intelligence and energy.

Excavations in the island are easily made, so far as the spade is concerned, for the soil is usually light and the climate dry; but they are attended with two special difficulties—one, that there exists no trustworthy tradition in regard to the ancient sites; the other, that no remains of ancient buildings remain above the ground. The ancient Cypriotes did not apparently use stone except in the foundation of their most important edifices; the walls were built of sun-dried brick, which, falling to ruin, covered the foundations, and gradually, under the influence of the weather, changed into a soil hardly distinguishable from that of the surrounding land, and assumed a natural surface that completely disguised the artificial form of the ancient structure.

After many minor excavations, chiefly among tombs, in which objects of more or less interest were brought to light, it was in the winter and spring of 1870 that General di Cesnola made the discovery which has secured for his name a high place in the list of explorers, and which has resulted in the unearthing of an unrivalled collection of the most interesting works of Cypriote art. Some years previously, the Count de Vogué had in vain sought for the necropolis and temple of Golgos. General di Cesnola, taking up the work where Vogué had left it, came first on the necropolis, and, on the 6th of March, had the good fortune to discover the remains of the temple itself—a temple unique not only in construction, but in the character of its contents. We take the following statement from a brief account of his discovery, which he addressed to the Royal Academy of Science at Turin:

"The area of the temple was well marked by the foundation of stone that I found at the depth of about two metres. It was sixty English feet in length by thirty in width; and in this narrow space were discovered about one thousand statues. They were unearthed with care; all were more or less mutilated, which would prove that the temple was destroyed either by a band of foreign invaders or Christian fanatics, probably the latter. About a third of the statues were of natural size, several were gigantic, and one must have been truly colossal, judging from the head, which was the only part found, and was one metre two centimetres in length.

"The form of the temple was quadrangular. From the bases of the columns which remained at the two doors it was apparent that the building had been of the Doric or Ionic order of architecture. The columns no longer existed, probably because they had been of wood, of which, Pausanias informs us, columns were often made, especially in Asia Minor. . . . Along the longitudinal walls were found many pedestals, arranged in several files, of all dimensions, some of them with bas-reliefs, some with Cypriot inscriptions, but the greater part without either.

"In the interior of the temple were three double files of pedestals, upon which apparently statues were originally placed, back to back—an arrangement which may serve to explain why many of the statues are wrought only in front.

"Among the ruins were found two broken stone seats and several vases of calcareous stone, and, scattered about everywhere, were many votive objects of stone, such as eyes, fingers, ears, figures of women with babies at the breast, very similar to such as, made of gold or silver, may be seen in Christian sanctuaries at the present day. Only two coins were discovered."

That this was the temple of Venus seems likely from various indications, especially from the fact that many of the statues had doves in their hands, the bird sacred to the goddess. There were indeed statues of Hercules and of Apollo also found, but their number was comparatively insignificant; and there is reason for believing that the ancients sometimes admitted into their temples images of other gods than the special divinity to whom the building might be consecrated.

But it was not alone the number of the statues that made this discovery remarkable. It was the extraordinary variety of execution and of type which they presented, affording the visible history of the influences to which the Cypriot artists had been exposed, and presenting a series of works of the most characteristic quality from a period, at the lowest computation, more than a thousand years before Christ down to the epoch of the Roman dominion in Cyprus, not long before the Christian era. The types of Assyrian, Phœnician, Egyptian, Greek, and Greco-Roman art are distinctly represented in this most curious assemblage; and it is no exaggeration to say that no other single building has ever afforded a collection representative of so long a period in the history of art, and of so many diverse types. This collection affords the links required for binding together the history of Greek art with that of the nations that had preceded it in civilization. Here the various arts had met as at a central point, and blended.

That the statues are of Cyprian workmanship is shown not only by their being carved from a soft calcareous stone, native to the island, but also by their countenances, at every period and under every influence, retaining some of the marked traits of the peculiar Cypriote physiognomy.

General di Cesnola, in his report to the Turin Academy, speaks as we have seen of the statues being all more or less mutilated; but many of them, though their heads may have been broken off at the neck, or their feet separated from their legs, or they may have suffered in other ways, are yet in a state of the most astonishing conservation. They are broken, but the parts are whole, and when put together the break no longer appears. The dry soil and air have preserved them so surprisingly that many, even of the oldest among them, are as fresh, as perfect in sharpness of cutting and in delicacy of touch, as if they had but just left the workshop.

But very few of the statues belong to the finest period of Greek art; and no one among them lays claim to exceptional beauty of form or figure, or any high imaginative work. The coarseness of grain of the stone of which they are made prevents the last refinement of modelling, and no Cypriote artist, so far as is known, was famed for genius in ancient times. But many of the statues have great beauties of detail, and exhibit ornamentation of exquisite design, and there are very few of them that are not distinguished by a high degree of individual characterization.

The collection contains, beside the statues, a vast number of objects in terra-cotta, bronze, and gold, found in the precincts or neighborhood of the temple, or in the tombs of Golgos and Idalium. In all, there are more than ten thousand articles—terra-cotta busts, of which some are of exquisite beauty, from the best epoch of Greek art; vases, cups, toys, lamps—a multitude of objects of curious interest in illustrating the ancient civilization. It is impossible in our limits to give even an enumeration of them. The collection contains specimens of almost every department of ancient fictile art.

The archæologic importance of the collection is at least equal to its artistic interest. It contains a larger body of inscriptions in the unknown Cypriote tongue than are to be found in all the museums of Europe put together. To decipher this language, to classify thoroughly the various works of art, to illustrate them from literature and history, and history and literature in return from them, will be a task for scholars for years to come.

It is fortunate that such a rare and interesting collection of antiquities should have been obtained for our chief museum. The trustees have shown excellent judgment in securing it. It raises the museum at once to a place of consideration. The same good judgment will lead to the most liberal use of these treasures. Before the collection left England permission was granted to the authorities of the British Museum to take casts from the inscriptions, and photographs from some of the most interesting objects. There are many duplicate specimens in the collection, and the trustees would do well to offer them in exchange for other works of ancient art to the great public museums in Europe. It is not only the British Museum that was in negotiation for the collection previous to its purchase for America; the Louvre and the museum at Berlin were desirous to secure the whole or a great part of it.

General di Cesnola is to be heartily congratulated on the brilliant results of his excavations. He proposes, we understand, to return to Cyprus and to renew his diggings. Paphos is yet untouched, and its famous temple may give to us even more precious works than those that Golgos has afforded. It would be well if the trustees of our museum could arrange with General di Cesnola for the acquisition of what he may hereafter discover.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

January 20, 1873.

WE are able this week to report the return of the money market to its usual settled condition at this season of the year. With the exception of one or two days, when in some cases 7 per cent. coin was paid, the ruling rate on call loans has been 6 to 7 per cent., with the supply at the close of business hours in excess of the demand. The more settled condition of the money market has stimulated business in commercial paper. The sales of the week have been at rates ranging from 8 to 10 per cent., and we have heard of some extra good names going as low as 7½ per cent.

The city banks are overloaded with national bank notes to such an extent that they have been glad to sell them to brokers at a discount of ¼ per cent. in order to get rid of them. At certain times of the year these notes cause great trouble to the banks here, owing to the fact of there being no place for their redemption. To assort and send them back to the banks by which they were issued would cause too much trouble and loss of time, and it has been frequently the habit of the New York banks to loan them out on time, from one to three weeks, free of interest, with the agreement that the loan should be paid in legal tenders when due. Numerous plans have been proposed for the establishment of redemption agencies in this city, but, for some reason, they have received no more than passing attention; probably the magnitude of the undertaking is too appalling.

The bank statement for the week ending January 18 is favorable, and shows that the banks have gained $809,075 in their net reserve, and now hold $5,499,100 in excess of the required 25 per cent. The following is the statement for the week compared with that of the previous week ending January 11:

	Jan. 11.	Jan. 18.	Differences.
Loans	$275,552,800	$278,209,600	Inc. $2,656,800
Specie	22,539,100	21,110,800	Dec. 1,428,300
Circulation	27,461,600	27,542,200	Inc. 80,600
Deposits	207,441,500	212,588,200	Inc. 5,146,700
Legal tenders	40,876,700	44,420,900	Inc. 3,544,200

The following analysis shows the relation of the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Jan. 11.	Jan. 18.	Differences.
Specie	$22,539,100	$21,110,800	Dec. $1,428,300
Legal tenders	40,876,700	44,420,900	Inc. 3,544,200
Total reserve	$63,415,800	$65,531,700	Inc. $2,115,900
Circulation	$27,461,600	$27,542,200	Inc. $80,600
Deposits	207,441,500	212,588,200	Inc. 5,146,700
Total liabilities	$234,903,100	$240,130,400	Inc. $5,227,300
25 per cent. reserve	58,725,775	60,032,600	
Excess over legal reserve	4,690,025	5,499,100	Inc. 809,075

The feeling among stock speculators in Wall Street is one of disappointment at the delay in the upward movement of prices, which it was confidently expected would follow the return of easy money. The "January rise" has not yet taken place, and the probable reason is, that the large operators who lead and control the market, although not short of stocks, prefer to see prices recede so as to enable them to "load up" at lower figures, as well as to "shake out" the small operators who are holding on to their stocks with the idea of selling out to any one who will buy at an advance, while the leading operators would prefer to buy at a decline. Another reason which has probably induced the leading spirits of the Street to hold off from organizing a "bull movement" and running prices up from what they were at the beginning of the year, is that the prices of stocks at that time were considerably higher than they have usually been at corresponding periods, and there was consequently less margin for an advance.

Business for the week at the Stock Exchange has been moderately active; the range of prices has been quite small, and the quotations of the leading active stocks have undergone but little change since our last report. The depression in Union Pacific, which on Monday sold at 34, was followed later in the week by a sharp reaction of three per cent., the stock selling at 37 on Thursday. Rumor had it that Washington parties, who thought that the Crédit Mobilier investigations would send the price lower, had sold the stock short to a large extent, and that the "old soldiers" of the Street had quietly turned the tables upon them and bid up the price, which caused the Washington parties to buy back the stock, that they had sold short, at a handsome loss. The speculation in Erie at times has been quite spirited, and the transactions in it have been larger than those in any other stock. On Wednesday the price advanced to 62⅜ from 58⅛ on Monday, the lowest point of the week. The stock of the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad Co. has rallied from the recent depression that had settled upon it in consequence of the extremely low price of coal, and the quarrel that has been going on between that Company and the Central Railroad Co. of New Jersey, relative to the consolidation of the earnings of the two roads, which was repudiated by the latter Company. The reported combination of several of the large railroad and canal companies, engaged in the transportation and mining of coal, to establish, by arbitrary measures, its future price in the different markets, has been the cause of the advance in the price of the stock from 94½ to 98—the Company being one of the largest producers in the country. The low price of coal last year caused the passing of its last two quarterly dividends. The combination proposed for the purpose of maintaining the price of coal at a figure which will pay to mine and ship it is very likely to succeed, if harmony continues to exist among the different parties who compose it, as they own and control an enormous quantity of coal lands, and nearly all the lines of transportation between the mines and the markets.

The price of Michigan Central has improved, and the last sales were at 108; the lowest point at which the stock sold during the recent decline was 104.

The Treasury, in its weekly bond purchase, on Wednesday, was again unsuccessful in obtaining the $1,000,000 5-20's advertised for, the total amount offered being only $218,600, at 111·98 to 112·38. $197,600 were taken at 111·98 to 111·99. The price of gold was 112¼ at the time the purchases were made, and the lowest price of the day was 112, from which it will be seen that Mr. Boutwell still construes the *lowest* price of the day as the *market price*. Government bonds have been firm throughout the week, with a very strong feeling at the close on Saturday, occasioned by the firmness and higher price of gold. The scarcity of bonds continues.

Efforts are being made to pay the interest upon the bonds of the State of Louisiana, due January 1, and it is rumored that it will soon be paid. There was little business done in State bonds during the week.

The railroad bond market has been fairly active, and a well-distributed business has been done. Boston, Hartford and Erie first-mortgage bonds continue on the downward track, selling at 42½ at the close of the week.

At a meeting on Tuesday the directors of the Erie Railway Company voted to issue $10,000,000 7 per cent. convertible gold bonds, and limited the price at which they should be sold to par. The object of this issue of bonds is to make improvements on the road by laying steel rails and a double track on some portions of it where needed, and also to lay a third rail. The broad gauge of the Erie (6 feet) is a serious drawback to the Company, and the change to the ordinary gauge of four feet eight and a half inches will place the road in a condition to enable it to accommodate the traffic coming from and going on to connecting roads, without necessitating the loss of time and cost of labor in breaking bulk. There have been doubts expressed as to the ability of the managers of the Company to negotiate the sale of the $10,000,000 bonds at the limit fixed upon. Unquestionably they will have to look to Europe as the market in which to place them, especially to London, where a strange infatuation has existed in regard to the value of the securities of this road. Already the road is mortgaged to the amount of $30,000,000, which is a prior lien upon the property, to say nothing of over $20,000,000 of leases.

The large importations of the week have been the cause of an advance in gold from 112⅛, the price at the commencement of the week, to 113¼, the highest price, on Saturday. The report of the Custom-house of the week's imports shows them to have been $11,000,000. The shipments for the week were unimportant, amounting to only $328,155, which makes the total amount shipped since January 1, 1873, $3,855,308, against $945,292 for the same period in 1872.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 30, 1873.

The Week.

THE Crédit Mobilier investigation has taken a new turn since last week, Oakes Ames having discovered a certain memorandum book and other papers which had been lost or mislaid, and which, strange to say, contain a great deal of valuable information with regard to the Congressmen implicated in the scandal. The history of his transactions with them, as the evidence now stands (for how it will be next week, when a few more people are "at bay," a few more statements and counter-statements, and perhaps an alibi or two, have been put into the case, it is impossible to say), is as follows: Some time in the year 1867 or 1868, an investigation into the affairs of the road being dreaded, and the "interest question," which we shall explain further on, coming up in the distance, Ames deposited $10,000 with the Sergeant-at-Arms of the House, this sum having come from the dividends of the Crédit Mobilier stock, to be declared. Then he "placed" the stock with the Congressmen he desired to have "look into the thing," selling the stock at par, it then being worth nobody knows how much, but at any rate a great deal more than par. Then, as the stock carried with it the dividends already "earned," these dividends were deducted from the price of the stock, which made the transaction a gift, or, plainly speaking, a bribe. To take the case of Mr. W. D. Kelley, for instance, he was to pay for ten shares of stock $1,000 and interest from July 1, 1867. On the other side of the account there was a dividend of 80 in bonds of the Union Pacific Railroad, which Ames says he received and sold for Mr. Kelley, and another in cash of 60 per cent. These together made considerably more than the $1,000 and interest; the balance due Mr. Kelley was exactly $329, which Ames paid him by a check payable to "W. D. K." drawn on the corruption fund in the hands of the Sergeant-at-Arms. The check has been discovered and was cashed by some one, though Mr. Kelly denies vehemently that it was by himself.

In Mr. Colfax's case, Ames swears that he gave him a check payable to "S. C." for $1,200, and this check has turned up too. In Mr. Patterson's case, receipts for dividends signed with his name have made their appearance, and also letters written to Mr. Ames before he took the stand of a very criminating character. Mr. Wilson rescinded his contract with Ames, and only got the usual 10 per cent. for his money. Mr. Allison received a check for $600 cash dividend, dated April 4, 1868, and this check Ames says (and the fact seems admitted) he has found in the possession of the Sergeant-at-Arms. Mr. Allison returned his certificates of Crédit Mobilier stock to Ames last March, to avoid, Ames supposes, "being mixed up in this malicious charge of bribery." Mr. Dawes rescinded his contract, and got 10 per cent., but Ames thinks that he paid him a dividend also; "he had quite an account with him" in this and other matters. Mr. Garfield's case is like that of Mr. Kelley, with the exception that the check for $329 has not been found. Mr. Scofield also received some dividends. Messrs. Bingham and J. F. Wilson bought the stock, but they glory in it, so there is nothing more to be said about them. Mr. James Brooks got his son-in-law, one Neilson, to "look into it," but swears that he himself never owned any of the stock. The investigation into Colonel McComb's "campaign lie" has proved terribly deadly. Its effect on Congressional reputations may be briefly summed up in this way: total loss, one Senator; badly damaged, and not serviceable for future political use, two Vice-Presidents and eight Congressmen. The condition of Ames's reputation language is inadequate to describe.

The "suspense account" of the Crédit Mobilier, or the Union Pacific, or the Wyoming Coal Company, for they are all one, has been produced at Washington, and shows that between four and five hundred thousand dollars were paid to Dr. Durant, Colonel McComb, and the rest of the band at different times, and that there is no evidence in existence as to what became of the money. Besides this account, there was a sum of $126,000 paid for the good of the road —no one knows to whom—when Mr. James F. Wilson was Government director, his opinion being at the time that it was "better not to know." The "interest question" relating to the Union as well as the Central Pacific is this: both Companies have received from the Government about $27,000,000 in bonds, having a long time to run before maturity. The Government say that the Companies are bound not only to pay these bonds at maturity, but to pay the interest as it accrues; the Companies maintain, on the other hand, that they can wait until the bonds mature, and then pay the whole in a lump sum of about $130,000,000. The Union Pacific now owes several millions of interest, and, having no means to pay it, the chances of its being able to pay $130,000,000 fifteen or twenty years hence are small. This is one of the questions which has made it worth while for the Company to have a "suspense account," bank with the Sergeant-at-Arms, and take a friendly interest in the investments of members of Congress, in their silver-weddings, in their sons-in-law, and in their general welfare.

A bill regulating the distribution of the *Alabama* damages has been reported by the Judiciary Committee of the House, and another almost the same by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate. The report of the House Committee has been published, and, as it is the work of Mr. B. F. Butler, it is, as might have been expected, in many ways very curious. In the first place, after having spent several years magnifying the damage done to American commerce by the depredations of the Confederate cruisers, he now turns calmly round and proceeds with equal vigor and with unblushing brow to belittle it. In the former case, however, his object was to get as much money as possible out of the Government of Great Britain; the sum obtainable from that source being settled, his object now is to keep as large a proportion of it as possible for the Government of the United States. Accordingly, he shows that, while the amount claimed originally was $19,782,917 61, the estimated amount, with gross freights, prospective profits, etc., cut off, was only $8,081,348; while the estimated loss sustained, after the same reductions have been made, by vessels for which Great Britain has been held liable, is only about $7,000,000. There will thus, on this calculation, be a surplus of about $8,000,000, after paying all claims allowed, which will go into the Treasury. In order to secure this beyond peradventure, he maintains, first, that though the Arbitrators really did not mean to make and were prohibited from making any award for national losses, as distinguished from damages to the vessels of individuals by particular ships, they nevertheless really did so, inasmuch as the sum they awarded was very much greater than the estimated losses sustained; secondly, that though it is well known that the governing motive in awarding "a lump sum," instead of sending each individual claimant before a board of assessors, was to make an end of strife, and deliver both nations from the dangerous task of haggling over each item in a long list of claims, it is, nevertheless, to be assumed now that the motive was to award the Government of the United States, *quâ* government, a handsome indemnity; and the amount of this indemnity, it appears, was fixed, according to Mr. Butler, by Mr. Cobden in 1864, when that statesman remarked in the House of Commons, "It is estimated that the loss sustained by the capture and burning of the American vessels is about $15,000,000, *i.e.*, about £3,000,000 sterling."

By this somewhat remarkable process of reasoning, Mr. Butler reaches the conclusion that the amount awarded at Geneva "is the

money of the United States, to be disposed of at its pleasure, subject to no trust, but especially to no legal rights in any individual or corporation by whom a legal or equitable claim can be set up to any part of the sum awarded." In other words, the $15,500,000 is the absolute property of the United States. He then designates five classes of persons who are entitled to consideration in the distribution of the money: (1) The owners of uninsured vessels and cargoes; (2) the officers and crews of vessels captured or destroyed; (3) the United States, as owner of vessels actually captured or destroyed; (4) merchants who had vessels and cargoes afloat when the cruisers sailed, and thus had to pay war risks; (5) insurers and reinsurers of the property destroyed by the cruisers, in so far as their losses have exceeded receipts from war premiums.

He cuts off, however, all prospective earnings and profits, upon the somewhat singular ground, considering that he is proposing to distribute on principles of pure equity untrammelled by legal rules, that "this has been the universal rule in establishing damages for marine torts by all courts both in this country and in England." That is, the distribution is to be made sometimes on principles of abstract justice and sometimes on technical rules. Pure equity requires that a man who has lost his ship should receive some compensation for the loss of probable earnings. The courts disregard such claims on grounds of convenience; they do not say that he is entitled to nothing, but that it is too difficult to estimate properly what it is; but no such talk ought to be listened to in a lofty tribunal of eternal and abstract justice. The courts also say that when an insurance company takes a risk on a vessel and pays a total loss, it shall have the ship, or what is left of her; but Mr. Butler does not mind what they say in this case; he proposes to examine the books of the companies and see how they came out on the whole; if their receipts have equalled their policies, they shall have only part payment for the risk they ran and the guarantee they gave the owner, which is the very commodity in which they deal. As regards the tribunal, the claims, we are glad to say, are to be proved before the courts of the United States. The arguments used by the report in favor of this course, and against the appointment of a special commission sitting at Washington, will command everybody's hearty concurrence, and, indeed, throw a glow of honesty and good intention over the whole document. The Senate Bill, however, proposes to establish a board of five commissioners.

The franking privilege has been somewhat unexpectedly abolished by an overwhelming vote—the Senate, which was fully expected to defeat the bill, having stripped it of every excrescence, and left it a naked prohibition, and the House having taken the Senate at its word. The saving of this to the Government will be enormous, and it is to be hoped the public will gain in the greater efficiency of the Post-office. If we were ourselves to publish an account of the difficulties our own subscribers have in getting their paper through the mails, it would make the postal service wear the appearance of a sorry farce. We trust we shall now witness greater promptness, not only in the transmission of the organs of "the party," but of all newspapers and all letters. The local delivery in particular will bear improvement as regards frequency, as well as in other ways. The effect of the abolition on Congressional eloquence will doubtless also be beneficial; but the expense of political canvasses will be greatly increased. The distribution of "documents" will now cause a formidable strain on the party funds, and will probably tax the resources of the daily press more than ever, for it will have to assume a large share of the work of "diffusing just views" which is now accomplished through pamphlets.

The result of the various conferences and discussions over the funding of the new loan has been that the remaining $300,000,000 have been given to a new Syndicate, composed of a combination of two sets of bankers, who had previously been negotiating with the Treasury separately. One consists of Messrs. Jay Cooke & Co. and the Rothschilds, the other of Messrs. Morton, Bliss & Co., Drexel, Morgan & Co., and Baring Bros. A stronger Syndicate than this we could hardly have if a Syndicate we must have, and they will certainly make the loan go with great velocity. The terms made with them are reported to be substantially the same as those made with the old Syndicate, to which there is, so far as we know, no objection to be made, except one, but this is a very serious one, which ought to be removed by Congress, viz., that they were illegal. Granting that no loan could be negotiated on the conditions which Congress laid down, and that Mr. Boutwell did the best that could be done under the circumstances, the fact that he broke the law is surely worthy of some consideration in these times, and especially worthy of consideration in a matter of finance, in view of the great number of gentlemen who are just now "on the make."

The Louisiana muddle is more of a muddle than ever. The Supreme Court of the State has decided the Longstreet-Lynch board of canvassers to be the legal board; but this board never had the election returns in its possession, and selected the Governor and Legislature on newspaper reports or its own sweet fancy. The Warmoth board, on the other hand, which is now declared illegal, had the election returns in its possession, and its Legislature and Governor are probably far nearer being the right ones than those of the Longstreet board. Both, however, have sent senators to Washington, and the Senate has now to decide which was lawfully elected—the one sent by the Legislature which was elected by the lawful returns, or the one sent by the Legislature which was elected by no returns at all. It is a nice question, and has a spice of the comic in it, which is increased by the fact (for fact we believe it is) that the "regular" Senator—that is, the Custom-house man—Pinchback began life a few years ago in Cincinnati as a waiter, or something of that sort, in a faro-bank; and since his emigration to New Orleans has been a noted cock-fighter and gambler. We trust that in his new sphere he will set his face sternly against jobs of all kinds, and set the bad white men—he is himself slightly colored—of that body a good example.

The present New York Legislature is said to be a considerable improvement on the last, and there is more talk of real reforms now than there has been for fifteen years. There seems to be a fair probability that the usury laws, which produce in this city the most tremendous usury known since the fall of the Roman Republic, will be repealed, and the tax on mortgages, which drives capital into New Jersey and other places out of New York City, will be abolished, and the pack of ignorant rascals who act as police justices in this city, and oppress the poor in a most shameful way, be removed, and provision made for the appointment of decent successors by the Mayor. There is also at last some likelihood of a really good charter, though the history of its manufacture will be curious. In the natural course of things, one would expect it to be drafted by that really good representative of the morality, intelligence, and property of the city, the Committee of Seventy, which did draft the one which failed last year. But the greatness of the Republican triumph in November so inspirited the "managers" in this city that a sub-committee of the State Committee, consisting of the United States District Attorney, Mr. Bliss, and such eminent publicists as Messrs. "Tom" Murphy and Hugh Gardiner, was ordered to oust the Committee of Seventy, and take the job into their own hands, which they did, alleging that the Seventy were paralyzed by internal divisions, which the Seventy say is, in political language, "a lie." The charter thus drafted is generally considered very good, except in one particular, which is however very important. Instead of giving the appointing power to the Mayor, and thus concentrating responsibility, it makes him share it with a Board of Aldermen, thus renewing the old game of bargain and compromise and dead-lock; and this is because the Mayor, though elected as a reformer, is a Democrat, and if he were allowed to appoint, how would "the party" profit by the November triumph?

The unhappy controversy over Mr. Greeley's will has been revived in the Probate Court, owing to the inability of the parties to come to any agreement. On Monday, testimony of the most conclusive character was offered by two of Mr. Greeley's most intimate friends to prove his insanity for some time previous to his death. This has long been no secret, nor that the monomania by which he was afflicted was that he had ruined himself, his family, and the *Tribune* stockholders. Mr. Oliver Johnson testified that he had become aware of Mr. Greeley's derangement only a few days before the death of his wife; but Mr. Alvin Johnson, at whose house Mrs. Greeley died, in the latter part of October, recalled singular behavior on the part of her husband at his farm in September—that is, prior to the October elections. Clearly, therefore, the mere strain of the Presidential canvass was sufficient to unbalance Mr. Greeley; and that his nervous system was in a low state before it began, is probable from his friend's statement that he used to complain of sleeplessness at night—a frequent prelude to insanity—in 1870 and 1871, and naturally still more in 1872. The incessant wear to which he subjected his constitution had, in fact, begun to tell upon it three years ago in a manner which would, to any intelligent physician aware of his habits, have clearly foreshadowed the final breakdown unless arrested by recreation and repose.

The last and most exciting incident of French politics has been the dispute going on between the Duc de Gramont and M. Thiers as to the attitude of Austria towards France at the outbreak of the war in 1870. M. Thiers alleged in a recent speech that when he made his famous tour in the fall of that year in search of assistance or mediation, he found that France had gone into the war without a single friend or ally. The Duc de Gramont, who more than any other man precipitated the war, now says this is not true, that Austria had actually promised assistance, and that Prince Metternich handed him a despatch, dated July 20, in which he was charged to assure the French Government that "Austria considered the cause of France her own, and would contribute to the success of her armies as far as she could." The Duke, however, acknowledges that before the outbreak of the war Austria did everything in her power to dissuade France from engaging in it, and it is now understood that the language he quotes was the result of the discovery by Austria of the deplorable weakness of the French army, and a consequent desire on her part to save the "balance of power," if possible, by an alliance with Italy, and back France up probably in some moral way merely. She abandoned this design, owing to the attitude of Russia, and the hostility of her Hungarian and German subjects to interference. The phrase, "as far as we possibly can," really reserves everything. The discussion owes nearly all its importance to its possible effect on the relations of Austria and Germany. The curious fact comes out in it once more, that it was not uncommon for the French Ministers under the Empire to keep diplomatic despatches among their private papers. The Prussians, it may be remembered, seized some very important ones at M. Rouher's country-house, and the Duc de Gramont all but acknowledges that the despatches from which he quotes in the present case are not to be found at the Foreign Office.

By far the most important bit of European news, however, is the appearance at last of a collision between England and Russia in Central Asia. The Russians have pushed, or are rapidly pushing, their conquests or invasions along the Amu towards the frontier of Afghanistan, and the news of the occupation of Khiva is daily looked for. The three great khanates which compose the region known to us as Central Asia are Bokhara, Khiva, and Khokand. Russia has already taken possession of a large part of Khokand, has threatened Bokhara into submission, and is now pushing on for Khiva, on the pretext, constantly furnished in those regions, of releasing some of her own traders who were plundered and kept in captivity. England, in spite of continual nervousness among the Indian officers for many years back, has hitherto refrained steadily from official notice of the Russian advance, and this, combined with the peace policy of the last twenty years, apparently satisfied the Russian Cabinet that an arrangement would at any time be easy enough. Towards the close of December, however, the British Ambassador at St. Petersburg was ordered to say that Russia might do as she pleased, provided she did not touch Afghanistan or "the dependencies of Afghanistan" on the upper Amu. This in a vague way covered a very large region, of the topography of which very little is known, the northern frontier of Afghanistan never having been defined even. Great Britain now, however, takes upon herself to draw the line, announcing that it runs from Lake Sir-i-Kol nearly west, and that if Russia crosses it the Ameer may fight with British support. This somewhat peremptory decision has evidently alarmed Russia, and Count Shuvalof has been sent to London to talk the matter over, but apparently without result, and the *Alabama* matter being out of hand, the British public is reported to be somewhat disposed to fight. But there is little probability that Russia will at this juncture push matters to extremities.

The personal designation of Count von Roon to the Presidency of the Prussian Ministry by the royal order of January 1, seems to qualify the impression given by the first order of December 20, in which the succession to Prince Bismarck was made to devolve simply upon the senior member of the Ministry. And this recent order is made more emphatic by the facts that Count von Roon was at the same time created a general field-marshal of the Empire, and that the Ministry of War was divided so as to relieve him in part of the details of that office, and yet to create for him a sort of *foreign* war department, thus equalizing him, as it were, with Bismarck in the determination of the external policy of the kingdom. One searches the Prussian journals in vain for any light upon this changed condition of affairs—if indeed it is to be accepted as a change and not simply as an incident; they all agree in saying, "We know nothing and can give only rumors." The King's open declaration to Bismarck on New Year's day—that he had made some changes in his office with great reluctance, as the only means of retaining his services—may be taken as an assurance that there has been no serious divergence on the part of the King from the policy of his most trusted minister. And it was natural enough that the King's strong military likings should have inclined him toward Von Roon as Bismarck's successor, without regard to shades of political opinion. Nevertheless, the fact is, that in place of the head of the Liberal party a Conservative now stands at the head of the Prussian Ministry, that the Liberal press has taken the alarm, and the Liberal party is changing its attitude from that of bold and triumphant leadership to that of anxious and pugnacious criticism.

Where the veil is so thickly drawn, only events can reveal the motives of these perplexing changes. If Bismarck really contemplated a reconstruction of the Ministry with himself as premier, it would appear that the King is not ready for so fundamental a change in the Prussian method of administration. A Collegiate Ministry, with its obvious disadvantages, has these two merits: that it may combine all parties, and thus secure to minorities their proper representation in the government, and that it makes of the king a personal working ruler instead of a mere lay-figure. Of this latter point the Hohenzollerns are likely to be tenacious. It has been their pride, and their merit, that they have been kings indeed; have studied state affairs; have labored in person with their ministers upon the details of their several departments—as Frederic the Great did in finance, in trade, in jurisprudence, hardly less than in the discipline of the army. In these diversified labors, King William is just as diligent and as intelligent as any of his predecessors, and he would probably be slow to relinquish his habit of personal inspection and control to a Prime Minister who should be answerable to Parliament rather than to himself. Whatever may have been the imbroglio of the Ministry, its solution is not yet reached, nor is even its origin explained.

THE MORAL OF THE CRÉDIT MOBILIER SCANDAL.

WE do not believe many people take comfort in the Crédit Mobilier investigation. The thing is a little too unsavory even for the opposition to enjoy. It does not, on the whole, make much difference, as far as the credit of the country is concerned, whether the members accused by Oakes Ames took the stock and got their dividends or not. The fact is that nearly every one of them gave a disingenuous account last summer of their connection with the road, showing either that there was something wrong in this connection or that they thought there was, and did not hesitate about resorting to ambiguous phraseology and mental reservation in order to hide it. It is a mistake to suppose now, as some Administration papers seem to do, that the matter can be disposed of by expelling Oakes Ames. He cannot be made a scapegoat, and will not be. No attempt will be made to expel him; and if there is, it will not succeed, partly because his term of office is too near its close, and partly because too many politicians are implicated, in a greater or less degree, in whatever was wrong in his operations to make it possible to single him out for punishment. Public reprobation cannot be satisfied by decimation or any form of vicarious sacrifice. The affair will have to lie in the public mind just as the investigation leaves it, every man carrying his own share of the blame.

But it is a mistake, also, to suppose that mere punishment of any kind will remedy the state of things which this investigation has revealed; that it will prevent members of Congress from taking a pecuniary interest in undertakings on which they may be called on to legislate, or Government directors from taking stock in corporations whose operations it is their duty to watch. Nothing but a high sense of personal honor will ever keep public men out of mire of this sort, and a high sense of personal honor cannot be created by the lash, whether it be the jailer's cat or the editor's abuse. It is partly the gift of God and partly the result of education, and constituencies must take it where they can find it, and be thankful for it, and give up all hope of infusing it into any man either by reward or punishment. The character of the Congressman will always be the product of the social and moral condition of the community which elects him, and there is no use in trying to make it anything else. The thing to be done towards improving the tone of public life by active measures is the removal as far as possible of temptation from the path of public officers. This is the one field in which legislation can accomplish much in aid of political morality. If we want good judges, there is no use in threatening to hang or imprison them if they take bribes or pervert the law. What we have to do is to pay them well and surround them with security and consideration, or, in other words, remove from their path all inducements to go astray. In like manner, if we want pure legislators, what we have to do is, as far as possible, to shut them out from all fields of legislation in which it is the interest of individuals to buy votes. This is generally recognized all over the country as the best mode of dealing with that fruitful source of corruption—special legislation. This has been absolutely prohibited in Illinois, and with the best results, and it is conceded that it is from a similar course that any thorough purification is to be looked for in the State legislatures of New York and Pennsylvania. Now, there is in special legislation itself nothing more dishonest than in general legislation; but prohibiting special legislation means prohibiting that species of legislation for which large numbers of persons are willing to pay heavily—it is, in short, depriving legislatures of all vendible powers and privileges.

These vendible powers and privileges, in the case of Congress, consist mainly in the power of taxing particular commodities for the purpose of protecting native industry, granting subsidies in aid of railroads and steamboats, and of engaging the Government in industrial enterprises. The "Crédit Mobilier scandal" is only the natural result of a long course of legislation in which the seeds of corruption were thickly sown. The first assaults on the virtue of Congressmen were undoubtedly made through the tariff, and they could not have been made in a more insidious way. Once the House got into the habit of listening favorably to the arguments of men who sought to have taxes clapped on for the avowed purpose of raising the price of articles produced by themselves, the downward road was entered on. There was, is, and always must be "money" in every scheme of legislation, no matter how fine a name may be given it, which suddenly and on a day named enables A, B, or C to sell his goods at an advance. No legislature which is armed with this power, and which exercises it as recklessly as Congress has done, can long remain pure. It is not in human nature to sit hour after hour listening to men pleading for your assistance to increase their incomes thirty or forty per cent. without the feeling gradually springing up in your breast that you ought to have a share in the advance. It is not in human nature either for a man whose annual revenue is only $5,000 or $6,000, and who is only sure of it for one year, and has no profession or calling to fall back on, as is the case with a large number of Congressmen, to listen to great capitalists clamoring day after day for hundreds of thousands of dollars to help them to run steamboats, or millions of acres of land to help them to build railroads, without asking themselves what harm can it be to make these speculators pay a little for the vast "potentiality of growing rich" which they so glowingly describe in their speeches and prospectuses. The process of degradation in which all this results has been going on for many years. It begins to bear fruit at last in the vast jobs and defalcations, the small loans, the muddled accounts, the falsehoods, prevarications, and "conflicts of veracity" to which we are now treated, because the enormous powers assumed by the Government during the last ten years, coupled with the tremendous commercial activity bred by paper money, by the rapid increase of population and the great influx of foreign capital, have made speculators more eager and energetic and unscrupulous than ever, and legislators needier and more greedy. The varnish of "patriotism" which has so long covered up these miserable transactions at last begins to wear off. It is wholly gone in some places. A gentleman called on a Carpet-bag Governor not long ago, about a park for the State capital, and dwelt earnestly on all that his plans if carried out would do for the health and adornment of the city. "Oh! hang all that," said the candid knave; "what *we* want is some good contracts." The Crédit Mobilier men have managed to talk until now about the nobleness of "spanning the continent" with "a great highway of civilization"; in a few months they would have chuckled boldly over their fat dividends as the one object of their toil and sacrifice.

The remedy is simple. The Government must get out of the "protective" business and the "subsidy" business and the "improvement" and the "development" business. It must let trade, and commerce, and manufactures, and steamboats, and railroads, and telegraphs alone. It cannot touch them without breeding corruption. We care nothing about the wonderful stories we hear about what can be achieved in the way of "promoting industry" by all these canal and steamboat and railroad schemes. Were the material prospect twice as tempting, the state could not profitably meddle with them, because neither it nor any other government in the world *can command the virtue necessary to carry them on.* This is not a matter of speculation; we know it as a matter of experience. It is almost as much as this Government can do to maintain order and administer justice. It may one day be able to do a great deal more, but not until a great change has occurred in the social condition of the country. We have gone far enough, heaven knows, on the road of "protection" and "promotion," and have found at every step that it leads straight to the bottomless pit; that for every hundred dollars voted by these poor men to whom we pay scanty wages for passing bills in Washington, we lessen, and perceptibly lessen, the stock of individual honor, of self-respect, and of public spirit, of a loyalty to ideals, to which, far more than to any triumphs of material industry, we must look for continued national greatness. We are making money fast enough in all conscience; what needs fostering just now is honesty.

THE SMALL STATES IN THE ELECTION OF PRESIDENT.

THE jealousy of the "small States" proved to be the greatest impediment to the formation of the Union, and is now thought to be the chief obstacle that will prevent a very large majority of the people from effecting a constitutional change in the principle of senatorial representation and the manner of choosing a President. To understand this clearly, it must be borne in mind that fifty-eight of our seventy-four senators represent only a minority of the inhabitants of this country, and that every constitutional amendment requires the concurrence of two-thirds of the two Houses of Congress and of the States. It is inferred that the small States will never give up their excess of power, and therefore that no change can be effected in the election of President or the representation of senators.

So far as the election of President is involved, this difficulty is certainly greatly overestimated, and indeed is an objection that will arise only in the minds of those who are students in constitutional matters, and in the habit of pondering our theory of government with its peculiarities and difficulties. To the two classes of people who really control amendments, the "plain people" and the politicians of the country, it will never occur as an objection. The voter in Nevada feels only a common interest in the result of a Presidential election, and it never occurs to him that his ballot weighs as much in that result as the ballot of nine citizens of New York. To him, the machinery of electors and electoral colleges is an intricacy, an impediment, and not a necessary means to an end. He knows that the people of Nevada have no greater interest in the choice of President than the people of any other State, and it never enters his mind that they have a more effective voice in the matter, still less that they should have. He sees clearly enough that the election of President is not a contest between States, and has even ceased to be a contest between "sections," and is simply a contest between parties. As a practical man, he knows that the disproportionate weight of Nevada on one side of the political scale will be set off by the disproportionate weight of Delaware on the other. Furthermore, experience has taught him that "the candidate who gets the most votes is always elected," be it by majority or plurality, he does not care which; and that the only instance to the contrary was when this same machinery of electors threw the choice of President into the House of Representatives. Finally, as a good citizen, he believes that this ought to be so, and that it would be a most undesirable and dangerous thing for an election to occur which would give the office to a man who has received fewer votes than his opponent. The American people certainly believe that majorities (or pluralities) win, and ought to win; and there is no principle to which they will yield a more hearty assent than that the majority ought to govern. The State jealousy which is feared cannot well be aroused, because the change will not really affect any State interest. The office of elector is nothing in the eyes of the politician; no other office will be swept away by the change; the small States will still have the same number of senators and representatives to send to Congress; and everything will go on as before, save that the two political parties will then do directly what they now do indirectly.

It was said by Kent, that "if ever the tranquillity of this nation is to be disturbed, and its liberties endangered by a struggle for power, it will be upon the subject of the choice of a President." Under our present system such a struggle might be caused, first, by frauds in the election, and, secondly, by frauds, irregularities, or corruption in the proceedings of the electoral colleges. If, for instance, a decided majority of the American people had voted for the Democratic candidates at the late election, and the formal electoral choice had depended upon Louisiana, it would be an easy thing for the party managers to throw out the electoral vote of the State in the present condition of affairs, and thereby throw the choice of President into the present House of Representatives; or if, as in the event of Mr. Greeley's death, the electors were really unable, for want of time, to unite upon a common candidate, or if the fate of the electoral choice depended upon three elevated carpet-baggers, say from Florida, who might suddenly find high moral reasons for voting for a third candidate not before heard of—in any of these cases the body politic would suffer a shock more or less dangerous, as the wrong was more or less flagrant. And the opportunities for wrong are much increased by the peculiar provision of the Constitution which requires not only the greatest number of electoral votes *cast*, but that "such number be a majority of the whole number of electors *appointed*." For if on opening the returns it should appear that some for the successful candidate had been fraudulently abstracted or tampered with, nevertheless "the House of Representatives shall choose *immediately* by ballot the President." Thus it can be seen that while there may be no great danger of an election being directly reversed by fraud or casualties, the contingencies are many by which it may be thrown into an adverse House of Representatives.

So far as the Senate of the United States is concerned, the power of the small States would doubtless be exerted to defeat a change. If a surrender is ever brought about, it will in all likelihood be by some such coercive measures as have forced the House of Lords from time to time to give up positions which they might constitutionally have maintained. There is a moral power in the decided will of a decided majority which often carries down mere constitutional power. If an overwhelming majority of the American people ever become thoroughly in earnest on the subject of a constitutional amendment derogatory to the power of the small States, history indicates that they will not always dare to defeat it; and yet such a battle will be very different from any that has ever been fought between commons and lords or the people and the crown. In all of the European contests, there has been an apparent power on the one side, in the person of a monarch or an aristocracy, and the people on the other. In our own country it will be almost impossible to procure a controversy between the people considered as the people, and certain of the States considered as States. With our present constitutional views and training, such a contest, though existing in fact, would never be an earnest one, for the reason that, from the peculiar structure of our government, it would appear to be a contest between large States and small ones—a contest in which the States will be individualized, and some sympathy be felt for the weaker party.

With regard to the representation of States in the Senate, it is evident that there can be no middle ground; either we must have the system substantially as it is, or the upper house must be a mere reflex of the lower in somewhat reduced dimensions. It is true that if the States of this Union were states in the European sense of the word—that is, distinct communities with adverse interests and different languages—no greater anomaly could exist than their equality in the Senate. Thus, if population were made the rule, and New York were taken as the standard, Nevada, with a population of 42,491, would be entitled to less than ½d of a representative, and 1-50th of a senator; or, conversely, if Nevada were taken as the standard, New York should now have in Congress 103 representatives and 200 senators. But there is one fact lying behind State lines which has received little attention, yet which shows that, while our senatorial system maintains the integrity of the States as local powers, it does not do any wrong to any portion of the American people. As we have said before, the diverse interests of this country are not State but sectional. Now it so happens that these "sections" are so made up of large and small States that the aggregate of senators in each does not greatly differ in proportion from the aggregates of the other two. We are aware that this assertion does not strictly accord with the figures of the census. The South (after transferring from the old slave States Delaware to the East and Missouri to the West) will have in the next Congress twenty-eight senators to eighty-eight representatives; the East (in which we include with Delaware the

three great States, New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio) will have twenty-two senators to one hundred and twelve representatives; and the West (with which we place Missouri) will have twenty-four senators to eighty-three representatives. In the temporary apportionment made by the Constitution in 1787, thirty-five members were awarded to the seven States north of Delaware, and thirty to the remaining six. We do not now recall anything which shows that this division was intended as an exact adjustment between the future free and slave States; but be that as it may, it gives to each side precisely two senators for every five representatives. The first apportionment by Congress, founded upon the census of 1790, disturbed this equality by giving to the Northern States an increased number of representatives; and the disproportion continued to grow slowly but steadily greater until, under the census of 1860, the South (less Missouri and Delaware) had twenty-eight senators to only seventy-five representatives, or more than one to three; while the States which we now group as Eastern had only twenty-two senators to one hundred and seven representatives, or about one to five. Yet here it must be borne in mind that this disproportion was augmented by the "three-fifths" representation of slaves, which in effect reduced the population of the South; and it must also be understood that in the Western group the proportion was twenty-four senators to sixty-one representatives; and that the South and West have always been almost exactly side by side in their respective ratios.

Thus it may be seen that the preponderance of State representation in the Senate is possessed by the South and West, the poorest and weakest portions of the country; and that the wealthy and powerful East is the only portion which in any degree suffers. The evil, such as it is, is beginning to work its own correction. Already three of the New England States have no more representatives than senators; New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio are losing and will continue to lose members in each new apportionment; while the South and West are gaining rapidly in population, and possess States, like Texas and California, capable of taking a place ultimately among the greatest. We may therefore conclude that while a decided disparity in State representation does exist, it still works no substantial wrong; and that in practical effect it is less now than it has been, and will never again be so great as it now is.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE *ALABAMA* DAMAGES.

THE following appears in the Springfield *Republican:*

"The distribution of the Alabama money becomes more and more a dubious problem the more it is discussed. Public attention to it has already carried the discussion behind the mere question of its allotment, to the more fundamental issue of whether we can do with the money what we like. In other words, is the money ours, completely, or are we bound to apply it to a specified object, and, if there is any left, give it back to Great Britain? The New York *Nation* takes the latter view. 'The Government,' says the *Nation*, 'is as much bound morally to retain only the cost of the property actually destroyed by certain specified vessels, as it is to pay over to private citizens the sums coming to them for the losses sustained under similar circumstances.' . . It never occurred to them [the Arbitrators] to specify the damages to which it should be applied, and to stipulate the return of any remaining moiety to the treasury of Great Britain. It was left for the *Nation*—which, with all its disgust at the sentimentalities, delights in nothing more than the inculation of moral ends that confound by the bare impossibility of their attainment—to discover and promulgate this obligation, as fictitious as it is impotent."

This is a criticism on an article written to combat the theory that the Government of the United States takes the *Alabama* damages, not as a trustee for certain specified purposes, but as absolute owner, and may do with it as it pleases. The one sentence in it on which this curious perversion could possibly be founded is the following, but the meaning of this is made perfectly clear by the argument which follows:

"That the United States could come in and claim, as an individual, for property actually destroyed by the cruisers, for which Great Britain was found liable, of course no one doubts; *but in dividing the money,* the Government is as much bound, morally, to retain only the cost of the property actually destroyed by certain specified vessels, as it is to pay over to private citizens the sum coming to them for losses sustained under similar circumstances."

The *Republican* must be careful, or it will get as bad a reputation as the New York *Times*, which seems to have laid aside all shame and scruple in the reproduction of its adversary's opinions. In this case, the phrase "but in dividing the money," which fixes the sense of the paragraph, was left out, we hope not intentionally; but it has a suspicious look.

What the United States should do with the residuum of the fund, after all legitimate claims are satisfied, is plain enough—keep it, of course. That it should return it to Great Britain is an idea which we do not believe any human being on either side of the water entertains or has ever entertained. But the doctrine that the United States Government may make this residuum as large as it pleases by setting up rules of distribution, as Mr. B. F. Butler is doing, made up partly of "eternal justice," partly of technical rules of law, and partly of Butler's own notions of what the arbitrators meant, is something which very few unbiassed people are prepared for. Butler—(can there be anything odder than the selection of this worthy—the author of the repudiation scheme of 1867, and the promulgator in the same year of the famous maxim that "a nation has no conscience"—for the settlement of a nice question of public duty!)—Butler proposes to misappropriate the money by repaying war premiums of insurance, which were expressly excluded from the consideration of the Tribunal, and declared to be for ever barred and extinguished; and he proposes to increase the residuum wrongfully by refusing to pay the claims of the insurance companies, which were not excluded, and which he, with characteristic double-mindedness, acknowledges to be sound if the companies have lost money, but untenable if they have made a profit—which is like saying that a man's rights under the law ought to depend on the condition of his bank account. The submission to the Tribunal of the indirect claims, and the history of those claims before the Tribunal, were a source of considerable mortification to most intelligent and upright Americans. This mortification will, however, be very much deepened if the fund is dealt with in entire disregard of the conditions of the award and of the plain intent of the arbitrators. The doctrine of absolute ownership is one which a fair-minded man—though we do not ourselves see how—may entertain; but if it is adopted, it only becomes all the more necessary that the national honor should be saved from the stain of having the fund parcelled out under the rules supplied by a person in whom nobody has any confidence, and who takes pride in his own unscrupulousness.

There is no reason in the world worthy of five minutes' consideration for paying the insurance companies anything, unless they are paid all that they claim. They took war risks in the regular course of their business; if they have lost money by them, they have lost it in the regular course of their business; and there is no more justice in making up their losses out of the *Alabama* fund than out of the funds of the American Tract Society, or in making them up at all, any more than those of the fire insurance companies. In short, we owe them salvage on the ships they paid for, or we owe them nothing; and the compromise proposed by Mr. Butler is a bit of tortuousness, which it may be entertaining to see him engaged in, but with which Congress ought to have nothing to do.

THE BREAK-UP OF PARTIES.

WASHINGTON, January 25, 1873.

THE disclosures of the Crédit Mobilier investigation continue to occupy, almost monopolize, the attention of political circles here. They form the staple of conversation. The question is no longer whether this or that politician has bought and owned Crédit Mobilier shares and drawn dividends. The mere ownership of stock and the drawing of dividends appear now as a sin of minor importance, and those who made a straightforward confession at once are almost looked upon as men of honor, brave enough to tell the truth. The question to-day is whether men of high standing in Congress—men who so far enjoyed an unblemished reputation for personal probity and possessed the confidence of the people—men who were honored by intelligent constituencies with positions of great power and responsibility, did or did not deliberately commit perjury before a committee of Congress. There is

a general impression that, unless appearances are utterly deceptive, some of them did, and that the more they try to clear themselves, the deeper they sink. Nobody is inclined to take the statements of Oakes Ames, after all the transformations they have gone through, as absolute truth. But the testimony given by him this week is so strongly supported by documentary evidence and by corroborating circumstances, that it can no longer be brushed aside by mere general denials.

The impression produced by these developments is most painful. At first, members of one party were heard to express a sly satisfaction at the discredit thrown upon certain leading members of the other. But this partisan feeling is giving way to a different sensation. Now, men of patriotic impulses, who have the honor of the American people at heart, are asking one another with alarm and mortification, What is to come next? Nothing seems now impossible. When perjury, in the highest political sphere, becomes so cheap, who is there whose honor can be relied upon? When Oakes Ames drew forth his memoranda, and made his terrible revelations about Colfax, Patterson, Kelley, and Garfield, the Investigating Committee presented a spectacle worth seeing. Not one of its members appeared inclined to push the enquiry; they rather seemed to shrink from the depth of shame which disclosed itself. The Democrat Niblack, who might have enjoyed the cruel embarrassment of those shining lights of the Republican party, was even carried so far by an impulse of pity as to suggest that those gentlemen should be permitted to employ counsel. The enquiry was almost entirely left to the accused and Oakes Ames, who has turned accuser, and assumed the rôle of a vindicator of truth. The leniency of the Committee is generally noticed, and there is scarcely any doubt that many important points might have been much more clearly established had the examination been pushed with vigor on the part of those charged with its conduct. The latter seem rather disposed to let a fog of doubt hang over the matter, to hide the deepest disgrace. But it is said that Oakes Ames has more documentary evidence which will bear as heavily on Colfax and others as that which utterly crushed Patterson; and also, that his memorandum book, when produced before the Committee, will reveal the names of men involved in the Crédit Mobilier business hitherto not yet thought of. The extension of the enquiry to the affairs of the Central Pacific Railroad bids fair to lead to new disclosures equally startling, especially as this branch of the investigation has been confided to the more energetic "Committee No. 2." There is a rumor that another contribution of $10,000 to the election expenses of a senator will be shown, and that several prominent legislators will appear in the character of regularly retained and paid attorneys of railroad companies. There is still a vague hope entertained by some that the worst part of the testimony of Oakes Ames with regard to Colfax, Patterson, Garfield, and Kelley may be overthrown by counter-proof, but that hope is growing weaker from hour to hour, while the impression is gaining ground that the truth has not half been told yet. The party managers are getting seriously alarmed lest the weight of these things become so heavy as to break down "the machine"; and they bless their stars that this is a short session, and that in about six weeks the agony will be over, at least for the present.

But party discipline appears to be almost broken up. No Administration measure can receive the united support of the Republicans in Congress, and, as far as I can remember, there has not been a single "strict party vote" on any important subject during the present session. There may be one when the Louisiana matter comes up, but even that is not certain. The Democratic vote has so far been as little united as the Republican, and even the old partisan style of making opposition is gradually falling into disuse. When, in the discussion on the bill to authorize the building of ten new ships-of-war, Senator Hamilton of Maryland, a fair representative of the old-line "unterrified" school, made a regular Democratic speech in opposition, he was gently but firmly reproved by some of his party friends, who openly supported the bill, and seemed to be of the opinion that the old kind of talk will no longer do. As I heard Congressmen describe the situation: "The fences are down, and nobody seems to know exactly where the lines are." The House of Representatives is evidently without leadership. The Crédit Mobilier investigation has made sad havoc among its prominent men. The only leader left untouched is Speaker Blaine, who, while in his present position, can of course not lead on the floor, and of whom it is quite uncertain whether he would make a great effort to enforce party discipline even if he could. To say that this lack of drill, this confused mixing of elements, is the prelude of a speedy dissolution of the old parties, would be too sanguine a prediction; the present condition of things is evidently pointing that way, and the results of the Crédit Mobilier investigation are certainly strengthening the disintegrating tendency. I find that the number of politicians who express indifference as to the future of their respective parties is perceptibly increasing. The developments now taking place are exciting so much disgust that men of self-respect lose their veneration and attachment for the old organizations more rapidly than otherwise they would have done.

The majority being in so disorganized a condition, there will probably not be much legislation this winter beyond the appropriation bills, the ordinary routine business, and such other subjects as must necessarily be disposed of. What the Senate will do with the repeal of the bankruptcy law, I am not able to predict. The number of those who favor repeal instead of amendment appears larger than was first expected; but whether large enough to carry the Senate is quite uncertain. The abolition of the franking privilege was treated in the Senate in a manner clearly showing that a majority would be glad to see the measure defeated in some indirect way. The House bill was so burdened with injudicious provisions that even the truest friends of the measure voted to amend it. Unless the House accepts the Senate amendments, you must not be surprised to see the franking privilege outlive the present session, and then perhaps many others. The recommendations made by the President in his message are either voted down by decisive majorities or treated with neglect. It seems impossible to rally the Administration party on any of them. Senator Ramsey has given notice that he will call up the Postal Telegraph Bill as soon as possible, and it is reported that if he succeeds we shall have the curious spectacle of Mr. Schurz and Mr. Conkling fighting side by side in opposition to that Administration measure, while it seems uncertain whether any of the other prominent friends of the Administration will champion it. I am told that the advocates of the measure count upon a large majority in the Senate, but I am assured also that it cannot pass the House. The great internal-improvement enterprises recommended by the President are also doomed to failure. This method of "moving the crops" will not prosper this winter. Congressmen are on their good behavior just now. While the more enterprising among them venture out with a big job now and then, the average member labors under a vague impression that he is surrounded by extraordinary dangers, and must be careful how he votes on jobs. Even the proprietors of the restaurants are complaining of the extraordinary dulness of the season, because the "Third House," the lobby agents, find Congressmen too timid to dine and drink champagne with them—all this, thanks to the Crédit Mobilier and the indiscretions of Oakes Ames.

In the meantime, all is reported serene at the White House. I am told they have a quiet chuckle there over the Crédit Mobilier investigation, for a very characteristic reason—as long as Congressmen investigate and destroy one another, they will have no time to think of investigating the executive departments, and the White House may look with cool indifference at the slaughter going on "at the other end of the avenue." But, unless I am greatly mistaken, that indifference is ill-advised, for the investigations are, like a fire, "not under control," and it is not far from the Capitol to the White House. Moreover, there are the first symptoms perceptible of an estrangement between the President and some of the Republican leaders. I have seen several senators and representatives who think that the President is not in a proper frame of mind at all; that he does not care to "recognize" the great services rendered to him during the late campaign; that he believes and says that his own popularity alone carried the election, and had to pull the so-called party leaders through, who in many cases were mere dead-weight; that therefore he does not owe anybody anything on account of the late campaign, but that those whose re-election was secured by the strength of his popularity owe him much. Now, the said senators and representatives are of a decidedly different opinion, and remark that if his Excellency thinks they did not help him during the late campaign they need not help him now, and his Administration may take care of itself. This will not disturb Gen. Grant very seriously, inasmuch as he does not take much active interest in "politics" just now, except so far as the new San Domingo enterprise is concerned, which he hopes will succeed, especially since his own San Domingo scheme, together with the whole policy of his Administration, was so "triumphantly vindicated by the American people at the late election."

ENGLAND.—MR. MILL AND THE LAND-LAWS.

LONDON, January 10, 1873.

IT may be disputed whether Mr. Mill does or does not occupy so distinguished a position in the country as he did before his parliamentary career. He never became quite acclimated to the atmosphere of political agitation: and his failure was owing as much to certain defects as to his superiority to party manœuvres or his incapacity to descend from the regions of pure speculation to the level of country squires. There was a want of that union of robust mental and physical vigor which is the best qualification for any one who takes part in the rough game of English politics. He was rather

an oracle to be consulted than a leader to be followed, and therefore, if Mr. Mill retained the allegiance of his own friends, he certainly did not conciliate his antagonists, nor even impress them as a formidable antagonist. His own followers, however, regard him with undiminished affection, and especially the little band who are anxious to appropriate to themselves the old title of "philosophical radicals" once applied to Mr. Mill's early friends. To say the truth, their philosophy is apt to be of a rather barren kind. It is summed up in a few dogmatic utterances about the rights of man, and still more of women, the necessity of diminishing government interference, and so forth—all of which may be very true, but which do not necessarily indicate great cultivation or width of views. Indeed, the opinion is becoming current, if I am not mistaken, that those good old revolutionary formulæ did not contain the whole truth, and are not quite capable of edifying a philosophical mind. But whether the adjective "philosophical" be or be not appropriate, the radicals are undoubtedly a strong party, and have a great respect for Mr. Mill. Some importance is therefore to be attributed to a rather curious manifesto which he has lately published in the *Examiner*. The *Examiner*, I should say, once celebrated for its controversial vigor, has undergone a long period of eclipse, but has lately come out as an organ of Mr. Mill's friends. The manifesto of which I am speaking is called Advice to Land Reformers, and speaks of the question of land-laws as having fairly come to the front. Two proposals, it is added, have lately called for attention: First, the abolition of primogeniture and the power of entail; and, secondly, the compulsory sale of all corporate property and the investment of the proceeds in the Funds. The first proposal, says Mr. Mill, should be supported and the last opposed by all true reformers. For the present, he only speaks of the first. His reasons are somewhat remarkable. There are a variety of proposals afloat of a considerably more violent character than those which Mr. Mill discusses. The abolition of private property in land altogether, or the forcible limitation of landed estates to very small areas, are amongst the dreams of the more revolutionary schemers. Mr. Mill, however, passes by such plans as altogether chimerical for the present, whatever may be their ultimate value. The abolition of primogeniture and the limitation of power of entail might be carried out at once, but the reformers are divided as to their expediency. They are advocated by some radicals on the ground that these changes would tend to form a class of peasant-proprietors; and the advantages of that system to the cultivators have been set forth by many radicals, and by none more forcibly than by Mr. Mill himself. A letter from Mr. Cobden, preaching the same doctrine, has just been published by Mr. Bright. But here occurs the division of sentiment. Many radicals are strongly averse to the multiplication of landed properties, and their reason is a simple one. Give a man a bit of land, be it twenty acres or twenty thousand, and you make him a conservative. Any one, therefore, who wishes to upset society altogether may very well hesitate before increasing the class which Continental experience proves to be the most obstructive and immovable of all classes. You would destroy the influence of a duke, but it would be at the price of setting up a thousand peasants, each of whom would be every whit as conservative as the duke himself, and probably a good deal more pigheaded and ignorant. If you think of setting up a guillotine, one neck is obviously better than a thousand; and even without such extreme measures, there is a danger in multiplying the resisting forces of society.

Of the morality or wisdom of this theory I have not space to speak, though it seems rather questionable policy in any one convinced of the benefit of peasant proprietorship. To refuse to remedy an evil in order to maintain a great body of discontent with evils in general is scarcely a fair manœuvre. Mr. Mill, however, has a different answer to those who take this view. He denies that the abolition of primogeniture and similar changes would be favorable to the growth of peasant proprietorship. It is doubtful how much land would be brought into the market, and there is no probability that it would be bought by poor men. So long as society is what it is, an increased facility in the sale of land would probably tend rather to accumulation than otherwise. The rich manufacturer who is anxious to become a county magnate is the man who snaps up any fragments that come into the market, and not the poor cultivator, who, indeed, could hardly buy it on profitable terms. Land in England brings with it so much more than mere pecuniary returns, that the interest obtained for landed investments is, as a rule, exceedingly small. Mr. Mill's answer to the reformers who object to peasant proprietors is therefore complete, and, in all probability, quite sound. Abolish primogeniture to-morrow and it would make next to no practical difference. So long as the power of testamentary disposition is not limited, it would make no difference at all, for it is very rare for landed estates to be divided according to the laws of intestacy. And even if the power of entail and settlement be restricted within narrower limits than at present, the social tendencies which now prevail would effectually prevent any great subdivision of the land. What, then, is to be gained by Mr. Mill's proposal? is the natural question of reformers. We have all been denouncing the manifold evils which result from the accumulation of landed property, and have professed our anxiety to abate them. Mr. Mill, as the acknowledged prophet of the radical party, proposes a great measure of land reform, and his first argument is, that it will not have the slightest tendency to diminish the acknowledged evil. What, then, is the advantage of his plan? Mr. Mill answers that, in the first place, anything which tends to facilitate the transfer of landed property is so far a good thing, because the man who buys is more likely to be an improving landlord than the man who sells. But secondly, and this is his main answer, it is in some degree a blow at the aristocracy. The object of primogeniture and the power of entail is to maintain an aristocratic order; and they will be broken down so far as this safeguard is concerned. No radical would deny the validity of the argument, which, so far as it goes, gives a very good reason to alter the law. The law of primogeniture, indeed, so far as it produces much practical effect, runs counter to all the principles of the radical party. That requires no demonstration; but considered by itself it is, and Mr. Mill does his best to prove that it is, a matter of very small importance. If, in spite of any such changes, the accumulation of landed property in fewer hands continues, or is even accelerated, would radicals be very much gratified by the reflection that the elder sons of rich families were forced to share a little more equitably with their younger brothers? The change proposed must seem to be exceedingly petty in the eyes of those whose first aim is the encouragement of peasant proprietorship, or of those whose objection to peasant proprietorship is that it would hinder changes of a still more vital character. Both sides, indeed, might agree to Mr. Mill's proposal, but they would agree to it only as two men might agree to travel together from London to Dover, though one was on his way to India and the other to the North Pole.

The conclusion which will probably be drawn by many radicals is a very different one from that which Mr. Mill advocates. They will fully admit that a mere change in the laws of primogeniture and settlement will do next to nothing to alter the existing distribution of landed property, but they will infer that something much more vigorous ought to be done. The aristocratic spirit of the country does not depend upon these laws, but on much deeper and more permanent causes. Very well, they will say, then we must attack the aristocracy in a more vital point. Either we must enforce laws stringent enough to break up the existing properties forcibly, or we must endeavor to upset the whole system which now makes landed property so attractive by associating it with social prestige. So soon as such proposals are seriously brought forward, there will be room for discussions of a much more exciting character than those which now occupy the attention of the radicals. Meanwhile, it seems likely that Mr. Mill's moderate proposal will not excite enthusiasm enough to give it a very prominent place in the party warfare of the future. When the chief advocate of a plan advocates it on the ground that it will produce next to no appreciable influence in regard to the points most chiefly interesting to his supporters, he will hardly have very enthusiastic followers. The question will either retire from the front or will come forward in a much more menacing shape. If I might venture a guess, it would be that for the present it will be shelved in favor of more immediately popular though not more important questions.

THE GRAMONT-THIERS DISPUTE.

PARIS, January 4, 1873.

THE Duc de Gramont, who was the last Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Empire, and who is considered as one of the chief promoters of the war with Germany, has just published letters which have a great importance in an historical point of view. It will always be an object of the deepest interest to know how the war of 1870 was brought about. M. de Gramont, after two years, comes forward and wishes to prove that the Emperor Napoleon III. did not enter quite alone and single-handed into the war, and that he had good reasons for trusting in the active help of Austria. I must quote a few lines from the Duc de Gramont:

"On the 23d of July—that is, after the declaration of war—the ambassador of Austria (Prince Metternich) came to see me at the Foreign Office, and handed me two despatches of his Government, both dated the 20th of July, begged me to take cognizance of them, and left them so that I could make a copy of them. One of these despatches, which has been published since, as it was intended for publication, established in principle the neutrality of Austria, and took peculiar care to establish by reserves and by precedents that this neutrality would not hinder the armaments which should seem necessary for the security of the empire. This neutrality, which was proclaimed in accord with us, and the secret of which we pos-

sessed, could not disquiet us. For, in order to prevent any misunderstanding, there was, as I have said, another despatch, very complete and explicit, written on the same day, and left with me on the same day by the Austrian ambassador. I am not the only person who received communication of these two despatches. This communication was also made to Saint-Cloud and to other members of the Government."

M. de Gramont does not name these other members of the Government. I believe that only one of them, M. Emile Ollivier, received the secret despatch. This phrase only is cited by M. de Gramont, but it is sufficiently explicit: "Will you therefore *repeat* to his Majesty and to his Ministers that we consider the cause of France as our cause, and that we will contribute to the success of its arms within the limits of the possible?"

The publication of this letter has created so much sensation at Vienna that M. de Beust, who was at the time Minister of Foreign Affairs, was recalled from London, where he is now ambassador, in order that some sort of answer might be prepared. There could, of course, be no official answer made. M. Thiers, in the Committee of Enquiry on the Causes of the War, had given an account of his diplomatic journey through Europe, and said that M. de Beust had assured him that he had never encouraged the Emperor Napoleon III., that he never promised him any help. M. de Gramont now publishes a phrase of one of Beust's despatches which is not in accordance with the statements of M. Thiers. But the Austrian and French Governments are not directly at issue. The official press of Vienna is, however, trying to explain the words of M. de Gramont. It is no longer denied that the two Courts of Vienna and Saint-Cloud were in very close terms of friendship in 1870; it was not unknown at the Burg that Napoleon intended to quarrel with Prussia; Prince Metternich, on the 23d of July, *repeated* to the French Government that Austria meant to help France; it is not even denied now in Vienna that Austria was negotiating with Italy in order to come to a common understanding. The official press explains for what reasons the good intentions of Austria remained sterile. First of all, Austria was arrested by the hostility of Russia, then by the attitude of the German population of the empire; the other reasons given are: the incomplete preparation of the Austrian and Italian armies, and the rapidity of the Prussian successes. This last reason is perhaps sufficient. It is also well known that Count Andrássy was at Pesth at the time of the declaration of war; when he heard of the fermentation of the war party in Vienna, he sent at once a long telegram, protesting against any action which might be taken without the concurrence of the Parliament of Pesth. Prince Bismarck had taken his precautions on that side; the Parliament of Pesth declared very soon in favor of a complete neutrality. The Hungarians had no intention of giving Austria a chance of reconquering her former position in Germany. The dualistic system had been their triumph; what could Beust, what could the Emperor do between the Prussian tendencies of Hungary on one side, of the German provinces on the other, and in face of Russia? France was completely abandoned, and the revolution of the 4th of September broke all the bonds between her Government and the Governments of Europe. It is perhaps not a trifling circumstance that the two ambassadors who were the last to remain with the Empress Eugénie at the Tuileries were Nigra and Prince Metternich. It is rumored in the Bonapartist circles that the Empress has in her possession letters of the Emperor of Austria which are full of expressions of sympathy, of promises of support. Such letters, if they really exist, have deceived the Imperial Government; the constitutional system now in force in Austria deprives them of any binding character. The Empress, it is said, refuses to publish any part of them, though this publication would help her cause, in showing that the Empire in 1870 could reasonably hope for the succor of Austria and of Italy.

The mystery of all these negotiations is not quite unveiled. It is hardly credible that such revelations as M. de Gramont has just made have no other object than to rectify the account given by M. Thiers of his useless conversations with the Ministers of the various Courts of Europe. If the conduct of M. de Gramont has not very deep motives, it has really no excuse; for the publication of secret despatches he has received is likely to place France in a sort of diplomatic quarantine. In old times, the conduct of M. de Gramont would have been punished by the Bastille; the *lettres de cachet* were, at first, specially directed against the men who compromised the interests of the state. Who will be found, for a long time to come, willing to negotiate with agents who think themselves allowed not only to expose the most secret affairs of their own country, but of the foreign governments who have imprudently trusted in their good faith? The behavior of M. de Gramont is so incorrect, so monstrous, that we are led to think that this gentleman, better known for his vanity than for his intelligence, is on this occasion only the instrument of stronger men.

Two only are likely to draw any benefit from these revelations. It was quite evident, when the Emperor of Austria went to Berlin and showed himself to the world with the new Emperor, that there was a little nervousness in such a hasty acceptance of the accomplished facts. This readiness is now quite explained by the fact that Austria and France, or at least the Austrian Government and France, were at one time nearly allies against Prussia. Bismarck probably always knew all the facts of the case; the letters of M. de Gramont are no revelation to him, but they will be a revelation to the German people, to the people of Vienna as well as to the Prussians; and the German feeling is so strong now in the German-speaking provinces of Austria, that the Emperor Francis Joseph will be forced by his own subjects to prove his repentance, his remorse. He will lie, as it were, prostrate at the feet of Wilhelm, helpless, and quite unable to make any opposition to the schemes and projects of Bismarck. He will be the only German sovereign guilty of sympathy with France, and he will have enough to do in keeping his German provinces.

But there is somebody else besides the German Chancellor who is likely to benefit by the disclosures of M. de Gramont. The French people is very generous. If you talk with ignorant peasants, you will find them already disposed to forgive Napoleon III. They do not read much; they see only, as it were, the surface of events. "The Emperor has been betrayed by his generals, by his ministers." This is their explanation of our late misfortunes. They will now be able to say also, "He has been betrayed by his allies." The popular mind has a curious disposition to build up legends out of the elements of history; and the historian himself will be forced to look somewhat differently upon the conduct of Napoleon III., if it is proved that he could not unreasonably count upon the support of Austria and of Italy. Of course he will always remain guilty of a criminal aggression upon Germany, as well as of imprudence. He could only bring 250,000 men into the field at first. It was not enough to intrigue with Austria and Italy—he ought to have waited till he could procure regular binding treaties. He did not embark in the Crimean, in the Italian war, as rashly as he did in the German war. His folly is all the more to blame in that personally he did not resent Sadowa as a defeat of his own policy; that he had even contrived to facilitate the first progresses of the Bismarckian policy. He knew more of Germany than many of his ministers, and he was quite aware of the strength and of the importance of the Prussian army. I believe that Napoleon III. never had a moment's illusion, that he did not believe in a conflict of the two sections of Germany separated by the Main; he knew that the aggression of France would unite against her all the parts of Germany. But he hoped to strike a rapid blow, to obtain *one* victory, and his desire was then to step forward and to offer to Prussia very acceptable terms of peace; to recommence, to a certain extent, what he had done at Villafranca.

The Bonapartists will use for the profit of their cause the facts which are now coming to light. They are working constantly at what may be called the legend of the war; they represent the Emperor, betrayed by everybody, by his advisers, weakened by a Chamber which had refused to adopt the Prussian system of obligatory service, entering on the war, much against his will, because M. Thiers and the Republicans accused him of having since Sadowa sacrificed France to Bismarck; deprived, after the first defeats, of the supreme command of the army; advising in vain that MacMahon's army should remain before Paris; following this army to Sedan, and there sacrificing his crown and his liberty for the lives of his soldiers. Why should M. de Bismarck work now indirectly for the diffusion of this legend? It seems clear to me that the new system of revelations indicates that Napoleon III. and the German Chancellor are not adverse to each other. M. de Gramont would never have published secret despatches without the permission of his former sovereign, and this sovereign must have some reason for sacrificing, as it were, Austria to Bismarck. He cannot be moved by a foolish desire for revenge; he wants probably to prove at the same time that he did not enter into the war like a madman, and that the good intentions of Austria and of Italy were rendered powerless, not only by the military events, but also by the revolution of the 4th of September. We are waiting with some anxiety for the development of this new policy, which seems to unite the interests of the new German Empire and of the fallen empire of the Bonapartes.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will publish 'Funeral Orations and Addresses,' by William Cullen Bryant.——Roberts Bros., Boston, announce for publication, next month, 'Bits of Talk about Home Matters,' by Mrs. Helen Hunt ("H. H."); 'The Intellectual Life,' by Philip Gilbert Hamerton; 'Women in American Society,' by Abba G. Woolson, with a prefa-

tory letter by John G. Whittier; and a 'Life of Rev. Samuel J. May,' edited by Rev. J. T. Mumford—"partly biographical," say the publishers, meaning perhaps autobiographical. In his 'Recollections of Our Anti-Slavery Conflict,' Mr. May has left a true if not a full record of his humane ministry both in the pulpit and out of it, but doubtless Mr. Mumford will have something to say also of his early life and training.——Stoddart & Co., Philadelphia, are about issuing 'Hints to Young Artists,' by the late Thomas Sully.——We learn that Mr. John Hosack, the well-known author of 'Mary Queen of Scots and Her Accusers,' has finished and will soon print a second volume of that work.——Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, announce 'Lady Green-Satin and her Maid Rosette,' from the French.——At the request of W. C. Bryant, President Barnard, Judge Barrett, G. W. Curtis, Prof. Youmans, and other gentlemen of this city, Rev. John Weiss will deliver a course of six lectures on "The Characters of Shakespeare" in Robinson Hall, No. 18 East Sixteenth Street, on the evenings of February 7, 10, 14, 20, 22, and 24.

—We have received several emphatic communications in disapproval of "N. N.'s" letter, published last week, concerning the printing of examination papers in college catalogues; but, for want of room, we must reserve them for another issue.

—We shall not be alone in welcoming back into the field of political, religious, and miscellaneous controversy the now venerable but still vigorous Mr. Orestes Brownson. This month he publishes the first number of what he designates the "last series" of his well-known *Quarterly Review*. It is fully equal to its predecessors, and they formed a body of as good hard thinking on important topics as ever issued from the American press. As to the soundness of their conclusions, there were often two opinions, at the least; and two opinions diametrically opposed, and one of which was in the necessity of nature destined to destroy and exterminate the other. On the other hand, there was often perfect unanimity among all right-thinking persons as regards the good service done by Mr. Brownson to some vitally important cause, moral or intellectual. And however these things might be, there were never two opinions as to the rigid and manly honesty and openness of his intentions, and seldom two opinions as regards the unambiguous openness of his method as well, while his mere form of expression was singularly taking, by reason of its simplicity, clearness, strength, and freedom from any shadow of artifice or affectation. Had he written for some great newspaper, and on topics in which he and a wide audience had a common interest, it is probable no writer of the century would have gained a surer popularity. As it was, he has been little known, except among the more thoughtful and enlightened students of religious controversy; and, to some of those, he has been known only as an able and uncompromising enemy. He is, however, an enemy in whom a controversialist might well delight. An American Protestant, for example, who is persuaded that American political institutions are perfection, that Roman Catholicism, in its essence, is inimical to our political institutions, and that his countrymen are justly convinced of the soundness of these views, may well enough be satisfied with a Roman Catholic writer who thus expresses himself in regard to American civilization:

"I confess, therefore, though my interest in my country and countrymen is as great as ever, I do not consider it a high compliment to be credited with an intense Americanism. Where the people are Catholic and submissive to the law of God, as declared and applied by the Vicar of Christ and supreme pastor of the church, democracy may be a good form of government; but combined with Protestantism or infidelity in the people, its inevitable tendency is to lower the standard of morality, to enfeeble intellect, to abase character, and to retard civilization, as even our short American experience amply proves. Our republic may have had a material expansion and growth; but every observing and reflecting American, whose memory goes back, as mine does, over fifty years, sees that in all else it is tending downward, and is on the declivity to utter barbarism."

—"Religion, Philosophy, Politics, and General Literature" are the subjects of which *Brownson's Quarterly* will treat, and in the number before us we have, first, an article introductory to the "last series," which avows the editor's belief that what the age needs is "Catholicity in its strength, not in its weakness," and announces that "nobody must expect from the *Review* any soothing words for the enemies of the Church; any effort to conciliate the despoilers and revilers of St. Peter." The Syllabus will guide the editor when modern civilization is discussed. The second article is entitled "The Papacy and the Republic," and maintains that the Republic is doomed unless the people become Roman Catholics, and the state takes its rightful position of subordination to the church. As it is, we are all going headlong to the pit because the one true and great conservative principle of our system, "the Common Law inherited from our Catholic ancestors," "the Common Law which is of Catholic origin, or at least was brought to its perfection ages ago" by Catholic judges, is in danger of disappearing under the attacks of the politicians and the cheap lawyers. Only Catholicism can now avail to save us. Next comes "The Döllingerites, Nationalists, and the Papacy," which we confess we did not read; and the fifth article, which treats of some lectures by Archbishop Manning, we also left unattacked, our interest in that giant of intellect being faint. Between them is a very good article which we did read, and with a good deal of satisfaction, and which we feel sure will do good and a great deal of good. There is, to be sure, running through it a rather common and sufficiently cool suggestion—not an assertion, but an assumption much affected by Romanist writers—that Roman Catholicism makes chaster women than Protestantism. But this apart, there is much sound doctrine on the general question of the relation of the sexes, and of the way in which women who write novels write about women. Lady Georgiana Fullerton—"one of the very few women authors the stern masculinity of the *Review* can tolerate as writers on Catholic subjects"—and a certain Sister Mary Francis Clare, are the authors whose works form the text for the essay; but other writers are touched upon, and the general remarks are, as we have said, good and profitable, one American "woman writer," as Mr. Brownson would say, coming in for some advice which is kindly meant and, in our opinion, just. We imagine, too, that it will be as well taken as meant, and we hope it may be pondered by plenty others of our novelists besides the author of 'The House of Yorke.' "What is the Need of Revelation?" "Politics at Home," "European Politics," and "Literary Notices and Criticisms," make up the rest of the number, in which there is very little indeed that does not invite attention and repay it. Every too optimistic, Fourth-of-July orator, every Manifest-Destinarian, every too devoted idolater of Plymouth Rock, may find it of use in confirming him at least in his opinion. And it may even do him the service of making him suspect for a moment that he may, after all, have been now and again a little too inflamed.

—Readers of newspapers and magazines are perhaps too intimately acquainted with Macaulay's 'New Zealander'—that rather tiresome traveller of the future who is to visit the ruins of London, and who will indulge in the melancholy and moral reflections which such a spectacle should awaken in the properly regulated mind. In the meantime, writers of leading articles have made "a useful man" of him, and have put him to all that kind of sentimental work. But, as is well known, he is no child of Macaulay's; he had been making his prospective archæological journeys long before Macaulay was born. He was to come from Peru, from Alaska, from the Antipodes, from nowhere in particular; and he was to sigh over the ruins of New York and Philadelphia as well as of London, or, indeed, over any ruins; the main point was the moral. Mrs. Barbauld knew him in 1811: "On some future day a traveller from the Antipodes will, from a broken arch of Blackfriars Bridge, contemplate the ruins of St. Paul's." There can be no doubt that this is the identical individual—Macaulay's own man. A few years earlier, about 1803, Kirke White had a faint glimpse of him:

> "Where now is Britain? . . .
> Her palaces and halls? . . .
> . . . o'er her marts,
> Her crowded ports, broods silence."
>
> ". . . the savage sits upon the stone
> That marks where stood her capitols," etc.,
>
> ". . . and perhaps discovers
> Some vestige of her ancient stateliness."

Ten or a dozen years before White, Richard Alsop, of Connecticut, one of the Hartford wits, announced the arrival of this same traveller from

> ". . . his distant home
> From western shores with brilliant cities graced"—
>
> "Where now Alaska lifts her forests rude"—

to stray, "contemplative,"

> "Where Philadelphia caught the admiring gaze,
> Mid ambient waves where York's emporium shone,
> Or fair Bostonia graced her Eastern throne."

He hears no human voice—only

> ". . . the moan of winds that sadly sigh
> O'er many a shattered pile and broken stone."

In 1760 or '62, thirty years earlier, Goldsmith describes the man and his feelings in the 'Citizen of the World.' London itself, he says, will fade away some day, and leave a desert in its room. "The sorrowful traveller wanders over the awful ruins," and as he beholds he learns wisdom and feels the transience of every sublunary possession. "Here, he cries, stood their citadel, now grown over with weeds; there their Senate House, now the haunt of every noxious reptile; temples and theatres stood here," etc. Alsop's man also notices the noxious reptile and defines it:

> "From some gray tomb by withering fern o'erspread
> Slow rears the rattlesnake his glistening crest,
> And fills with dreadful sounds the dreary waste."

Horace Walpole's "curious traveller from Lima" appears to be the same man;

and is not the Agricola of the Georgics who rests "contemplative" upon his plough to moralize over what he has turned up in the furrow—

"Grandia que effossis mirabitur ossa sepulchris"—

an earlier avatar of this venerable personage? He can be traced back beyond the middle of the last century, and there is reason to suspect his existence hundreds of years before. We believe him to be the Wandering Jew of literature.

—Father Finotti's 'List of Works written by Catholic Authors and published in the United States' (New York: Catholic Publication Society) intersperses titles, copied with a fair degree of accuracy and fulness, with notes written in an agreeable, chatty style, and conveying considerable biographical information. He ought to be thanked heartily for one thing, that he did not wait till his work was perfect before publishing. All bibliographies should appear in two editions—one in which the author and his friends do their best; a second, in which he uses the corrections and additions that his first edition is sure to call out. Father Finotti understands this, and appeals to his readers for emendations. We send ours at once, beginning at the beginning. Why is the book called 'Bibliographia Catholica *Americana*'? No work has any right to the title 'Bibliographia Americana' which omits the rich Catholic literature of Canada, of Mexico, of Peru, and other South American states—a literature which surpasses in extent and in commercial, if not intrinsic, value that which is recorded in the present volume. Father Finotti is an enthusiastic bibliographer, but also, it is easy to see, an unpractised one. In describing books in his own library, in regard to which, if anywhere, one would expect him to be accurate, he often leaves out such important particulars as the date of publication and the form. He gives a list of Chateaubriand's "American editions, as far as I know of them," and omits the two Boston (1802 and 1814) and the New York (1818) editions of 'Atala,' and the Boston edition of 'René' (1815), all of which he could have found in Sabin's 'Bibliotheca Americana,' a work which he should have consulted constantly. Only Part I. (1784–1820) of the 'Bibliographia' has yet appeared. It is arranged alphabetically. It is to be hoped that in the Fifth Part, which is to contain addenda, a chronological list will be given, which is absolutely necessary to enable the Bibliography to perform its historical work.

—Mrs. A. M. C. Seemuller, whose death in a German town where she had been residing for the benefit of her health has just been announced, is perhaps better known by her maiden name of Anne Moncure Crane, and still better by her title of "Author of 'Emily Chester.'" A dozen years ago, three or four American young women made a sudden reputation for themselves by writing a novel apiece, and of these Miss Crane was one. The author of 'Rutledge' was another; another was the author of 'The Amber Gods'; but Miss Crane's first book was more widely read than those of either of the other ladies. It will not now be recollected very well by many people, as its success was in reality essentially an ephemeral success, and the reputation it procured for its author fleeting. And this it is worth while to point out, because its example was not without influence on many of its author's young countrywomen, and there was at once a rise in the market value of the young heroine who is wavering between two gentlemen, for one of whom she feels "an affinity," and to the other of whom she is bound by common or statute law. The soulful young hero, also, who wants the young heroine whom he cannot have, was also much advanced in value by this novel. It, in short, brought to the knowledge of the average school-girl Goethe's 'Elective Affinities,' or rather a pale shadow of that work, and so was popular for a time. "Nature is to be studied in her monstrosities" was its characteristic motto, and it may be supposed to have done the school-girls vast good. It was, indeed, the work of a writer who, at the time of writing, was hardly more than a school-girl herself, and who had that excuse for the crudity of her book. It is told of the novel that the author was one day with a party of young ladies, her companions, one of whom proposed that they should form a literary club, each member of which should in turn write something to be read to the others, and that, acting on this suggestion, 'Emily Chester' was written, although the proposed club was never organized. Some five years afterwards the story was published. Mrs. Seemuller's subsequent productions, whether short stories for the magazines or longer ones, have attracted little attention, and required little; but if they showed no marked capacity, they showed, too, that the somewhat unfortunate plot of 'Emily Chester' was a matter of no significance.

—M. Gabriel Monod's 'Etudes critiques sur les Sources de l'histoire mérovingienne,' in praise of which we lately quoted a German critic, deserves mention again on account of the peculiar circumstances of its composition. M. Monod is the director of the Ecole des Hautes Etudes, and all his pupils took part in this work. 'Each one undertook the study of a special point, and reported in our weekly reunions the result of his researches, which were then discussed and commented upon by all present.' A better mode of making the study of history profitable and delightful could hardly be imagined, and our college professors having easy access to good libraries would do well to imitate M. Monod's example. Another work, going back to the original sources, is Charles Vatel's 'Charlotte Corday et les Girondins,' which fills three octavo volumes and a quarto atlas, and, after all, presents only one phase of the life which M. Vatel has undertaken to investigate *ad imum*. Two volumes have already preceded this one, and three more are promised, including an inedited biography of Charlotte Corday, by Louis Caille Desfontaines, her first historian. Following these, mention may appropriately be made of H. Wallon's 'La Terreur,' a critical study of the history of the French Revolution. Of Paul Lacroix's 'Vie militaire et religieuse au Moyen Age et à l'époque de la Renaissance,' we hope to speak shortly from careful examination. A work that vies with it in value and costly elegance is the 'Musée des archives nationales,' a sort of guide to the original documents of French history exhibited in the Hôtel Soubise, illustrated by 1,200 fac-similes of the chirography of the most important, from the Merovingian period down to the French Revolution. Ludovic Lalanne's 'Dictionnaire historique de la France' is the product of great industry at first hand, and is said to be one of the best of its kind. To Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire universel des contemporains' (fourth edition) has been added a supplement by Léon Garnier, in which the *Polybiblion* complains that the men of the 4th September, of the Commune, and of the Left occupy the principal place, while the "conservateurs" are sadly neglected.

—There is perhaps no class of subscription books, or books sold through agents, better calculated to impose on even the well educated than atlases, nor any on which the purchaser as a rule gets less for his money, or buys in a dearer market. The opportunity to examine carefully and to compare with the best work of the same class is generally altogether wanting, let alone a knowledge of the criteria of such work. Except the maps of the Coast Survey, of the Government expeditions, and here and there of a State survey, like that of California, American cartography cannot be praised very highly—not at all, we believe, when it pretends to be an original compilation from the best sources in regard to foreign countries, as in the case of our home-made atlases. At the present moment the best map-makers for the whole world are without question the Germans, and we have before us two admirable specimens of their work, which are being issued in parts that may be bought separately, at a very low rate. Of Dr. Karl von Spruner's 'Hand-Atlas for the History of the Middle Ages and of Modern Times' (third edition) we have already spoken, apropos of the earliest issues. The sixth part is now obtainable, and it and the preceding include maps of the Eastern Roman Empire in Justinian's time; Syria at the time of the Crusades; the Ottoman Empire and its dependencies in the XVIIth century; Spain from the beginning of the XVIth; Italy from 1492 to the Peace of Campo Formio (1797); France in its widest extent under Napoleon I.; Russia, during three periods, from 900 to 1240; the whole of Poland and its several partitions; Europe in 1810, with Napoleon's Campaign in Russia—after the Vienna Congress, 1815—in the middle of the XIXth century, with its ethnographical relations, etc., etc. We have named chiefly the larger maps, but there is a host of *Nebenkarten*—minor and supplementary maps—stowed away in the spaces not otherwise in request. Of the execution and accuracy of these productions it is quite unnecessary to speak. A certain amount of explanatory text accompanies each issue, and can be bound separately in a handy volume. Of equal merit, but dealing only with the present, the very latest, state of geography and of geographical science, is Adolf Stieler's 'Hand-Atlas of All Parts of the Earth and of the World-Fabric (*Weltgebäude*).' Each part (the 11th is now out) contains three full-plate maps, with frequent *Nebenkarten*, and already Germany and Switzerland have had five maps devoted to them, Spain four, Great Britain and Ireland three, Australia three, Belgium and the Netherlands two, Hungary and Austria two, Polynesia two, Denmark, West Indies and Central America, United States, Italy, and China and Japan, one each. Besides these, the "world-fabric" is illustrated in the visible side of the earth's surface (as a planet seen in space), the northern heavens in the middle of the XIXth century, the ocean currents, winds, and navigation courses, the North Atlantic Ocean. The United States are to be mapped in six plates, of which the first appeared in Part 9 (from the Pacific to the Rocky Mountains, as far south as San Francisco), and is better than any with which we are familiar, except so much of it as is contained in Mr. Clarence King's mining atlas. Both these "hand-atlases" (not so small as the name might be taken to imply) may be had either of B. Westermann or of L. W. Schmidt, in this city, by whom they are kept in stock. Later in-

vestigations and political changes may leave Stieler out of date in some particulars, but can never deprive it of real and permanent value.

'MIDDLEMARCH.'*

II.

IS 'Middlemarch' the most successful as it is certainly the most elaborate effort of George Eliot's genius?

Hundreds of critics will answer in the affirmative, and may point to the infinite variety of the persons described, to the exquisite beauty and wit of the remarks and epigrams with which the book teems, in confirmation of their judgment. But though 'Middlemarch' has stuff enough in it to fill out four or five ordinary novels, and though it would undoubtedly at once make the reputation of an unknown author, it will not be permanently placed on a level with 'Adam Bede,' 'Romola,' or with the most exquisite of all George Eliot's works—the 'History of Silas Marner.' The defect of the book is, that the parts are much more striking than the whole, and the source of this defect lies in two characteristics, one of which is peculiar to 'Middlemarch,' whilst the other, though traceable in all George Eliot's writings, becomes far more prominent in her later than in her earlier works.

What readers care for in 'Middlemarch' is the study of character, but the author herself, as she takes pains by the very title to point out, intended it as a study primarily not of character but of provincial life. She in fact aimed at two different objects. Her first aim is to give a picture of existence in an English country town forty years ago; her second, to show how this prosaic life told upon the characters of three or four of the persons born into it. Now, in the attainment of the first object, George Eliot completely succeeds. The novel as a mere rendering of English life rises as much above such works as Mrs. Gaskell's truthful and amusing sketch of 'Cranford,' or Miss Austen's truthful but to us, we confess, not very amusing sketches of commonplace people, as a work of genius must always rise above books marked more by grace or cleverness. Looked at in fact as a series of pictures, 'Middlemarch' is the most perfect representation of life in an English country town which is to be found in our language. Even the minute details of Fred's petty and somewhat sordid extravagance, and the descriptions of the horse-dealers by whom he is cheated, and of the billiard-room which he frequents, all add something to the picture, and bring before the mind the fearful and oppressive dreariness of a country town. But the very success with which George Eliot has painted 'Middlemarch' has been unfavorable to her full attainment of the second, and by far the more important, object of the tale. The form of the story has made it impossible to centre the reader's interest fixedly on any one character. You can never fully occupy your mind with Dorothea or with Lydgate in the same way in which you can give yourself up unreservedly to the character of Romola or of Silas Marner. Just when you begin to be anxious about Dorothea's fate, you are carried off to Lydgate and Rosamond; and when your whole mind has become filled with the question whether Lydgate's genius will or will not be ruined by Rosamond's pettiness, you are compelled to break away both from Lydgate and Dorothea, and to interest yourself in the fate of Bulstrode or in the happiness of the Garth family. The mere annoyance of being constantly shifted from one scene to another is a trifling consideration. A much more serious evil of this constant shifting is, that it prevents the author from fully elaborating any one character, and from studying the effect of the work as a whole.

It is always an ungraceful and often a foolish thing to complain of a great work because it is not something which it does not profess to be, and there is something specially futile in censuring an author of genius because he has not the peculiar genius of some other writer. There is nothing, for instance, gained by pointing out that 'Esmond,' because it is meant for an imitation of a work of the last century, wants the ease of 'Pendennis,' or by censuring Dickens because he is not Thackeray, or Thackeray because he is not Dickens. But it is sound criticism to measure an author's productions by the standard of his own greatest works. Now, it is when judged by this criterion that 'Middlemarch' will be found defective. The scheme of the book as the picture of a society has, as just pointed out, the inherent defect of making it difficult to fix attention on one or two persons, or to place the minor characters in due subordination to those worth elaborate study. But it happens that George Eliot has herself shown the way in which this difficulty can be met. In her earliest and even now her most striking work you have pictures of society. The 'Sketches of Clerical Life' paint perfectly and clearly the social circle in which Janet and Amos Barton move, but you never lose sight of the principal character in the pictures of the minor personages whose figures fill up the canvas. The reason of this certainly is, in part, that the three tales making up the 'Sketches of Clerical Life' are kept entirely separate from one another. The wonderful portrait of Janet is not injured by your being called upon to study before you see it complete the picture of Amos Barton's tragic stupidity, and, on the other hand, you can attend to the miseries of the Barton family without having half your mind turned to Mr. Gilfil's romance. If any critic will candidly compare the 'Clerical Sketches' and 'Middlemarch,' he will admit that the form of the one was planned under a happy, and that of the latter a distinctly unhappy, inspiration. For the one feature which would vindicate the scheme of 'Middlemarch' is wanting. At the beginning of the book, every one must have anticipated that the different histories commenced in it will by degrees become so closely interlaced as to form a complete whole. As a matter of fact, though Dorothea's life affects the life of Lydgate, and though there is a link (a very slight one, it may be added) between Fred's marriage and Bulstrode's calamity, still the book consists of at least three perfectly separate tales. A very slight amount of change would make it possible even now to publish separately the history of Dorothea and Casaubon, of Lydgate and Rosamond, and of Fred and Mary, and no one can doubt that the author might originally have produced these histories as three separate tales of life in 'Middlemarch.'

"Any one," writes George Eliot, "watching keenly the stealthy convergence of human lots, sees a slow preparation of effects from one life to another which tells like a calculated irony on the indifference or the frozen stare with which we look at our unintroduced neighbor. *Destiny stands by sarcastic with dramatis personæ folded in her hand.*" This passage, and especially the last sentence of it, might be taken as a fair description of the attitude occupied by the author towards her own work. To a certain extent in all her books, but to a far greater extent in 'Middlemarch' than in any of her other writings, George Eliot performs the part of the "destiny which stands by sarcastic," and comments on the fate of the actors whom she brings into existence. A main feature—in short, perhaps the main feature—of 'Middlemarch' is the prominence given to what, borrowing a term from Greek tragedy, may be called the "chorus." The work begins with a prelude in which the reader is warned that he is to hear the history of a "St. Theresa, foundress of nothing, whose loving heart-beats and sobs after an unattained goodness tremble off and are dispersed among hindrances instead of centring in some long recognizable deed"; and the work concludes with an epilogue pointing out how the modern Theresa had failed, and the cause of her failure. Throughout the whole course of the story, moreover, the chorus is never long absent. At every turn reflections are introduced upon the characters, upon the events, upon the way the characters and the events work upon one another. No one who admires beautiful writing or can appreciate striking and original thoughts can fail to feel that the chorus or reflective portion of the book is full of beauty and power. To a large class of persons it forms probably the great charm of 'Middlemarch.' It certainly constitutes the most peculiar feature of the book. But a critic, even while he admires the reflections themselves, and feels that as moral reflections they possess far greater depth and subtlety than the remarks generally forced upon the world under the guise of moral teaching, can hardly deny that the part taken by George Eliot as the moralizer over her own handiwork, if it gives her novel a peculiar charm, also greatly damages its whole effect. It is a very curious study to observe the results which follow from the characteristic in question. One main and most injurious effect is that some of the characters are never drawn directly. We see not the men themselves, but the personages as they appear in the author's reflections upon them. Take, for example, Bulstrode: an immense amount of skill, pains, and thought has been expended upon him yet he never becomes a really living character in the sense in which his wife, for example, of whom comparatively little is told us, stands out as a living human being; and the reason of this is obvious. Of Bulstrode's thoughts and motives, of his views of religion, of his ideas of Providence, of his attempt to adjust his actions to principles which he held and yet had not the firmness to practise; of all this we hear a great deal, and a great deal which is very well worth the hearing. As an analysis of a peculiar kind of hypocrisy the account of Bulstrode is perfect, and a reader must be much better or much worse than his neighbors who does not feel many of the reflections on Bulstrode come painfully home to his own conscience. But of Bulstrode himself we know very little. The most marked personal feature about him is that he had a bad digestion, and that painful reflections on the state of his body alternated with anxiety about the state of his soul. All we are told, as far as it goes, is natural enough; but what we maintain is that he is never really painted. We see a reflection of him, but we never see the man.

A somewhat similar defect is traceable in the description of Will. Take him all in all, he is the least satisfactory character in the book. An amateur, who could not work and would not study, who was too proud to propose to a lady whom he thought richer than himself, and not too proud to sneer at

* 'Middlemarch: A Study of Provincial Life. By George Eliot.' London: Blackwood & Sons. New York: Harper & Bros.

and annoy the man on whose charity he lived; who, having apparently a marked distaste for work and a dislike to the serious and prosaic side of life, ends his career as an active member of Parliament somewhere between 1832 and 1840—a follower, we must presume, of the Radicals of that day, that is, men like Joseph Hume—is, we confess, a character which seems to us neither interesting nor consistent. What is most apparent is that Will has a great charm for George Eliot, and the only conclusion to which one can in fairness come is that, skilful as she is, she has for once failed to put before the reader a true picture of the man as he appears to her own mind. Take Will as the facts of his life paint him, and he appears a feeble, rather well-disposed Tito, who, late in life, turns into a feeble and less energetic Felix Holt. Take him as he is spoken of by the author, and you will suppose him a man of considerable originality, great generosity, and of a special grace—a person, in short, not absolutely worthy of Dorothea, yet whom she might marry without sacrificing the lofty greatness of her nature. The cause of this divergence between the estimate of Will formed by the author, and the view of him actually taken by the reader, is, no doubt, that he is not satisfactorily drawn. But the ultimate reason why the drawing is unsatisfactory is that George Eliot is occasionally so much occupied in the chorus to her play that she forgets to introduce us thoroughly to the characters. Will and Bulstrode afford the most marked instances of this omission; but a careful comparison say of 'Silas Marner' or of 'Janet's Repentance' with 'Middlemarch,' is sufficient to prove to any one but a very fanatical admirer that as the number of George Eliot's "wise, witty, and tender" sayings increase, the directness with which she paints living persons diminishes.

The writer's preoccupation with the reflections which her story is to suggest injures her actual delineation of even those persons whom she intends to make prominent by their own acts and speeches. George Eliot tends, no doubt, unconsciously more and more to make even the most lively and original characters in the book the representatives of different aspects of her own thoughts. The tones are very various, but they all or nearly all seem to be the tones of one voice differently modulated. Take, for instance, Mrs. Cadwallader. No one is more amusing and no one more alive, but a great number of her speeches are really little but the wit of George Eliot thrown into a sharp, rustic, and caustic form.

Her description of Casaubon's blood, "somebody put a drop under a magnifying-glass, and it was all semicolons and parentheses," is an exquisite sneer, but it is exactly the kind of sarcasm, dashed with a flavor of scientific allusion, which comes perfectly naturally into reflections by George Eliot, but comes far less naturally from the mouth of the rector's wife. Mrs. Cadwallader, again, tells us how she had learnt to like her husband's sermons: "When I married Humphrey I made up my mind to like sermons, and I set out by liking the end very much; that soon spread to the middle and the beginning, because I could not have the end without them." Here, as elsewhere, the phrases may be the phrases of Mrs. Cadwallader, but the wit is essentially the wit of George Eliot. In short, Mrs. Cadwallader, and the same thing is true of half the secondary characters, is in reality not so much a secondary character as a part of the great chorus of reflection which accompanies the tragedy from beginning to end. In general, as we have said, the reflections, if they somewhat injure the movements of the drama, are in themselves so beautiful that we should scarcely care to have them omitted. In one respect, however, they are themselves open to criticism. They are occasionally injured by what truth compels us to call scientific conceits. No doubt a time may come when the progress of knowledge will make metaphors drawn from physical science really natural as appropriate illustrations, but to such a stage of knowledge the mass of so-called educated readers have certainly as yet not attained:

"Even with a microscope directed on a water-drop we find ourselves making interpretations which turn out to be rather coarse, for whereas under a weak lens you may seem to see a creature exhibiting an active voracity, into which other smaller creatures actively play, as if they were so many animated tax-pennies, a stronger lens reveals to you tiniest hairlets, which make vortices for these victims, while the swallower awaits passively at his receipt of custom. In this way, metaphorically speaking, a strong lens applied to Mrs. Cadwallader's match-making will show a play of minute causes, producing what may be called thought and speech vortices to bring her the sort of food she needed."

Now, is there in truth one out of a thousand persons who reads this passage who finds that the ten lines of scientific metaphor really make clearer to him the fact, simple enough in itself, that Mrs. Cadwallader acted under the influence of a number of infinitely small causes? Is there any one who does not feel that the remark in the 'Mill on the Floss,' that people do not really weave elaborate plots, but live very much from hand to mouth, is in fact worth all this talk about hairlets, lenses, and vortices? In truth, throughout 'Middlemarch,' we feel inclined more than half to curse the day when George Eliot began rather to reflect than to copy. The book is her greatest effort. Its defect is, and this defect places it to our minds below her most perfect writings, that it is an effort in the bad as well as in the good sense of the word. The very brilliancy of the epigrams, the marvellous power of analysis used in tracing the action of character, the elaborate care given to the separate parts, leaves in the mind a sense of something like strain, and makes it difficult to look at the work as a whole. Yet it is impossible to part from a book which may be said, almost without exaggeration, to have made for many persons the chief happiness and interest of the last year, with criticisms on defects which, be they real or not, would scarcely deserve notice in another of inferior power. One point which tempts to criticism is that you can easily perceive that when, in the interest of the story, George Eliot forgets theories and has not time to make reflections, the whole power of simple, direct description is still as strong in her as ever. The last number was written under some pressure for space. In one or two points it is certainly less finished than the rest of the book; but just in proportion as the work becomes less elaborate it grows more effective. Harriet Bulstrode is at no time a very prominent person in the story. The reader thinks of her as slightly vulgar and decidedly commonplace. Yet the whole history of her behavior under the most crushing misfortune, when the husband whom she has loved and revered turns out to be certainly a hypocrite and probably an actual murderer, is as pathetic as anything George Eliot has ever written. Mrs. Bulstrode goes down from her room to see her husband, who now knew that she had discovered all:

"'Look up, Nicholas.' He raised his eyes with a little start, and looked at her half amazed for a moment. Her pale face, her changed morning dress, the trembling about the mouth, all said 'I know,' and her hands and eyes rested gently on him. He burst out crying, and they cried together, she sitting at his side. They could not yet speak to each other of the shame which she was bearing with him, or of the acts which had brought it down on them. His confession was silent and her promise of faithfulness was silent. Open-minded as she was, she nevertheless shrank from the words which would have expressed their mutual consciousness as she would have shrunk from flakes of fire. She could not say, 'How much is only slander and false suspicion?' and he did not say, 'I am innocent.'"

CRANCH'S ÆNEID.*

MR. CRANCH belongs to that class which may be called a natural product of our democratic institutions in one of the best directions of their development—a class of which Mr. W. W. Story is perhaps the best specimen; many-sided men, practising both art and literature, and more than one branch of each. In the dearth of encouragement for strict specialists, they do much to form the public mind and improve the public taste, and to redeem us from the charge of utter materialism. Still, the very fact of their many-sidedness sometimes interferes with their success in certain kinds of work which require long preparation and special attention.

"Caparisons are odorous," yet the very title of this handsome volume suggests a comparison. Longfellow has translated Dante, Bryant Homer, and now Cranch translates Virgil. When we have said that neither the American 'Iliad' nor the American 'Divine Comedy' fills our idea of what Homer and Dante should be in English, the reader will be less surprised at the assertion that Mr. Cranch has followed suit, and given us an inadequate rendering of the 'Æneid.' This is the more to be regretted, because he has started from a right theory and on correct principles; his conception is blameless, the fault lies in the execution.

In translating a classical or foreign author, one of the first considerations is the form to be employed; that is to say, the metre. Once this would have been the first and almost the only consideration. But the progress of scholarship has made the *exact* interpretation of the original a more important matter than it was. Greater accuracy is required both in the construction and in the interpretation of single words. Thus, we are not quite certain what is the best rendering for *emicat*, Æneid, lib. vi. v. 5 ("juvenum manus emicat ardens"); but we *are* sure that the usual translation, "springs," or "leaps," does not give the entire sense of it. Perhaps an additional adjective for the noun, or an adverb attached to the verb, would bring out the full force of the expression. Again, every school-boy thinks that he can construe the well-known line describing the Cyclops; yet it is very doubtful if the ordinary rendering is correct, and if the accumulation of three adjectives after one substantive is good, idiomatic, Virgilian Latin. The line should probably be pointed

"Monstrum horrendum, informe, *ingens cui lumen ademptum*,"

and translated accordingly, "bereft of his huge eye." If it be said that accuracy in these minor details is unnecessary, because verse translation is never so literal, we reply that in order to be able to give the proper equivalents, the translator must understand the exact meaning of the original.

* 'The Æneid of Virgil. Translated into English Blank Verse, by Christopher Pearse Cranch.' Boston: Osgood & Co. 1872.

Under this head we may include some obvious points of quantity, about which translators are sometimes careless. And here we are obliged at the outset to mark a blunder of Mr. Cranch, which might perhaps have passed unobserved had he not taken special pains to call attention to it in a note. Apparently not knowing what a spondaic line is

(Quales | Threici | æ quum | flumina *Thermō* | *dontis*),

he writes *Thermŏdon*, and blames Symmons and Conington for writing *Thermōdon*.

Still, in reference to the general reader, the principal question for the classical translator will be, What metre shall he adopt? Our first answer is negative. With all due deference to the very respectable authority on the other side, *not* the classic hexameter. One of the ordinary objections, and the first brought forward by Mr. Cranch in his preface, namely, that the English language is short of spondees, does not seem to us insurmountable. It is only a question of time and trouble. By taking parts of words, and making a cæsura in every spondee, you may find enough of these feet to break the dactylic monotony. Much better is the second reason which he assigns, to wit, that the metre is "obsolete," exotic, and un-English. Indeed, we are inclined to adopt his *obsolete* as a very happy epithet, and to maintain that, whether we understand the proper rhythm and swing of the old hexameter or not, it is unsuited to modern tongues. Much has been said in praise of the German hexameter. Our own opinion is, that if an old Greek or Roman could be resuscitated, a large dose of German hexameters would send him headlong back to his grave. What sort of dactyl, for instance, is *säuselnde*, with its *three* consonants after the vowel of the second (*short*) syllable? Setting German aside, in English the metre is certainly unhandy, and, after a time, tires both writer and reader. This is a more potent consideration than may appear at first sight. Let us illustrate it by the French heroic metre. That metre, as Bishop Percy observed, exists in English, but only in the form of popular songs and "broadside" ballads. Hence we cannot invest it with sufficient dignity for heroic verse. Who could suffer canto after canto of lines like these?

"The war-cloud of dust, rolling heavy and dun,
Cut off from the fields all the light of the sun.
The crash of the drum and the clarion's blast
The death that was following grimly forecast."*

No one would think of translating the 'Henriade' (supposing it worth translating at all) into anything but Popian heroics, nor would any one think of translating Racine except into blank verse.

As respects Homer, our own idea has always been that he should be translated into fourteen-syllable iambics, the metre employed by Chapman, his first complete translator. Chapman's chief fault was that he broke up the sense and ran it from one line into another, which is utterly un-Homeric. Whenever he has made a full line, with sense and sound closing together, his metrical advantage over his successor is to us extremely clear. But as we never found any one to agree with us, except the late Dean Alford—"Christopher North" coquetted in that direction, but could not make up his mind—we suppose this must pass for a private crotchet. Aytoun contended that long trochaics, like 'Locksley Hall,' were the proper English vehicle for Homer. This may also be considered an individual fancy. No one has ever proposed to apply either of these metres to Virgil.

The irregular ballad-like stanza, of which Scott's poems are the best long specimens, has been recommended and tried as the proper medium for transferring ancient epics into the English language. Maginn made "Homeric Ballads" out of episodes in the Odyssey. Professor Conington has rendered the Æneid into Scottian verse. The motive, we suspect, was different in the two cases: in the former, a notion of the ballad origin of Homer, and a conviction that in any case some of the episodes were intercalated ballads; in the latter, a persuasion that the martial tramp of Virgil was best expressed by the metre of Scott. There is a certain amount of reason in this, but the insuperable objection interposes itself that the classical epic was written in a continuous form of verse, and is altogether metrically misrepresented by a changeable and changing versification. The extravagance of turning regular into irregular metres was unintentionally illustrated by Bulwer when (in his 'Athens') he substituted a wild, choruslike lyric for the stately iambics in which Clytemnestra relates† the progress of the beacon-fires that announced the capture of Troy.

There remain the English heroic couplet and blank verse. The former has these recommendations: First. Authority and precedent: the weight of which is much diminished by the consideration that the epic of our language is written in blank verse. Second. That rhyme is easier to remember. This reason may appear to some readers puerile; with us it has a definite weight. Passages from classic translations are some of the very best exercises for schoolboys, who have to commit to memory "pieces" for recitation or declamation; in later life they form agreeable ornaments to solitary reflection, to private conversation, and to public oratory. But these and some other reasons, which might be urged in its favor, are not strong enough to overcome the objections to rhyme, such as the occasional omissions and more frequent paraphrases which it requires. Even in original composition one line of a couplet is often a mere makeweight to the other, and this must more frequently be the case in a translation.

Mr. Cranch has, therefore, to our mind, acted wisely in choosing blank verse for the metre of his 'Æneid.' But now comes the great trouble and difficulty, something much greater than any of the difficulties attendant on rhyme, because more subtile and less apparent. Blank verse is both the easiest and most difficult of all verse to write; the easiest to make out *somehow*, the most difficult to inspire with a true *afflatus* of poetry. When a versifier has a facility of rhyming, the mere rhyme supplies something which, if not exactly poetry, is at least a specious imitation of it—witness many jingles of Poe, Swinburne, and Jean Ingelow, which owe their doubtful poetic *status* entirely to their endings, and, if deprived of these, would be sheer balderdash. The writer of blank verse has no such help. If he does not possess a real sentiment of harmony and melody, as well as somewhat of the true poetic vein, the literal blankness of his composition will stand out. His verse will be little more than prose cut up into equal lengths. And, therefore, while any fairly educated person who can count on his fingers, and has read a certain quantity of poetry, can turn out something that will do duty for blank-verse, the men living or dead who have produced the genuine article are few indeed. Moreover, there is an additional difficulty in the case of translation; the original author has a manner of his own, which must be to some extent imitated by a translator who understands his business. For instance, if Tennyson had the patience and perseverance to translate Homer, his version, despite sundry Tennysonian mannerisms, would be a masterpiece. But he could not translate Virgil equally well; he has not "go" or *entrain* enough to reproduce the Latin poet.

There is a kind of translation which ingeniously manages to take all the poetry out of the original. We all know what Hobbes did for Homer. Now we will not say that Mr. Cranch's work is quite on this level, but it often descends perilously near to it. No person unacquainted with Latin could gather from it the least idea of the sonorousness, the majesty, the grandeur, and, at the same time, the vigorous movement and martial swing of the old poet, whom everybody used to call Virgil. We are careful to reiterate the epithet martial, because the ideas of valor and battle are as prominent in Virgil's verse as in Bellini's music. After this general pervading fault, it is scarcely worth while to dwell on particular blemishes.

That our readers may judge for themselves, we give Mr. Cranch's rendering of one of the finest passages in Virgil, the awakening of Æneas by the Trojan conflagration:

"Meanwhile, with many a lamentable cry
The city is confused. And more and more,
Although my sire Anchises' house stood far
Away, hid and secluded, 'mid the trees,
The noise grew loud, and all the horrible clang
Of arms increased. Starting from sleep, I gain
With swift ascent the housetop's loftiest verge,
And stand and listen with arrected ears.
As when the flames are raging through the corn,
Driven by the furious winds—or a mountain stream
Swollen to a rapid torrent, floods the fields,
And desolates the smiling crops and all
The labors of the oxen, and drags down
The forests; and the unconscious shepherd stands
Listening upon the peak of some high rock,
Bewildered by the rushing noise below,
Then verily the false faith of the Greeks
Is manifest—their treacherous arts revealed.
Down falls the palace of Deiphobus
Amid the conquering flames; Ucalegon
Next burns. The broad Sigean waves reflect
The fiery glow. And shouts of men are heard
And blare of trumpets. Wildly I seize my arms;
Although for arms there seemed but little use.
But still I burned to gather a small band,
And with my comrades to the citadel
Rush on; for rage and fury hurried me.
A glorious thing it seemed to me to die
In arms."*

POLITICAL TEXT-BOOKS.†

IT is a difficult question to decide how far our public-school course should be widened, so as to take in the study of political and social science. On the one hand it is complained, and with some justice, that the introduction

* "Les nuages épais que formait la poussière," etc.
† Æschylus, 'Agamemnon.'

* "Diverso interea miscentur moenia luctu," etc.—Lib. ii., 298 sqq.

† 'A Manual of American Ideas, Designed, 1, For the use of Schools; 2, For the Instruction of Foreigners seeking Naturalization; 3, For the Use of Voters. By Caspar T. Hopkins, M.A.' San Francisco: Printed for the Author. 1872. 12mo, pp. 320.
'Social Economy. By J. E. Thorold Rogers, Tooke Professor of Economic Science, University of Oxford. Revised for American Readers.' New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1872. 12mo, pp. 167.

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of a multiplicity of branches into our schools has already resulted in a superficial and fragmentary knowledge of many things, which is of far less service in the long run than the narrower but more thorough training of the last generation. On the other hand, if the one sufficient justification of free and compulsory education is this, that universal education is the sole safeguard of a political system like ours, it would seem that no single study should take precedence of that of government and society. And we are inclined to think that this is so; that when the pupil can read and write and reckon, and has a fair general knowledge of the geography of the earth, and the history of his own country, the very next object of attention should be, not algebra, or chemistry, or astronomy, or even perhaps natural philosophy or physiology, or grammar, but the institutions under which he lives. The necessity of this has been recognized in the many serviceable text-books on the American Constitution which have appeared of late years. The two books before us undertake to widen the field somewhat further—the one, by a study of "ideas," which is to precede that of institutions; the other, by the general principles of political economy and social science. We have no doubt that both authors undertake to supply a real want; we think, however, that the book that is wanted for our schools is one which shall incorporate all that is desirable on these heads—or at least the first mentioned—with the detailed study of the Constitution of the United States. Few schools can afford the time for two books on so nearly related subjects.

In the first place, of Mr. Hopkins's book, we are shy of the study of "ideas" for any but very advanced students. The scholars in our public schools do not want abstractions, but a clear presentation of concrete facts—including, no doubt, certain definite and well-established general principles. That is, the study of ideas should follow, not precede, a knowledge of outside facts. When a class has once acquired a familiarity with the institutions of its own country, it can understand something of those of other countries, and can for the first time see a real meaning in such terms as *freedom, republic, citizen;* until then, the most carefully learned definitions are nothing but empty strings of words. For this reason we do not think Mr. Hopkins's book is likely to be of much service in its present form. It is intended as an introduction to the study of government, while most of its material is better fitted to come in a later stage.

Perhaps what we have said upon the general object of the book is enough; but we will remark further, that in the execution of it the author has made the same mistake, of giving too much general talk, and too little definite, easily mastered matter. A great deal of it is in what one may call the "Fourth of July" style, a universal eulogy of whatever is American, with no attempt at teaching the pupil to discriminate what is good in other systems, or what needs to be improved in his own. He is not distinctly taught that our American institutions and ideas are after all only a development of English; and the term "American" is sedulously reiterated, even in cases where "English" would have been equally correct. We cannot value too highly the inculcation of genuine American ideas, the political principles upon which whatever is good in our system rests; but it can only do mischief to encourage the common habit of glorifying whatever is American. It ought to be remembered that it is because of this practice of indiscriminate glorification and boasting that so many at the present day have lost even a pretence of sympathy for American republicanism. They see that a great part of what they have been taught is mischievous and untrue, and they rush, no less illogically and inconsiderately, in the opposite direction. As an illustration of this false treatment and exaggerated Americanism in the book before us, we will mention the chapter on aristocracy, and the frequent recurrence of such statements as that "no nation that ever existed has been so completely governed in all its public acts by the influence of pure religion among the people" (p. 123).

Apart from the feature just objected to, the book has considerable merit, and contains much that could very advantageously be incorporated in a study of the Federal Constitution—part of it as introductory, part as a sequel, but most in connection with the commentary upon the several clauses of that instrument. The special attention given to "Legal Ideas" is a very good feature, and the chapter on Checks and Balances, p. 64, is an example of the author's best work. In what we have said we have had in mind the wants of the school-room; for the other professed objects of the author the book would serve a very good purpose, except for the aggressive character of its Americanism, which would certainly do the newly naturalized citizen more harm than good.

Professor Rogers's 'Social Economy' is a brief and compendious discussion of the principal social phenomena, from the point of view of political economy; embracing therefore an outline of political economy as a basis of the further discussion. The author has been remarkably successful in compressing this large and difficult subject in a small space, and in treating it in a clear and interesting manner. He seems, however, to have erred sometimes in aiming overmuch at brevity and simplicity, and in trying to avoid technicalities in points which are essentially technical. The subject of Rent, for instance, p. 21, is not made at all clear; the relation of Production to Capital, p. 60, is not treated so fully as one would desire; and the definition of the fundamental topic of Value does not receive the attention it requires. On the whole, we should say that the purely social chapters were better than the economical ones, although some of the latter are excellent, as, for instance, those upon Wages, Labor, and Money.

It is very seldom that a text-book prepared for one nation is adapted to the use of another, and the book before us is no exception to the rule. Not that there is any American science of political economy, or that we would take exception to the views advanced here; but there runs through the entire discussion the assumption of a condition of society and tone of thought which are different from our own. So simple a circumstance as that the English economists always speak of "bank notes" where the American boy only knows "bank bills," illustrates this point; and if we mention a few obvious cases, it is with the understanding that the feature objected to consists mainly in points too subtle to analyze or point out definitely. The American editor has done his best to obviate this difficulty, but it lies in the nature of things and could not be wholly removed. The sentence, p. 20, "The climate of the island [New Zealand] is very like that of England, and the land is as fit for ordinary crops as that of our own country"—of course intended for English boys—is a good example of this defect. Sentences like this are not uncommon, but to be sure present no difficulties to the American reader. The ingenuous student will be delighted (p. 118) to learn that tea, coffee, sugar, spirits, and tobacco "are nearly the only objects on the use of which the Government of this country lays any taxes." And we doubt whether the school committees of Lynn or Cohoes would dare to introduce a book which taught the children of operatives that their father's employer "is called master" (p. 46); the next edition must read "boss"!

Few topics deserve better the attention of our higher grades of schools than that treated in this volume; and, giving all weight to the trifling defects to which we have alluded, we doubt whether a better book for the purpose is likely to be provided.

A Memorial of Alice and Phœbe Cary. With some of their later poems. By Mary Clemmer Ames. (New York: Hurd & Houghton.)—This volume is not a memoir, but a memorial—not a biography so much as a tribute of affection. For a biography no materials existed, since not only were the incidents too few and too commonplace for remark, but there was nothing to throw light on them, such as they were. The author declares that, looking through the entire mass of their papers, she found not a single word of their own referring in any personal way to themselves. They shrank from writing letters; they kept no diaries of thought or incident. The few letters retained by their friends, sometimes, perhaps, unobservant of the writer's request that they should be burned, were either business epistles or friendly communications, too personal in character for the public eye. The author, therefore, had no choice but either to abandon her task or perform it as a labor of love, drawing on her own stores of affectionate recollection and borrowing the glowing testimonies of personal friends.

This she has done, The book is evidently written by a lover for lovers. To the critical or indifferent reader the excess of sympathetic admiration will make the pictures seem overcolored, and will raise a suspicion that they are untrue. Proverbially, the language of love is language of exaggeration, and lovers only should read it. Of those who knew the sisters intimately, some will no doubt think the portraiture just. Others will fail to find a justification of its brilliancy in anything that remains of them. For example, the specimens of Miss Phœbe's puns and repartees on page 186 will not persuade many people that she was what Mrs. Ames calls her—"the wittiest woman in America." The samples of verse in this book are of the same quality with the pieces in their published volumes, and they do not bear out the flattering encomiums on the genius of their authors with which these chapters abound. They show a talent for versification, an easy flow of sentiment, a pleasing variety of rather commonplace thoughts and fancies, a ready command of current poetical language, but nothing of genius, even in the modest form of originality in phrase or rhythm, which is characteristic of so many modern poets. Few of them surprise the imagination; most of them are conventional in thought and imagery; many of them read as if done to order for the magazine or newspaper. To the literary man they are uninteresting; to the critic they are occasionally exasperating. And yet these poems have an immense circulation among kind-hearted, uncultured people. They are copied, committed to memory, kept among the few treasures which the simple allow themselves. Some of them have histories woven in with their lines—histories of men and women whom they have touched and consoled.

In truth, these women, Alice especially, possessed qualities of a rare order, and which explain the affection they won, and also the popularity they enjoyed. To live down a bitter disappointment, to surmount a crushing sorrow, to leave home, however uncongenial, to come to the city of New York "in the desolation of youth," self-dependent, poor, almost a stranger, to live by honest, unpretending literary labor, to earn something more than a subsistence, a competence, to make a name at home and abroad that was honored by many well-known critics, and loved by readers of many classes, to secure by sheer industry a commodious, attractive house in the heart of the city, to make it elegant as a dwelling and dear as a home, to draw in a company of friends whose weekly meetings were kept up for many years, and were a source of pleasure to hostesses and guests; to gain the esteem and affection of men and women of various conditions and tastes—editors, writers, clergymen, publishers, men of business, and men of ideas—to maintain the personal dignity so completely as to escape misunderstanding, to be independent without being unsympathetic, and sympathetic without being undiscriminating, certainly shows remarkable power of character, and all this the elder Miss Cary, and the younger too—though less conspicuously, partly because she was younger and in a sense secondary—did.

A most important element in the success of these women personally, socially, and even in literature, was their strong domestic feeling. Their dislike of "boarding" amounted to aversion. They would have their home though it was only a "flat" up two flights of stairs, though Alice papered the walls and Phœbe painted the floor. There should be pictures, though of the simplest description and framed by their own hands; there should be objects of taste, though money had to be saved from material comforts to procure them. A place, however humble, to which they could attach themselves, with which they could become associated and identified, where friends could find them, was necessary to them. When that place was the modest house in Twentieth Street, they gathered into it a wealth of human fellowship that was of very great value to them as writers and as women. The picture which their biographer gives of their domestic life, their daily employments, their personal habits, their private and social relations, their Sunday-evening receptions, is not only attractive but instructive, and makes one wish that the secret of their success could become an open one. It is a secret that Americans are in serious danger of forgetting—a homely New England or Old England secret that is worth more even to literary people than the feverish restlessness of talent which secures transient spasms of success.

Freeman's Historical Course for Schools. Outlines of History. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., late Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. (New York: Holt & Williams. 1872. 16mo, pp. 366.)—It is a thing to be grateful for when a man who is really a master in his own field takes the trouble to prepare a book for schools; for school text-books represent for the most part only the inaccurate half-knowledge of professional book-makers, very seldom the ripe fruits of original study. In no department has a reform been so much needed as in history, where the field is so vast, the details so endless, and our previous knowledge on many points so fundamentally modified by recent investigations, that none but a profound special student is competent either to portray the successive epochs in their proper proportion to one another, or to secure accuracy at every step. Probably no person living is so well qualified for this task, by the breadth and accuracy of his knowledge, by the warmth with which he enters into the spirit of the times he portrays, and by his interesting style, as Mr. Freeman; and it is sufficient praise for the work before us, that it is as perfectly as possible a representation of its author's mind—in its defects, it is true, as well as its merits—in short, that it is "Mr. Freeman all over."

What these defects are no one needs to be told, and they are so slight in comparison with the accompanying merits that we will not repeat them, except so far as to point out in what degree they may interfere with the practical usefulness of this book. The very extent of his scholarship, and the sympathizing habit of his mind, are the source of the feature of the book from which we fear most. We fully recognize the difficulty which any person, and most of all a person of universal knowledge, must experience in deciding what to leave out, and we hasten to say that Mr. Freeman has succeeded in this better than most of his predecessors. Still, we think that if he had distinctly formulated in his mind the rule—which we conceive to be the true one for a book of this class—never to put in a name or a date which could be omitted, and had at the same time not diminished the bulk of the book, he would have left out a great deal of matter which will, we fear, be found a heavy burden for a class in school, and supplied its place with a fuller account of Hannibal, Cæsar, Charles the Great, William the Silent, the Battle of Marathon, the French Revolution, and other names and events of the first importance.

For instance, why say (p. 307): "There was another small war in Germany in 1777 about the succession of Bavaria"? And why not have resisted the temptation to add a bit of instruction about historical geography, on p. 323, where we are told that Robespierre "was a native of Arras in Artois, but, owing to the conquests of Louis the Fourteenth in the Netherlands, his country was now French"? It must be remarkably intelligent and well-read boys, or of an age higher than those of our highest schools, who would at this point remember enough about the northern frontier of France to have this sentence mean anything to them.

This leads us to the principle upon which detail should be selected in a book of this sort. Nothing, as it seems to us, should be introduced which cannot be made to fit in to the previous knowledge of the student and readily assimilated with it. Now there is much detail, like the two points just cited, which will merely pass through the mind of the scholar, making him none the wiser for having learned it. Historical geography, for instance, important as it is, may as well be left almost entirely aside until the student has historical maps to help him.

Except for this occasional exuberance of detail, the book is all that could be desired. It requires intelligence and some degree of culture in the pupils; but we have no fault to find with this. Nor do we object to the hearty expressions of like and dislike which we meet now and then. It is right that our boys should be taught that the greatness of Napoleon was essentially false and selfish, and that Julius Cæsar "took up the cause of the people, not honestly, like the Gracchi, but to serve his own ends." There is, however, something petty and insular in continuing to use the name *Bonaparte* after Napoleon was crowned emperor. We have but one criticism to make upon the general scope of the work: that there is no sketch of Oriental history in introduction to that of Greece. Surely we inherit the civilization of Egypt, as well as of Greece and Rome, and some outlines of these Eastern empires might legitimately be said to bear upon the "history of the West."

We find very few misprints. On page 213, Sixtus the Fifth should read Sixtus the Fourth. Charles IV. was crowned emperor in 1355, not 1325 (p. 203); on the same page, Albert II. is made to have died in 1438 instead of 1439. The mistake is a very natural one. Sigismund died December 1437, and Albert succeeded early the next year, dying in the year following. In the second sentence on page 98, the pronoun *them* has no distinct antecedent.

Mr. Freeman's historical course is on every account to be welcomed; and whether or not the several volumes are adopted in our schools, we shall at any rate have a series of brief, readable histories, well adapted to private reading and family use. They may serve an excellent purpose as reading-books in schools.

Modern Turkey. By J. Lewis Farley, Consul of the Sublime Porte at Bristol. (London: Hurst & Blackett.)—The object of this book is to whitewash the worst and most uncivilized imperial government in the world, based on the most exceptionable of all oligarchies, that which is created by servility, subserviency, and favoritism; to represent it as an Utopia left behind by advancing civilization, and to which enterprise and industry may go back as if it were the rediscovered Garden of Eden (which the author fixes so dogmatically and naïvely in the neighborhood of Beyrout); and to gild a social state which contains and develops the worst vices of civilization with a rapidity and luxuriance exactly proportional to the access of civilization.

When we read that "nowhere in Europe is that 'pearl without price,' the purity of woman, to be found in greater perfection than in the households of the Osmanlis, and although the Turks are unfortunately not free from evils, many introduced from this side of the Alps, there is one evil, the social evil, which has no home among them"—we are reminded of the reply of Pio Nono, when urged to legalize houses of ill-fame in Rome: that half the houses in Rome were already such; needless to legalize any more. Where there is no respect for the social purity of woman, there can be said to be no social evil; the extent of the vice transforms it into a kind of morality, and where a man may take a wife one day, and send her back to her father a divorced woman the next, there is little care for a vulgar prostitution; and where the men generally prefer a worse vice—as in all the Turkish cities—the social evil may languish for want of patrons; but any man who has lived with his eyes open in a Turkish town with a mixed Christian and Mussulman population, knows that Turkish prostitutes are far more numerous than Christian, and that the personal liberty accorded to the wives of Mussulmans is largely abused for the prosecution of intrigues, especially with Christian gallants. Harem intrigues are the standing distraction of European attachés and employees in Turkish towns, and nowhere in the

range of a partial acquaintance with the empire have we ever known the Turkish civilized woman to compare with the Greek, though the Levantine may possibly rank below the city Mussulman. The whole chapter on Turkish women is a tissue of the grossest misstatements, which show either complete ignorance on the subject, or wilful disregard of the truth in reference to it. The subsequent chapters on armament, the capitulation, etc., are equally worthless.

Etudes sur les Tchinghianés, ou Bohémiens de l'Empire Ottoman. Par Alexandre G. Paspati, D.M. (Constantinople: 1870.)—When the star of the East, the Sanskrit, began to cast its dazzling light upon the philological horizon, etymologists were thrown into convulsions, and ecstatically concluded that they had at last discovered the key to all linguistic knowledge. The volume before us, however, shows that the East has more stars than one. Dr. Paspati's 'Gypsilogia' contains an account of the Gypsies of Turkey, a Gypsy grammar and vocabulary, six soporiferous tales, and a French-Gypsy vocabulary. According to a popular notion the Gypsies are the ten tribes of Israel. The modern Greeks, imagining them to be the lineal descendents of Pharaoh, called them *Ægyptii*, which has been corrupted into *Ghyfti* (singular *Ghyftos*), whence the English *Gypsy*. But in reality the Gypsies are of Hindu origin, for our author has proved that their jargon is related to the modern representatives of Sanskrit. The book cannot fail of commending itself to Oriental and other philological societies. Archæologists will probably make another effort to decipher the Etruscan inscriptions with the help of this powerful auxiliary. In the course of a few years we may be favored with grammars based upon Gypsy affinities and analogies, and teachers may be informed that without a thorough acquaintance with the Tchinghiane idiom boys will never be able to get at the essence of Greek and Latin roots, suffixes, and prefixes. In view of this contingency, publishers of fashionable Latin and Greek grammars will do well to dispose of their stock before it is too late.

We will now exhibit some of the curiosities of the Gypsy dialect for the benefit of traders in etymological commodities: The article, masculine *o*, feminine *i*, which is nothing more than *ho, hē*, as pronounced by the modern Greeks. Pronouns, *me* (*I*), *amén* (*we*), *tu* (*thou*), *tumén* (*you*), *ou* or *of* (*he*), *oi* rarely *ai* (*she*), *ol* (*they*), *aká* (*this*), *kon* (*who?*), *so* (*what?*). Numerals, 1 *yek*, 2 *dúi*, 3 *triu*, 4 *ishtar, shtar, star*, 5 *pantch, pandj*, 6 *so, shov*, 7 *eftá*, 8 *okhtó, ohtō*, 9 *enéa, enía, iníya*, 10 *desh, des*, 100 *shel, shil, shevēl*, 1,000, *khília*. The numerals *eftá, okhtó, enéa*, and *khília* are borrowed from the modern Greek. The first numeral is identical with the Hindostanee *yek* (Sanskrit, *eka*); it constitutes also the root of the Greek pronominals *hekáteros, one-r* (each, both), and *héka-stos, one-st* (every one). Verb of existence, singular and plural, *isóm* (sum), *isán* (es), *isi* (est). The Gypsy word for *God* is *Devēl* (Deva), which sounds like *Devil* (*Teufel*), the Bad God or Ahriman, the only god with whom these interesting Aryans seem to be acquainted. The old derivation of Devil from Diabolos may now be regarded as exploded.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Adams (W. T.), Cross and Crescent: a Boy's Book	(Lee & Shepard)
Airdrie, and Fugitive Pieces	(George Gebbie)
Blunt (J. H.), Companion to the Old Testament	(Rivingtons)
Cooper (J. F.), The Spy	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Counsel and Comfort for Daily Life	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) $1 00
De Gubernatis (Prof. A.), Zoological Mythology, 2 vols	(Macmillan & Co.) 8 00
De Mille (Prof. J.), The Treasure of the Seas: a Boy's Book	(Lee & Shepard)
Dumas (A.), Madame de Chamblay, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0 50
Eliot (G.), Middlemarch, 2 vols	(Harper & Bros.)
Essex Institute Historical Collections, Vol. XI., Part 4, swd	(Salem)
Fairfield (F. G.), The Clubs of New York	(H. L. Hinton) 2 25
Figuier (L.), The Ocean World	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Finotti (Rev. J. M.), Bibliographia Catholica Americana, Part I	(Ca holic Publication House) 5 00
Fonssagrives (Prof. J. B.), The Mother's Work with Sick Children	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Greenough (Mrs.), Treason at Home	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Hall (Mary L.), Our World, No. II.: an Atlas	(Ginn Bros.) 2 00
Hodge (Rev. C.), Systematic Theology, Vol. III.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 5 00
Holland (J. G.), Complete Poetical Works	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Johnston (T. B.) and Robertson (Col. J. A.), Historical Geography of the Clans of Scotland	(George Gebbie)
Johnson (W. B.), The Loves of Jonathan and Virginia, swd	(Philadelphia)
Jones (F.), Junior Course of Practical Chemistry	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Kenly (J. R.), Memoirs of a Maryland Volunteer	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
King (E.), Kentucky's Love	(Lee & Shepard)
Lazelle (Capt. H. M.), One Law in Nature	(D. Van Nostrand)
Lectures by Father Burke, John Mitchel, Wendell Phillips, and J. A. Froude, swd	(J. W. O'Brien) 0 25
Man is Love: an American Story	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Munson (J. E.), Contractions in Practical Phonography, swd	(J. E. Munson)
Oliphant (Mrs.), At His Gates, swd	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 00
Reade (C.), The Wandering Heir	(Harper & Bros.)
Réclus (E.), The Ocean, Atmosphere, and Life	(Harper & Bros.)
Ruskin (J.), The Eagle's Nest	(John Wiley & Son)
Smedley (F. E.), Frank Fairleigh, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0 75
Simcox (G. A. and W. H.), Orations of Demosthenes and Æschines on the Crown	(Macmillan & Co.) 6 00
Songs for Our Darlings	(J. E. Tilton & Co.)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

January 27, 1872.

MONEY was in fair demand during the greater part of the week, and the market may be quoted as having been active on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday. The rates, as a rule, have kept within the legal limit, but late in the day on Friday, $\frac{1}{64}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ per diem, in addition to 7 per cent. per annum, and even as high as $\frac{1}{16}$ "flat," were paid by borrowers who had neglected to make up their accounts till near the close of banking hours. The rise in prices at the Stock Exchange naturally creates a greater demand, and the recent large gold shipments cause a closer feeling in the money market than would have been felt had they not taken place.

The demand for commercial paper has been quite brisk, with rates on prime names quoted at 8 to 10 per cent., and exceptional sales of choice names are reported as low as 7 per cent.

The large shipments of specie for the week have told upon the bank reserve, although its full extent is not shown by the weekly statement, made up as it is upon a table of averages; thus the large amount shipped on Saturday ($2,250,000) being taken from the banks on Friday, and the statement being made up for the week ending Friday evening, the amount only counted for one day in the averages; therefore the banks are really weaker in their reserve than the statement causes them to appear. Had the statement shown the actual condition of the banks as they stood on Saturday morning, it would be found that the reserve was nearly down to the legal limit. The following is the statement for the week, compared with that of the previous week ending January 18, showing that the banks now hold $5,295,700 above the required 25 per cent., against $5,499,100 last week—a falling off of $203,400:

	Jan. 18.	Jan. 25.	Differences.
Loans	$278,209,600	$282,159,100	Inc. $3,949,500
Specie	21,110,800	20,371,700	Dec. 739,100
Circulation	27,542,200	27,529,200	Inc. 13,000
Deposits	212,588,200	216,670,800	Inc. 4,082,600
Legal tenders	44,420,900	45,974,000	Inc. 1,553,100

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Jan. 18.	Jan. 25.	Differences.
Specie	$21,110,800	$20,371,700	Dec. $739,100
Legal tenders	44,420,900	45,974,000	Inc. 1,553,100
Total reserve	$65,531,700	$66,345,700	Inc. $ 814,000
Circulation	$27,542,200	$27,529,200	Dec. $13,000
Deposits	212,588,200	216,670,800	Inc. 4,082,600
Total liabilities	$240,130,400	$244,200,400	Inc. $4,069,600
25 per cent. reserve	60,032,600	61,050,000	
Excess over legal reserve	5,499,100	5,295,700	Dec. 203,400

The stock market has been active and prices higher. The upward movement in prices is generally attributed to the efforts of a few operators, some of whom have been connected with Pacific Mail speculations, and others, belonging to what is known as the "Vanderbilt party." They appear to have operated for a quick turn on the market, and probably realized their profit on a portion of the stock they held on Friday and Saturday, when a large amount of stock came on the market and put a stop to the upward movement. As we said last week, the leaders of speculation who usually operate on the bull side are not disposed to load up, at least to any great extent, at present prices, and it is generally thought they are out of stocks.

The Pacific Mail Steamship Company has lost another steamer, for the time being, valued at $1,200,000. At least, she is some days overdue at Hongkong. The stock has been dancing up and down, since the knowledge of the steamer's non-arrival became known to the public, in lively style, and the first reliable information whether she is lost or found would be a most valuable piece of news to parties operating in the stock. Some very interesting stories are afloat of operations in Pacific Mail based upon "points" (secured by guaranties), which proved anything but profitable to those who were so unfortunate as to be upon sufficiently intimate terms with the party who gave them as to entitle them to his confidence and good wishes. A recital of some of the stories would show the way in which a market for stocks is provided at high prices.

The range of prices on the active list of stocks since our last has been as follows—the lowest prices being made at the commencement of the week on Monday, and the highest on Friday: New York Central and Hudson, 103⅛ to 106⅜; Lake Shore, 92⅛ to 95¾; Erie, 61 to 65⅜; Rock Island, 111 to 114¾; Ohio and Mississippi, 46⅜ to 49⅝ Pacific Mail, 70½ to 75¼. On Friday afternoon the report of the large engagements for the shipment of specie by Saturday's steamer, as well as the activity of money in the Street, caused a falling off of prices, Central and Hudson selling at 104⅞; Lake Shore at 94⅞; Erie at 64¾; Rock Island at 113½; Ohio and Mississippi at 48¾; Western Union at 83⅜; Pacific Mail at 72⅞. From these prices there was a reaction, but on Saturday the closing quotations showed a fractional improvement only. On Thursday a sharp decline took place in the stock of the Atlantic Mail Steamship Company, but it was by no means a cause of surprise to Wall Street. On Wednesday the price was 12, from which it broke to 6 on the following day. The concern has been rotten for years, the line badly managed, and the recent seizure of the Company's vessels for debt caused a decline in the stock to a point nearer its real value than ever before reached. The stocks of the Atlantic and Pacific and Missouri Pacific Railroad Companies were actively dealt in for the first time at the Stock Exchange on Saturday. The election of Mr. A. B. Stockwell to the presidency of the former Company seems to have been the signal for this. The Missouri Pacific has been leased by the Atlantic and Pacific in perpetuity, the latter agreeing to pay dividends upon the stock of the former as follows: 5 per cent. per annum for the first three years, 6 per cent. for the next two years, then 7 per cent. for ever after.

The event of the week has, of course, been the appointment of the agents for the negotiation of the remaining $300,000,000 5 per cents, and as long as it was bound to cost the Government a handsome sum in the shape of commissions and interest to place the new bonds, it is perhaps the best arrangement that could have been made to give the negotiation of them to the syndicates composed of Jay Cooke & Co. and the Rothschilds, on the one part, and Morton, Bliss & Co., Drexel, Morgan & Co., and the Barings, upon the other though why there should be two syndicates instead of one we cannot say, except that everything connected with the Treasury operations is involved in mystery, as was the case for a long time in the last negotiation. It is understood that the compensation to be received by the present syndicates will be the same as in the negotiation of the first $200,000,000 of 5 per cents.

The Government bond market has been very strong, and the new Fives sold, for the first time, we believe, since they were placed on the market, at par in gold; this was undoubtedly due to a little judicious "bulling" upon the part of the syndicates, who see, of course, the necessity of keeping them at par in gold in order to succeed in carrying out the negotiation that they have undertaken.

The dealings for the week in Southern State bonds have been mostly confined to Tennessees, which were firm at 80½ to 80¾. The bonds of the other States have been neglected, but prices have undergone no important change. The Comptroller of the State of South Carolina has issued his report, in which the State debt is stated to be $15,851,327. Besides this, the contingent debt for account of different railroads is $4,797,503, which the State will have to pay, to say nothing of $4,000,000 Blue Ridge Railroad bonds and $1,800,000 Blue Ridge scrip which the State may have to pay. The difficulty in devising the means of raising the money with which to meet the current expenses of the State, as well as the amount required to pay the interest on the bonded debt, together with the deficiencies of last year, making in all $3,320,000 to be raised by taxation this year, has been too much for the intellects of the members of the Legislature. The entire bonded debt has been contracted, with the exception of $2,000,000, by the carpet-bag government since the war, and, considering the resources of the State, its ultimate payment is well-nigh hopeless.

Railroad bonds have been active, especially those of the Union Pacific Railroad Co., which are quite sensitive to the investigation going on in the Crédit Mobilier affair before the Congressional Committee, and which may cause legislation affecting the Company, in regard to the Government freight over the road, etc. In the general bond market prices have been firm, and show a well-distributed business. The Toledo, Wabash, and Western Railroad Company is about to issue $5,000,000 new bonds, for the purpose of laying steel rails.

The heavy gold shipments since the beginning of the year have been the basis upon which a party has been made up for the purpose of advancing the price. The market advanced to 114¼ on Saturday, from 112⅞, the lowest point of the week, and at the close of business on Saturday the price was firm at 113⅞, a fractional reaction from the highest point reached. The total gold shipments for the week amount to $2,955,846, making a total of $6,811,154 since the first of the year, against $1,497,361 in 1872, $1,981,823 in 1871, $2,583,390 in 1870, and $3,214,379 in 1869.

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ASSETS, JAN. 1, 1873.

Real Estate owned by the Company	$50,000 00
Cash in Bank and hands of Agents	235,770 84
Loans on First Mortgages Real Estate	784,797 56
Deferred Premiums (being balance of Semi-Annual and Quarterly Premiums)	61,324 41
Accrued Interest (not due)	24,959 87
Taxes on Stock owned by non-residents	922 80
United States Government Bonds	353,960 00
State and Municipal Bonds	127,800 00
Railroad Stocks and Bonds	143,280 00
Bank Stock	321,130 00
Railway Passengers Assurance Co 's Stock	156,000 00
Total Assets	**$2,259,945 48**

LIABILITIES.

Claims unadjusted and not due	$167,136 77
Reserve for Reinsurance, Life Department	1,207,169 90
" " " Accident Dep't	180,267 23
Total Liabilities	$1,554,573 90
Surplus as regards Policy-holders	**$705,371 58**

STATISTICS OF THE YEAR 1872.

LIFE DEPARTMENT.

Number of Life Policies written in 1872	2,367
Whole number written to date	15,693
Gain in Net Premiums over 1872	$48,696 14
Whole Number of Death Losses paid to date	165
Amount paid in Death Losses	$388,036 12

ACCIDENT DEPARTMENT.

Number of Accident Policies written in '72	32,418
Net Cash Premiums received for same	$450,678 62
Gain in Net Premiums over 1871	$53,099 29
Whole No. Accident Policies written	267,000
Whole number Accident Claims Paid	16,710
Whole amount Acc't Claims Paid	$1,642,358 21
Total Losses Paid, both Dep'ts	$2,030,394 33

HANOVER
FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
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NEW YORK.

Cash Capital	$400,000 00
Cash Surplus	472,627 91
Total Assets, Jan. 1, 1872	$872,627 91
Total Outstanding Liabilities	45,606 37

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 6, 1873.

The Week.

THE examination of Mr. Clark, the President of the Union Pacific, before the Wilson Committee, on Thursday last, brought to light a somewhat amusing case of "striking." "Striking" is a slang term of "politics," and means threatening a person with what may be called predatory legislation, or, in other words, with the passage of a bill or resolution calculated to injure him pecuniarily, with the view of inducing him to purchase immunity, and is one of the modes of procuring subsistence to which "workers" resort in dull times between elections. The art of "striking" has been carried to greater perfection in New York and Albany than elsewhere, and at one time brought in considerable revenue to the old New York Common Council, but it flourishes in nearly all the States, and at Washington. In the present case, the dispute between the Government and the Union Pacific about the liability of the latter for the interest on the bonds advanced to it furnished a tempting opportunity. General Negley, of Pennsylvania, last spring, in the House, offered a joint resolution of a threatening character on this subject, but was reduced to silence by Mr. James Brooks, who proposed to read a letter or letters showing it to be "a blackmail operation." And now comes Mr. Clark and produces a letter written to him in April last, by Mr. Cowlam, the "private secretary" of Mr. B. F. Butler, in which this functionary warned him that there was "a movement on foot" which would cause immense damage to the Union Pacific; that it had behind it "one of the most indefatigable workers in the House"; that "it *could* be headed off"; but to do this, Clark or his agent "should meet Cowlam on the following Sunday morning in Washington"; that "the fight would be hard, but it must be a short one"; and that "prompt action could defeat, corner, and punish" the "worker," but that "there was not an hour to lose." In spite of the fact, however, that the warning voice issued from that fountain of morals and "equity," Mr. Butler's office, Mr. Clark was too old a bird, declined to take "prompt action," called "the worker" a "vagabond," and declared he might do as he pleased. The "private secretary's" feelings over this reckless indifference to the interests of a great corporation must be left to the imagination.

Another ugly witness has turned up in the person of one Spence, an accountant, who testified with regard to the $126,000 to which we referred last week. This $126,000 disappeared in May, 1871, no one knew where. It was accounted for under the head of "special legal expenses." The directors appointed as a committee to audit this account Messrs. Thomas A. Scott, G. M. Dodge, and J. F. Wilson, Government director. They audited it without any difficulty, but, strange to say, Mr. Wilson, although he audited it, knew no more about it than any one else. He says that he thought it best not to know. Mr. Spence, who was formerly chief clerk and assistant-treasurer to the Union Pacific, swears that he drew the checks which made up the sum of $126,000, and that one for $24,500 he handed to G. M. Dodge, and another for $19,000 he handed to J. F. Wilson. Neither of these checks, however, was payable to the order of the two gentlemen in question. While this testimony was being put in, Mr. Wilson entered the committee-room. "What Wilson do you refer to?" he enquired in, we have no doubt, an indignant tone. But he compelled the witness to reply "James F. Wilson, of Iowa." At this point, the correspondent goes on to say, there was a "decided sensation among the Committee and the spectators, and there was the most oppressive stillness for an instant." Mr. Wilson stepped forward somewhat excited and said, "Now I want to settle this thing right here," and was apparently on the point of proceeding to settle it by the usual Congressional form of denial, first by denying that he had ever received any such check, second by denying that he remembered having received any such check, and third by an argument founded on the preceding denials, showing the absolute irreconcilability of his statements with the statement he would have been obliged to make if he had received any such check. He was stopped, however, by the Committee at the time. Since then he has got the testimony of some one that he did not receive the check.

The facts about this sum of $126,000 appear to be these: One of the various acts required of Congress by the Union Pacific Railroad was the right to mortgage a bridge between Omaha and Council Bluffs and C. S. Bushnell, a director, went to Washington to get Congress to look into it. The Iowa members, however, "would not move, as then there was much jealousy about the bridge both at Omaha and Council Bluffs," and Mr. Bushnell found there was nothing for it but to "send for General Dodge," at that time a director. The General came to Washington in low spirits, said that the "d—d Boutwell raid" on the road (meaning by this language the attempt of the Treasury to get the back interest out of the Company) "had ruined him," whereupon Bushnell said:

> "I cannot help that, but you go to work to carry this game through, and I will give you all you lost, your expenses, and for your time; Dodge went to work, and in less than ten or fifteen days we had the bill through Congress just as we wanted it, all right; we settled all difficulties between Nebraska and Iowa that time."

Dodge then "figured up," and received $24,500. The $19,000 which Spence says he handed to Wilson was passed over to Thomas A. Scott, who had loaned the road "several hundred thousand dollars," and naturally wanted some money on account. The rest of the money seems to have gone as a "bonus" to General Dodge, to enable him to carry out a contract to take a quantity of the Union Pacific bonds above their market price.

By the time the Crédit Mobilier investigation comes to an end, we shall probably know what kind of a world we live in. Last week left Ames's check for $1,200 payable to "S. C." or bearer, dated June 20, 1868, unexplained, and now the bank account of Mr. Colfax having been examined shows that Mr. Colfax did, on June 22, 1868, deposit the exact sum of $1,200, notwithstanding his emphatic denial, before the Poland Committee, that he received any such addition to his income at that time from any source whatever. His exact words were, "Now I could not have had $1,200 added to my income without remembering it very positively." As soon as the fact of this deposit came out, Mr. Colfax demanded a new investigation from the Senate, which the Senate very naturally declined to let him have. He has now retained as counsel Mr. Robert S. Hall, of this city, and when Mr. Colfax has refreshed his memory by looking over his papers, he is going to disprove the whole thing.

Mr. Colfax is behaving—to speak mildly—very injudiciously. He has been accused, on evidence on which any jury would convict him, of having perjured himself with regard to the receipt of $1,200 from Oakes Ames. Now, there is only one answer to this, viz., that Mr. Colfax received the money from somebody else, and this answer could be made in five minutes. All he has to do is to name the man who paid it to him, and give the reason for which it was paid; and this, to a gentleman of small income who keeps his accounts with great accuracy, as Mr. Colfax says he does his, can be a task of no difficulty. Instead of doing this, however, he went to the Senate, and made an absurd demand for a fresh Committee of Investigation, though the Wilson Committee was still sitting, then allowed Oakes Ames to go home, and said he would produce his defence when Oakes Ames came back, made some rambling observations about "looking over his papers," and then started off to

attend religious and temperance meetings in Philadelphia and Baltimore. At Philadelphia he made his appearance before the Young Men's Christian Association, and was received with shouts of applause; and at the temperance meeting at Baltimore there was more frantic applause, and the Vice-President informed the audience that "the world was full of human trials, and crime, and suffering, full of wars, and disease, and breaking hearts, full of unjust aspersion," and made other moral reflections of the same sort. We now beg to inform Mr. Colfax that honest men are sick, heartsick, of this sort of thing; that what the world demands of him just at present is not philosophical observations on the vanity of this life, but a plain account of how he got that $1,200; and pending his preparation of that account they think he ought to maintain a decent seclusion and reticence. We may also, with equal confidence, inform the young brethren of the Christian Association that when they raise shouts of applause for a man in Mr. Colfax's position, they set hundreds of thousands of other young men asking—as they asked during the Methodist Book Concern troubles—whether there is any more necessary connection between morality and the worship of Christ than between morality and the worship of Pan. Membership in these associations is fast ceasing to be a certificate of integrity; let them take care that it does not raise a presumption of want of integrity.

That politics at Washington are not essentially different from what they are in other parts of the country may be taken for granted after the Crédit Mobilier disclosures. A letter to the *Tribune* gives one or two curious specimens of the political work going on there. The day of land grants being over, at any rate for the present, the gentlemen who used to ask for land now go there seeking subsidies for the revival of American commerce and other kindred objects. The arguments they use are, in the language of John B. Alley, "chiefly of a patriotic character." For instance, there is some one who is willing to revive American commerce by running a line of steamers from Southern ports to the Suez Canal and the ports on the Mediterranean, if the United States will guarantee his bonds to the extent of $13,000,000, and promises, to make the thing definite, to build twenty iron steamships fit for conversion into war vessels. The Government will not lose anything by it either; for, first, they will save the cost of maintaining twenty war steamers for twenty years, $146,000,000; secondly, the education given to young sailors, taking as a basis the cost of training the pupils at Annapolis, will be worth $4,480,000; next, the revenue derived by the Government from each laborer or mechanic brought over, at $78 a head (12,000 for twenty years), amounts to $19,200,000. Finally, the economic value of the total emigrant population ($1,600 a piece) to be brought over in twenty years will be $800,000,000. This shows a clear balance in favor of the scheme. We learn from the same letter something about the Texan Border Commission, which has been charged by the State Department with the duty of taking evidence as to losses suffered by Americans from Mexican incursions on the border. Apparently they have done their work very thoroughly. One claimant, according to the Commission's report, ought to have $3 a day a head for the interest on a herd of cattle stolen from him some fifteen years ago. Others have reckoned the natural increase of their stolen herds at one calf a year for every animal, male or female. It is suspected that these claims have been trumped up for the purpose of offsetting Mexican claims against us.

The scheme of subsidizing a line of Australian steamers to the tune of half a million a year for ten years has been killed in the Senate. The difficulties in the way of the scheme were that there were no exports from this country to Australia, except hoes, shovels, and sewing-machines, inasmuch as the Australians get everything from England far cheaper than we can supply it; and it would be cheaper to make them a present of all they want of these articles than maintain a line of steamers for the purpose of carrying them. Australia, on her side, sends us an occasional consignment of wool, and carrying wool to San Francisco is like sending coals to Newcastle. More than that, although there has been a line of steamers running to Melbourne from that port for three years, Americans residing there send their letters by the Suez route, as the most regular and expeditious. Finally, it was proposed to run on this Australian line, at Government expense, a lot of wooden side-wheel steamers, a species of sea-boat which is now found nowhere outside the United States, and which excites the laughter and pity of the civilized world. How long will it be, we wonder, before this business of "reviving our shipping trade" will be left to the American man who originally made the shipping trade?—that is, before the Government takes its clutches off of him, calls off its agents, detectives, weighers, appraisers, comptrollers, inspectors, who now have him by the throat, and are constantly "going through him," as the pickpockets say, and lets him get his ships and his materials for building them where he pleases, and run them where he pleases and how he pleases, like a hardy sailor and sharp trader, as he once used to be considered, and not like a reformed drunkard, whose friends have to find a situation for him and have to watch him when he walks the streets?

The report on the distribution of the *Alabama* damages has been sent back to the Committee on their own demand, made by Mr. Butler, which looks as if they had thought better of it under the influence of an address from Mr. Evarts. The plain truth is, that if any private person who had secured an award of money from arbitrators under circumstances similar to those under which the United States appeared before the Board of Geneva—that is, as the advocate and protector of third parties—on the ground of specific wrongs suffered by them, were, as soon as he got the money, to turn round and put his own construction on the award, and say that the money belonged to him for his sole use and behoof, and that he would give it to whom he pleased, he would be generally considered an outrageous swindler and humbug. There may be reasons for excepting governments from the operation of the ordinary laws of honor in dealing with money, but we have never seen them stated with any clearness or authority. The business of the Committee is to drop metaphysics and let "equity" and "eternal justice" alone, and devote themselves to finding out by the pleadings and proceedings and the judgments to what objects the arbitrators intended the money to be applied, and resorting to the rules of law by which the commercial transactions of honest men are regulated to help them out in all cases of difficulty or doubt.

A late decision of the President, sustaining the Attorney-General, although referring to a matter local to Philadelphia, has a national importance, as showing a determination to frustrate all prosecutions of criminals who support the Administration. A repeater named James Brown, a member of the Paid Fire Department of Philadelphia, was arrested for fraudulent personation at the October election, tried, and convicted in the United States Court, and sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment. He was pardoned after eighteen days' imprisonment. The case excited deep indignation, and the Reform Association sent a committee to Washington to ascertain upon whose recommendation the pardon was granted. It is to be observed that in this case the usual precaution of consulting the District Attorney was omitted, and the pardon recites that it was "strongly recommended by a number of prominent citizens of Philadelphia." The rest of the disgraceful story is better told in the address, signed by Henry C. Lea, the Chairman of the Reform Association:

"To obtain this information, therefore, at the instance of the Executive Committee, a gentleman of standing and character visited Washington with such credentials as ensured his being listened to. Obtaining a letter from a prominent official of the Executive mansion to the United States Attorney-General, he made application to see the papers in the case, and was refused; and a request to be informed as to the names of the 'prominent citizens' who had joined in the recommendation for pardon was met with the humiliating assertion that they could not be divulged until the parties had been consulted, and had given permission. As, in spite of a second application

in writing, a week has elapsed since then without further information being received, it is presumable that the 'prominent citizens' prefer to remain concealed.

"An appeal to the President from the decision of his Attorney-General was unsuccessful, and the conclusion is forced upon the Committee that while the Administration had been misled by its pretended friends in Philadelphia, it preferred to accept the responsibility thus thrust upon it rather than surrender them to the indignation and contempt of their fellow-citizens."

The whole of this document is well worth reading. We believe that, as a rule, the Administration papers of Philadelphia have given only partial extracts. There is reason to believe that the political state of Philadelphia is worse than that of New York in the days of the Ring, and the apathy of the citizens gives reason to fear that it will continue for some time.

Senator Pomeroy has been defeated in his attempt to be re-elected by the Kansas Legislature in a very melodramatic way. Just as the vote was about to be taken in joint convention, Colonel York, one of the members, handed up $7,000 to the presiding officer, which, he said, the unfortunate Pomeroy had given him as a bribe, and he improved the occasion in a speech an hour long. There appears to have been a great deal of latent virtue in the Legislature, for the effect of this revelation was, we are told, overwhelming, and they at once elected another man, as if under the influence of an afflatus. Pomeroy, who had a powerful lobby on the ground, and was "assigning" money vigorously, has been deeply affected by the disaster. His explanation of the affair is that it is a "put-up job," by which, we suppose, he means that Colonel York slandered him, and backed up the slander with a deposit of $7,000. It ought to be said that Pomeroy's reputation has for years been very bad. It is a great thing for the Senate and the country to get rid of him, particularly as his successor, though little known, appears to possess a good character; but of course any product of the Kansas Legislature must, for a while, be regarded with suspicion.

The Bar Association has at last come to some conclusion about Mr. D. D. Field's case and that of other lawyers implicated by the evidence and finding in the Barnard impeachment. The judgment of the Senate finding Barnard guilty inevitably involved the advocates who asked for the orders and appointments and carried on the combined proceedings which brought Barnard to his punishment. Some of these are members of the Bar Association, and others not. The question what the Bar Association should do in the matter was referred to the Judiciary Committee of that body, which made its report on Thursday evening. It concludes, in substance, that there would be no use in prosecuting before the Supreme Court those who are not members of the Association, because the evidence used at the impeachment trial would have to be all taken over again by a referee, and that proceedings of this kind before a referee might without difficulty be protracted indefinitely. As regards those who are members of the Association, the Committee on Grievances is the proper body to take cognizance of charges against them, but such charges cannot and ought not to be made by the Association as a whole, but by individuals, and no individual has made them. The Judiciary Committee declines to recommend a vote of censure on the accused, because it could not fairly do so without giving them an opportunity to be heard in their own defence, or, in other words, trying the whole case; and although it might seem doubtful to some whether this extreme caution should be observed in the case of Mr. Field, "after his anticipatory and otherwise remarkable defence, recently spoken within the walls of the Association, against an expected accusation, and after the publication by him in the newspapers of matter falsely pretended to have been spoken by him in the face of the Association," the Committee think "that to yield to such a temptation would tend only to mislead themselves and the body to which they belong." The result is that nothing has been done, and nothing will be done, unless some individual lawyer, having his own business to attend to, and perhaps a family to support, will go before the Committee on Grievances, the members of which also have their own business to attend to, and get them to engage in an investigation which might last for years; but that this individual lawyer is not forthcoming, and is not likely to be, is, we think, a very safe conclusion.

The Tweed trial has resulted as was expected in the disagreement of the jury. The jury was a most extraordinary body. Not only were its members persons of little education or intelligence, but several of them were drawn from "the dangerous classes." Some were liquor dealers and keepers of oyster saloons, one was a "bummer" from the docks, and one represented Tweed in the Albany lobby. There is a fierce controversy going on as to the responsibility for this miscarriage. The prosecution charges the Commissioner of Jurors and the Sheriff with tampering with the panel. The Commissioner replies, and, we think, fairly, that it is his business simply to make up the list of persons liable to jury duty, and that he is in no way responsible for the character of any particular panel; but it does appear that the Sheriff, who is an old Tammany hack, failed to summon decent men, and that only the dregs of the panel drawn in Court presented themselves to be sworn. This brings us down to the question, How was it that the counsel for the prosecution allowed them to be sworn? This question we have not seen satisfactorily answered. There was nearly as much reason for suspecting the Sheriff before the trial as after, and the appearance of many of the jurymen was in itself sufficient to draw challenges. There is a good deal of controversy about the manner in which the prosecution was conducted, and on this point there is a division of opinion among lawyers, as might have been expected, but the preponderance of opinion is favorable. The charge of the judge was strong against the "Boss," who, however, "sat smiling by," being apparently sure of his men.

Behind the trial there is, however, dark and deep-seated trouble among the newspapers and politicians, on which we are only able to cast one or two faint gleams of light; but it is worth some notice, as an illustration of the difficulties of "reform" in this city. The *Tribune* several times during the trial assailed the conduct of the case by the prosecuting counsel and made light of the evidence, and this, coupled with the fact that it omitted from its report—accidentally, we are informed—a very important portion of Garvey's testimony, has given currency to the charge that it is in some way under the influence of the Ring. It, on the other hand, maintains that Tweed's escape was prepared by the secret connivance of "Tom" Murphy and the Custom-house politicians, who have all along maintained friendly relations with "the Boss," with whom "Tom" was at one time connected by real-estate speculations; and color is given to this theory by the fact that "the Custom-house party" were very eager to nominate "Jimmy" O'Brien for the Mayoralty, and came very near doing it, and carrying the New York *Times* over into the support of it; thus showing that the tribe to which "the Boss" belongs was by no means hateful to them. This scheme was frustrated by dread of public indignation, and they then, under stress of weather, put up Havemeyer as a kind of jurymast, and ran into port by his aid. But they have ever since been opposing him bitterly, and have drawn up and are forcing through the Legislature a new charter, in which he is shorn of all real power, showing that they love "the party"—meaning their precious selves—far better than reform. Out of all these facts the conclusion has been drawn by their Greeleyite foe that they are now paying "the Boss" for support given them during the canvass. It is also alleged that they have broken with the New York *Times*, and that that paper no longer supplies true and unadulterated doctrine. To these unpleasant insinuations the *Tribune* adds attacks on the Attorney-General, which it began some months ago, apparently in the interest of Mr. D. D. Field, and tries to put sting into them by calling the really able and competent counsel employed by him in Tweed's trial "the Attorney-General's Ring." What this means we confess we do not know.

THE BAR AND ITS ETHICS.

THE result of the attempt made by the Bar Association to punish Mr. D. D. Field and others for their alleged complicity in the misconduct of which Barnard was convicted by the Senate, furnishes an instructive illustration of the way in which much of our penal machinery has grown obsolete under the influence of important social and political changes. When our criminal procedure grew up, communities were small, authority very strongly entrenched, and the law emanating from authority moved with tremendous momentum. Reformers, therefore, in every age of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, devoted themselves to surrounding accused persons with a barrier of somewhat intricate forms, and imposed on the courts the duty of scrupulously respecting them. Individuals were so weak and insignificant, the Government and its ministers so mighty, that it was arranged that even the most notorious criminal should only be approached through a labyrinth, and that his punishment should only overtake him after every avenue of escape had been solemnly and laboriously closed. Public opinion, too, sided with the law with something like ferocity, and with terrible concentration. The crown and consummation of this system may be seen in the ordinary New York criminal trial, in which the whole procedure seems to have for its great object the escape of the prisoner. In that cumbrous and antiquated process, every precaution short of complete suppression seems to be taken to prevent the facts of the case having any influence on the fate of the accused, and to convert the investigation into a simple trial of ingenuity between two sets of lawyers, with the jury sitting as umpires. To make the performance all the more complete, too, great pains are taken to prevent the jury from being qualified umpires, who might close the debate with a clean-cut decision. They are carefully selected in such manner as to make it unlikely that they will agree at all, or thoroughly understand what is going on; and, in fact, about two years are passed submitting to a variety of tribunals a series of grammatical or dialectical puzzles, which have no more to do with the guilt or innocence of the prisoner than the famous question with which Sir Thomas More floored the scholastic doctors at Louvain, "whether beasts of the plough could be replevined *in withernam*."

Around this system there has grown up a state of things of which the fathers of the law could hardly have had an idea. Instead of a small, ferocious public, following the criminal to the gallows with hootings and execrations, pelting him in the pillory with stones and rotten eggs, and going to see a man burnt or broken on the wheel as to a fête, we have a very humane, careless public, full of horror for all inflictions of suffering or degradation, much too busy to be willing to give any time to pursuing murderers or robbers, and saturated with sympathy and with the sentiment of equality to such a degree, that not only is each man unwilling to inflict punishment on anybody else, but has a good deal of doubt whether he has any right to do so. Indeed, the sentiment of equality has sunk in so deep that almost everybody shrinks from assuming any moral superiority, even to a murderer. We approach a criminal with a sheepish, humble air, which seems to say that there is no knowing when we may cut a throat or pick a pocket ourselves. Tweed has embodied this feeling in a shrewd, humorous saying, which has since become popular slang—"you know how it is yourself." It found still more comic expression in the reply of the professor who murdered and then burnt or blew up a negro the other day in Baltimore, and who, when asked why he had got rid of the body in this barbarous manner, at once appealed to the fellow-feeling of the questioner by saying, "You don't know what you would do yourself, if you had a dead nigger on your hands"; assuming without hesitation that any gentleman might any day find himself in that predicament. This tendency in the popular mind, too, is stimulated by the later theology, which dwells strongly on the distinction between the sinner and his sin, and makes "love" of the one perfectly compatible with hatred of the other, separating conduct almost completely from men and women, and relegating vice as an abstraction to some metaphysical limbo, in which it may be stigmatized and kicked about without hurting anybody's feelings. Add to these things a total want of cohesion in public opinion, the absence of any generally accepted standard of right or wrong or of propriety, and we have a confusion in which moral reprobation can be hardly said to exist, and which makes our elaborate precautions in the courts of law for the protection of innocence almost absurd.

The same phenomena present themselves, with slight variations, in what is called society, as distinguished from law and politics. Most of the regulations which govern our social intercourse and the voluntary organizations for social and professional purposes called clubs, were framed or grew up when society was much smaller and more homogeneous than it is now, and when its opinion acted with great force and directness, and kept alive in individuals an extreme sensitiveness to its judgments, so that it rarely had to do execution on an offender itself. The mere hint of its displeasure caused him to go into exile or perform hari-kari. It is now so large and varied in its elements that it rarely agrees on anything, and accordingly finds its judgments of little weight. If a man is accused of carrying off silver spoons from a dinner party, far from going into seclusion, he simply abandons the "set" which believes the "dirty libel," betakes himself to another which does not believe a word of it, and does not care whether it is true or not, and to which he tells in his turn that his host on the occasion referred to is the biggest thief in the country, and actually has a stolen teapot on his sideboard. Indeed, the facts of the case in regard to any man's morals are daily of less and less consequence, and we seem to be drifting back to the sentiment and usage of the early period, when jurymen were simply bystanders; when, if you could get a batch of your neighbors to say you had not committed an offence, no evidence that you had committed it could hurt you; or, better still, when the gravest charges could be met by offering to fight the accuser. For some time past in this city, persons charged with misconduct have been getting more and more in the habit of meeting charges not with defence, but with counter-charges, or by opposing to witnesses who saw them doing the thing, crowds of other witnesses who did not see them do it, and maintaining that one kind of testimony was as good as the other.

The rules of the Bar Association for the trial of offences against professional morality have evidently been framed under the influence of the traditions of a period when both society and the bar were totally different from what they are. They assume a power and unity in public opinion and a sensibility in individuals which no longer exist. They assume that the bar is a harmonious and homogeneous body, with a common standard of propriety, when the fact is that it is as divided in sentiment as the shoe trade, and when a counsellor who is censured by one section of it can get another section just as big to rally round him and set the censure at defiance. They assume that a "charge" is nowadays felt as a wound, and that anybody against whom one is made will, all business excuses being laid aside, give himself heart and soul to searching out its author and meeting it, when the fact is that the air is full of charges, nearly everybody has a few hanging over him, and the first concern of a man accused of bribery or blackmailing is not to defend himself, but to get up stories of worse bribery and blackmail about his accuser. In short, after reading the report of the Judiciary Committee, one feels that if the account it gives of the machinery of the Association is correct, the sooner all expectation of doing much for the purification of the profession under that machinery is abandoned, the better. It was made for the days of stage-coaches, when lawyers lived over their offices. The assumption on which the constitution of the Committee on Grievances is based, that when a lawyer behaves badly, another lawyer will at once leave his business and occupy himself in tracing out his badness all over the State in all sorts of cases, and before divers judges, until he has brought his guilt home to him, is simply a faint souvenir of old times. It may make elderly men sigh, but it will not improve the profession. Even if such prosecuting lawyers could be found in our

day, the case would speedily double itself, as it were; that is, the accused would bring counter-charges, and the committee would have to try three or four cases of professional misconduct in place of one, until the proceedings would resemble the celebrated beaver hunt, in which the dog and the beaver dodged in and out of the water and around the dam with such extraordinary rapidity that no mortal could tell whether the beaver was after the dog, or the dog after the beaver.

IS THE REPUBLICAN PARTY OPPOSED TO THE LAW?

IT is observable in the history of the Republican party, and it is a fact which in the future will appear greatly to its discredit, that its representatives in Congress have been arrayed generally against the judiciary of the United States. This is all the more remarkable because the strength of the party does not lie in great cities, and it contains a much smaller proportion than its rival of the lawless elements of society. The intelligent part of our rural population and the respectable middle classes, styled by Mr. Lincoln "plain people," are largely Republican, and furnish the party with its controlling majorities, and they certainly are what most Americans pride themselves upon being—"a law-abiding people." Nevertheless, ever since the war ended there have been Republican members of Congress in some way or other attempting to interfere with the administration of justice in United States Courts. And this must seem all the less excusable because the judges who now administer the laws of the General Government are chiefly of Republican antecedents. It appears indeed as if, from the moment when a Republican lawyer went upon the bench, an indefinable separation began between him and his political friends, widening gradually into a condition of positive antagonism. If the breach were merely personal or political, our enquiry might stop here; but when it becomes legislative, society has a direct interest in the matter, for then antagonism to the judiciary may be nothing less than resistance to the law. It is therefore of some importance to know how far this resistance has gone, and what it means.

Since the foundation of the Government there have been eight acts of Congress pronounced (by the Supreme Court) unconstitutional, and only two of these were enacted in the long period extending from the first session of the First Congress in 1789 to the accession of the Republican party in 1861. The remaining six are the work of Republican Congressmen. Yet it is not merely the disproportion of numbers which should receive attention; there is also something significant in the character of the acts.

The first, passed in 1789, was a statute conferring some original jurisdiction upon the Supreme Court. In most courts such statutes would be regarded with favor, and if not passed for an exceptional or improper object, no great harm could happen to anybody from the error. The keen judicial eye of Marshall, however, saw that the Constitution designed the Supreme Court to be an appellate tribunal, and that the only original jurisdiction conferred upon it was exceptional and declared by the instrument itself. The court so held in the great case of *Marbury* v. *Madison*—a decision doubly important, inasmuch as it was the first authoritative declaration of the limited powers of Congress, and the constitutional independence of the three great departments of Government. The next statute pronounced unconstitutional was the "Missouri Compromise" in the well-known case of Dred Scott. It was so decided, according to Mr. Lincoln, "in a sort of way," by which he meant, he says, that the decision "was made in a divided court by a bare majority of the judges, and they not quite agreeing with one another in the reasons for making it, and that it is so made that its avowed supporters disagree with one another about its meaning." But according to the masterly analysis of Governor Andrew when a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, the only question determined was the legal effect of a Missouri statute, and the remainder of the opinions was mere *dictum*. Be this as it may, the statute termed unconstitutional merely related to the authority of Congress over the Territories, and did not affect the ordinary constitutional rights of either citizens or States.

Passing to the unconstitutional acts of Republican Congresses, we find that the first (in 1863), growing out of the excitement of the rebellion and distrust of Southern courts and juries, affected both the rights of the States by subjecting their judicial tribunals to a novel and unconstitutional method of review, and the rights of the citizen by overthrowing the finality which the Constitution expressly ascribes to trial by jury. The second was that extension of the income-tax to the salaries of State judicial officers which has been discussed in the columns of the *Nation* when reviewing the decision of the Supreme Court—a decision which we thought one of great importance, as bringing back the General Government to its proper relations with the constitutional independence of the States. The third statute was a police regulation forbidding the sale of kerosene and explosive oils unless of a prescribed standard, and the Supreme Court held unanimously that it was an interference with the authority of the State Government, and unconstitutional. The fourth statute was the Legal Tender Act, which compelled a man who had lent another gold before the enactment to receive in exchange for it non-redeemable, depreciated Government paper. It is true that the decision is said to have been reversed, but inasmuch as five judges concurred in pronouncing the act unconstitutional, and only five have since pronounced it constitutional, it may be enumerated in the list of questionable assumptions of legislative power. The fifth statute, passed at the end of the war, was one of those attempts of Congress to punish rebels legislatively instead of judicially—an attempt to take away from a man for life without a trial his ordinary means of subsistence. Of it the Supreme Court held, that while the Government may punish the guilty, it cannot, until he be tried and convicted, prohibit a citizen from pursuing his ordinary avocation by a sweeping legislative enactment. The last of these statutes, the "Drake Amendment," appears the worst at the point of view from which we are contemplating them; for it is the first direct attempt of Congress intentionally to evade the supreme law of the land, previously declared to be such by the unanimous judgment of all the judges of the Supreme Court; and it sought to do so by an attempted interference with the judicial discretion of the Courts of the United States, prescribing to them "an arbitrary rule of decision" in cases pending before them, requiring them to decide certain cases in a certain way, and forbidding them to give that effect to evidence which in the judicial judgment such evidence should have. It is noticeable that this decision of the Supreme Court in *Klein* v. *The United States* caused very little and no unfriendly comment within the loyal States; for as the angry feelings of the war subside, people begin to see clearly that a rebel is still a citizen, though a guilty one, and that while he may deserve hanging, he still has a constitutional guaranty that he shall be hung by a United States marshal and not by a sergeant-at-arms of one of the Houses of Congress. It is also noticeable that of the eight judges who united in declaring the act unconstitutional, all but one were appointed by Republican Presidents.

Nevertheless, we observe that a fresh attempt at evasion has been made in the House by certain Republican members, which, having failed there, has been renewed in the Senate. It seems that the Supreme Court decided, and with considerable unanimity—Justices Miller and Bradley only dissenting—that the title to captured cotton taken from the possession of individuals, and never used in aiding the rebellion, remains in the original owners, and that the captured cotton fund in the Treasury does not belong to the United States, but to the owners of the property, being merely held in trust by the Government. Whereupon a number of Republican gentlemen, who have been loudly calling upon the South "to accept the situation," decline to accept it themselves, and propose to nullify the decision of the Supreme Court by enacting that no such judgment shall be paid. It is also said by them that the case is one where members of Congress ought to "exercise *their* dis

cretion," and they have thrown out some not altogether original reminders that "the people rule this country," and not the Supreme Court. Now it is perfectly clear that if the highest judicial tribunal in this country has determined that money in the Treasury does not belong to the Government, and does belong to A, B, and C, then sooner or later A, B, and C will get it, and any attempt to keep the money in the Treasury is a dishonest attempt to deprive A, B, and C of what has been judicially determined to be their property. Moreover, when the Government was a party to the suit in which this was determined, and voluntarily submitted its demands to the arbitrament of the Supreme Court, it is peculiarly bound to submit to the decision.

It is a cheering fact, however, that the enactment was stoutly opposed by some of the strongest members of the party, such as General Garfield, Mr. Shellabarger, and Mr. Bingham; and it is strongly confirmatory of public opinion that leading members frankly said that "any tribunal is better than Congress for considering claims," and that Congress is "the least independent, the least intelligent, and the least honest tribunal for that purpose that can well be selected." In the Senate, on the contrary, all of the Northern Republicans supported the measure—the Southern Republicans, including Senators Sawyer and Poor, voting with the Democrats—and urged it with a good deal of the old rancor. Mr. Edmunds even went so far as to say of the Supreme Court: "We delegated this authority to them *as our agents*, as a convenient form of administration to enquire, on an appeal from the Court of Claims, into the particular cases that were brought to them." "The people," who are so often invoked when some piece of mischief is afloat, have tolerably clear ideas of the true nature of legal obligations, and a lively dislike of those litigants who, being beaten on the trial, proceed forthwith to beat their creditors on the execution. Certainly "the people" were never more averse than they are to-day to submitting the decrees of impartial legal tribunals to the "discretion" of members of Congress.

So far as Republicans are concerned, it is time that they cease to occupy a false position. The "Dred Scott decision" no longer exists; the "war legislation" of Congress was undeniably hasty and ultra; there is no portion of the people who more fully believe in the supremacy of law, or know better the value of an independent judiciary. Allowing themselves to be arrayed against that branch of their government which they most esteem, by that branch which they least respect, is what they have been too long doing. Senators Bayard and Stockton, courageously advocating an increase of salary for Republican judges, much more nearly expressed the views of Republicans than their own narrow-minded representatives have done. So far as the Supreme Court is concerned, all that is said of its assumption of power is idle talk; no better thing can be said of any court than that, through years of public excitement, it stood the bulwark of the weaker party.

THE PRICE OF A POSTAL TELEGRAPH.

IN discussing, a short time since, the proposed appropriation of the telegraph by the Government, we showed that a general reduction of message charges always involved a decrease of revenue, and we reached the enquiry whether Government is justified in reducing tariff below the cost of service for the benefit of those who telegraph at the expense of those who do not. The reply to this question by no means determines the expediency of governmental control of the telegraph. If the Government is to charge substantially present prices for messages, its appropriation of the business may still be a good thing for the country. Such doctrine, it is said, leads necessarily to the absorption by the Government of all branches of industry, of the boot and shoe trade as well as of telegraphs and railroads. We admit this freely, and we hold that there are circumstances under which the Government would be justified in going into the shoe business. There is but one case which warrants such interference, and that is essentially the same for all departments of industry. That case arises for a republican government when any one branch of the business of the community is so monopolized that citizens can no longer share in or control it, and so mismanaged that they can no longer endure it. When that day comes, either in the shoe trade or the coal trade, in the conduct of a Pennsylvania petroleum combination, or of railroads and telegraphs, Government is warranted, when all other remedies have failed, in prostrating private enterprise by the crushing hand of power, and supplanting private industry as best it may. But while the interests of the whole people may sometimes justify the conduct of particular industries by Government bureaus, is there any justification for doing the work at less than cost? If Government should supplant the great coal-producing corporations, ought it to sell coal below cost in Maine, and make up the deficit by taxing the people of Louisiana? If it absorbed the railways, ought it to carry pleasure-travellers at half price, and collect the difference from citizens who stay at home? Is money to be appropriated by force out of the pockets of the whole people for the profit of a favored class? It strikes us that, in principle, this proceeding is about the same whether done by a popular government, under guise of law, or in defiance of law by highwaymen. There is no theory of republican government upon which such legalized robbery can be defended. When Smith, who does not travel and does not telegraph, is taxed so that Jones may ride in the cars and send messages to his wife at less than cost, then private property is taken without compensation, not for public but for private use, and the very foundation of our constitutional law of property is overturned. Government thereupon enters on the broad road to pure socialism. The only exception, if such it can be called, is in the case of education. It is as a means of education alone that Government is warranted in imposing the deficit in the post-office upon the public treasury. We believe that in meeting by taxation the expenses of such an uncertain educator as the post-office, we have already pushed the principle to its utmost limit. To the telegraph it cannot be applied with reason or consistency. A telegraph line has no more direct effect as a means of education than a newsboy, a type manufactory, or a mail-bag. The telegraph is, in fact, but a messenger with a verbal message, and it is not essential, except for purposes of convenience, that the communication should ever be reduced to writing. The lightning may fill the place of courier and errand-boy, but not, in a proper sense, of teacher.

If it is clear that this Government has no right to do telegraphing at less than cost for some citizens at the expense of others, and that no money can be made, as has been popularly supposed, by a sweeping reduction of existing tariffs, we have at least cleared away some rubbish from the subject, and can consider more intelligently the real advantages of Government control and its probable results. Four causes will cheapen the practical operation of the telegraph in the hands of the Government. They are:

1. Freedom from taxation.
2. Exemption from lawsuits and claims for damage.
3. Control of post-office facilities.
4. Monopoly of the business.

The economies from these sources as compared with private management are undeniable. Now, so far as the people are concerned, what do they amount to? It will be seen at once that the saving under the first head is but another form of the fallacy which, when fully worked out, ends in Fourierism. It is again cheapening messages for the few at the cost of the many. The taxes which private telegraph companies now pay are spent in supporting Government—Federal, State, or municipal—as it now exists. If this revenue no longer comes into the Treasury, it must be made good out of the pockets of remaining taxpayers. But why should telegraph property not contribute to the general burdens of government? And why should not the beneficiary, the consumer, pay the tax?

The saving under the second head, by immunity from lawsuits, would be something. As it is an item which concerns the senders of messages almost exclusively, the economy would be strictly legitimate. But we very much mistake the temper of the customers of the telegraph if they desire to have their messages cheapened in that way. The tendency of legislation and of popular opinion is to impose a strict accountability for errors and mistakes in messages; and some business men think the irresponsibility of a Government bureau dear at any price.

We have mentioned the control of post-office facilities as a source of economy more in deference to Mr. Creswell's opinion than to our own. In fact, the saving here would be very little. From Mr. Orton's letter to the Postmaster-General, recently published, it appears that rent, light, and fuel constituted but six per cent. of the expenses of the Western Union Telegraph Company for the last fiscal year.

Whenever the business is important, as in cities, it demands exclusive accommodation and exclusive attention. No divided labor, and, as a rule, no space less than that now occupied, will answer the purpose. In the smaller towns and villages, telegraph offices are already associated with railroad and express offices, or with other business, so as to make the rent practically nothing, and to economize labor as effectually as by any possible

connection with the post-office. We have often met telegraph operators, like Mark Twain's "condensed citizen," whose various titles and avocations would fill a page.

We come, then, to the last advantage, and that is the saving derived from monopoly. Here is the stronghold of Government telegraphs, the one point where they have no rival, the element of cheapness, which, more than all others, will affect the price of messages. It cannot be ignored, and should not be underestimated. Private companies have no questions so perplexing as those growing out of competition. Their main revenues accrue between large centres of population and trade, and this territory is always open to invasion. A line of telegraph costing one or two hundred dollars per mile in cash, may utterly destroy the dividend-earning capacity of a large investment in telegraph property. It may reduce rates not only between its termini, but in all the adjacent country. A new company, from the necessities of its position, almost inevitably cuts down prices, whether these were previously reasonable or excessive. While lines are new, repair expenses are small, and in the struggle to attract business and to injure competitors, the temptation is strong to reduce tariffs below the cost of service. As we have shown that reduction of tariff means loss of revenue, there is less profit to divide among two companies than there was before for one while the double organization largely and needlessly swells expense.

The result is the same as that of almost all other kinds of corporate competition, whether by railroads, insurance companies, steamships,or coal-miners; first comes a sharp contest in which rates are sacrificed and business rendered worthless; second, a combination by which prices are often as unduly raised as they were before unnaturally depressed. High prices and resultant profits provoke after a while fresh competition. And so the ebb and flow of tariffs goes on, while the public pay sometimes much more, sometimes much less, than the cost of the service would require if this disturbing element were withdrawn. So far as stockholders in telegraph companies are concerned, the necessary consequence is, great uncertainty in the return from their investments, involving a demand for a far higher rate of interest than would be accepted if their income was stable and secure. There is no independent telegraph company in the United States that, during the last ten years, has paid dividends with any sort of regularity. The latter have reached that degree of uncertainty at which stockholders may well regard them rather as prizes in a lottery than as lawful interest upon capital. Since the 1st of January, 1867, the five largest companies in the country have together paid but nineteen dividends. Over two-thirds of these purported to be made "quarterly." The average is about one "quarterly" dividend every two years.

The effect of such a state of things upon prices can hardly be overstated. Until within a few days it has cost five dollars to send a message from the Atlantic to the Pacific over either of the competing lines. We assert deliberately that any company in the United States would contract at once to do this business hereafter at a maximum price of one dollar a message, in return for the single grant of monopoly from the Government. If the people of the United States want cheap telegraphing, here is the road to it. It can be obtained either through the agency of Government or of private companies, under restraints and regulations of law as to all tariffs to be collected. The question is simply, do we want it on these terms? We do not propose to argue this point. We commend it to the sober thought of the readers of the *Nation*. We ask them seriously to consider, in the light of the current news from Washington about the relations of the Government to industry, and about the condition of our political morals, what the effect would be of committing one more enormous enterprise, freed from the risk of bankruptcy which accompanies all private undertakings, to the hands of the class of men who now carry on our custom-houses and post-offices, and engineer our "national highways," and besiege Congress for steamboat subsidies.

A NEW CHAPTER OF ABSURDITY IN AMERICAN LOCAL TAXATION.

IT is known to all who have examined the subject, that a hundred years ago, or less, the law-makers of England and of the Continent of Europe entertained very generally the same opinion in regard to local taxation which is yet popularly received and acted upon in the United States; namely, that in order to secure exact justice and equality, it is essential to subject all property of the taxpayer—real and personal, tangible and intangible, visible and invisible—to one uniform rate of valuation and assessment. And although it must then as now have been evident to every one, on reflection, that in order to do this it would be necessary to endow the assessors with more than mortal powers of perception, so as to enable them to see what was invisible and measure that which was incorporeal, and that in default thereof this practical application of the theory must result in absurdity and injustice, yet it is curious to note that the change in English taxation, when it came about, was not due to any such process of reasoning by the people or to any positive enactment by the state, but rather to a series of legal decisions by the courts, which gradually undermined the whole system of British local assessment, until it tumbled down, as it were, imperceptibly, and was replaced from necessity by a theory which approximated more closely to the principles of political economy and the dictates of common sense. In this work Lord Mansfield led the way by deciding, in opposition to current practice and public opinion, that English consols could not in any way be made subject to local assessments; while other and subsequent decisions practically wiped out, in its application to taxation in Great Britain, that old-time fiction of law "that property follows the person or owner," and established this other and more rational principle, namely, that for all purposes of assessment the *situs* of property is where the property actually is; the legitimate inference in the case of property having no clearly definable *situs* being, furthermore, that this very condition of indefiniteness, incorporeality, and invisibility constitutes in itself the best of proof that any attempt of local authorities to interfere with and control it can be productive of nothing but evasions and immorality on the part of individuals, and loss and injustice on the part of the state.

So much as preliminary to a circumstance of more importance, to which it is especially desired to ask attention; and that is, that history as thus related is repeating itself in a most curious manner in the United States, and that the abrogation and reform of the unjust and absurd systems of local taxation at present existing in most of the States, and for the affecting of which neither argument nor the lessons of experience have thus far availed anything, seems likely at no distant day to be accomplished, as has been the case in times past in England, through the decisions of the courts of ultimate appeal and jurisdiction—decisions given in the first instance, as it were, abstractly, and without any direct reference whatever to the most important results certain to flow from their immediate and practical application. And as illustration and proof of this averment and prediction, the following statement of facts of recent occurrence is submitted.

The right of a State to impose taxes on imported goods came up many years ago before the Supreme Court of the United States in a somewhat celebrated case, known as *Brown* v. *Maryland*, in which the point at issue was the legality of a license tax imposed by the State of Maryland as prerequisite to selling an imported article, the plaintiff being a Baltimore merchant. The Court (Chief-Justice Marshall) held that this tax, though indirect in form, was in fact equivalent to a duty on imports, and therefore unconstitutional, and that the right to import carried with it a right to sell—a decision which was subsequently carefully recognized by various States in dealing with imported liquors under local laws imposing licenses. In the first report of the Commissioners for revising the tax laws of the State of New York, submitted in 1871, attention was, however, called to the fact that in some sections of the country, especially in the New England States, no attention whatever had been paid by local assessors to this decision of the Supreme Court; that taxes on imported goods continued to be locally assessed and collected; and that occasion was thereby given for extensive reclamations. The Boston Board of Assessors, feeling themselves particularly hit by these remarks of the New York Commissioners, replied soon after in an official communication to their city authorities, and defended their acknowledged practice, by asserting that "there was a broad distinction between the prohibition of the right to *sell* an imported article and the right to *tax* the same as property," and that the decision of the Supreme Court in question went no further than to affirm that a "State could not enact a law that would prevent the sale of such property, and did not touch the question of the right to tax." The utter irrelevancy of this defence was fully exposed in the second report of the New York Commissioners in 1872; but the Boston assessors, conscious of the power with which the present "Pagan" system of Massachusetts invests them, held to their interpretation of the decision of the Court, and continued to assess as before; until, within the past year, another decision of the United States Supreme Court has been made, so direct and unmistakable that all further misunderstanding and opposition are impossible. This decision, given in the case of *Low* v. *Austin*, is as follows:

"Goods imported from a foreign country, upon which the duties and charges at the Custom-house have been paid, are not subject to State taxation whilst remaining in the original cases, unbroken and unsold, in the hands of the importer, whether the tax be imposed upon the goods as imports, or upon the goods as part of the general property of the citizens of the State which is subjected to an *ad valorem* tax."

"Goods imported do not lose their character as imports, and become incorporated into the mass of property of the State, until they have passed from the control of the importer, or been broken up by him from their original cases."

An essential prop of the tax system of Massachusetts having been thus effectually taken out from under it, the Boston assessors, standing gallantly by their principles, propose to do their best to maintain their former practice and position; and for this purpose have addressed to the tax-officials of other seaboard cities and States a most curious and extraordinary circular, of which the following is a copy:

"ASSESSORS' OFFICE, CITY HALL, BOSTON, January 1, 1873.

"GENTLEMEN: Herewith find copy of a recent decision of the United States Supreme Court, by which imported goods, which in common with other merchandise have been assessed by State authority since the formation of our Government, are declared to be free of all taxation as long as they remain in the hands of the importer unbroken in their original packages. It will probably be at once apparent to you that this new exemption will, like that in favor of United States bonds, be availed of to remove from assessment much more than the actual value of the class of goods immediately covered by the decision of the Court. Fortunately it is within the power of Congress to restore to the States the revenue they have heretofore enjoyed from this valuable property, generally held by the wealthiest merchants in the country. It would seem that as no case of discriminating taxation upon imported goods has been brought to the attention of the country during the eighty-five years that have elapsed since the adoption of the Constitution, this decision was not needed to protect the Federal revenues from embarrassment by reason of State taxation. But in restoring the right of assessment, this possible contingency can be avoided by enacting that these goods shall be assessed at no greater rate than other merchandise in the hands of the citizens of the State levying the tax. The City of Boston has petitioned Congress for a law permitting the taxation of imported goods. Enclosed find blank petition in aid. Will you assist the movement by causing it to be forwarded in the name of the municipality you represent *at once*, and also by causing the senators and representatives from your State in Congress to be informed as to the merits of the question, that they may aid in the passage of the needed law?

"Very respectfully, for the Board of Assessors of Boston,

THOMAS HILLS, *Chairman.*"

The following is a copy, also, of the petition referred to:

"To the Senate and House of Representatives, etc.:

"The undersigned respectfully petition your honorable bodies for the passage of an act making goods imported from foreign countries, and remaining in the original cases, subject to taxation for State and municipal purposes at the same rate as other merchandise held by citizens of this State."

In what has been already said, this circular and petition have been characterized as "most curious" and "extraordinary." That these designations are not now mere figures of speech, but that their use and application is every way warranted by the facts in the case, will appear from the following considerations.

Passing by the intimation of the circular that this class of property—*i.e.*, imported goods—should be taxed by the States because "generally held by the wealthiest merchants in the country," as if the law was bound to take cognizance in taxing special classes of property of the relative pecuniary condition of the holders; and also the inferential ignoring of the principle that all taxes imposed on such property are, as a general rule, incorporated by the owners thereof in the selling prices, and so, falling on consumption, are paid by the poor equally with the rich, we are necessarily led to the conclusion that the Boston assessors, in framing their circular and planning their action, must either have forgotten that there was such a restraining instrument as the Constitution of the United States in existence, or else must have assumed that it was entirely within the capacity of Congress to overrule and nullify the Constitution whenever it pleased by the mere formula of an enactment. For in the first article of the Tenth Section of this Constitution, as if designedly put in to meet this special contingency, occur the following provisions: "No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imports or duties on imports or exports *except what may be absolutely necessary in executing its inspection laws; and the net proceeds of all duties and imposts laid by any State shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States.*" It is obvious, therefore, that here is not only a clear prohibition on Congress doing what is petitioned for, but also that if it should heed the prayer of the Boston assessors and grant them permission to tax, the permission would pecuniarily avail them nothing, and that they would simply perform their work for the benefit of the Federal Treasury. It should also here be remarked that the above clause is about the only limitation in the Constitution of the United States in respect to the disposition of revenue derived from taxes or duties.

But the Constitution has something further to say on this general subject. Section 8, Article 1, declares that "all duties, imports, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States." But if Boston, New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, and Rochester apply to goods imported within their precincts the same rates which are assessed against other merchandise and property of their citizens (the rates in these several cities for the year 1870-'71 having been respectively 1.53, 2.27, 3.87, 1.80, and 6.70), how can the constitutional provision that the rate of taxation on all imports shall be uniform be complied with?

But looking at this whole matter generally, and apart from its constitutional relations, is it not obvious that this whole Boston circular and petition is in effect a request to Congress that it will permit the several seaboard and border towns and cities to take a hand, whenever it so please them, in further adjusting and manipulating that already complicated and vexatious subject of the tariff; that it will permit them to say, when Congress declares that tea, coffee, dye-stuffs, hides, and other articles shall be admitted free, that this freedom shall be locally qualified; and, finally, and in short, that a few places, by reason solely of geographical peculiarities, may be allowed to benefit and enrich themselves at the expense of the great majority of the States which are otherwise situated? It would doubtless be a fine thing for New York City, which first receives some four hundred millions annually of our imports, to be allowed to add this vast aggregate to the roll of her municipal valuation; but what would Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and other great States of the interior say, through their representatives, to such a project? Many people have the idea that almost anything can now be accomplished at Washington in the way of legislation by sufficient persistency, backed by political and moneyed influences; but this would be one of the projects which every member of the lobby who desired to retain any reputation whatever for sagacity would doubtless pronounce from the outset to be wholly beyond effort. The Boston assessors have, therefore, assumed the position of advising their representatives in Congress and brother-officials in other cities to attempt to effect a result which a mere glance at the Constitution of the United States will show to be impracticable, and a most superficial consideration of the relation of the several States would prove to be inexpedient; the whole transaction, furthermore, strikingly illustrating two points, well worthy of every man's thoughtful attention: first, how small a basis of principle and information underlies a system of taxation like that existing in the State of Massachusetts; and, second, how unjust and impracticable it is to attempt to carry out a theory of local taxation in the United States which assumes as its fundamental basis that, in order that there may be equality, it is necessary to value and assess every description of property. For if imported goods, all Federal securities, money and other instrumentalities, and property *in transitu*, are specifically exempted by law, and if the majority of all incorporeal, invisible rights to property are equally exempted by a higher law growing out of their condition and man's nature, what becomes of the boasted equality of a system based upon such a theory? Has it not everywhere resulted in exactly what might have been predicated from the outset—namely, in an administration which taxes every man for personal property who is honest, ignorant, or incapable (by reason of circumstances) of practising concealment, and which exempts, on the other hand, the property of all those who are cunning, unscrupulous, and willing to forswear themselves?

There is one point more in connection with this matter which has a prospective interest of not a little significance. Since the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of *Brown* v. *Maryland*, above referred to, was given, it has been regarded by every writer of note on constitutional law who has referred to the subject as sufficiently decisive in respect to the right of the States to tax imported goods in the original packages as personal property of the importers or merchants; and if a practice of making such assessments previously existed in the seaboard States of New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, it has since been otherwise. The Boston assessors have, however, in face of precedents and suggestion, preferred to be a law unto themselves on this question, and have therefore, it would seem, obviously made their city liable to heavy reclamations. Whether such reclamations will be now made we know not; but, for the sake of good law and administration in the future, it is for the interest of the whole country that they should be. And when suits of this character are followed up by others, testing the question whether one State, in virtue of having possession of the person of the owner, can tax his property under the protection, sovereignty, and jurisdiction of another State, the existing system of Massachusetts will be on the high-road to dissolution, and the Boston assessors will be anxiously enquiring for something better.

DAVID A. WELLS.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS SENATORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An article in a late number of the *Nation*, treating briefly the question of the choice of a new Senator for Massachusetts as lying between Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Dawes, concluded as follows: "Massachusetts was never

yet without the requisite timber for half a dozen senators, and was never restricted to choosing one of any given two men."

Nothing could be more reasonable nor more seasonable than what you say. Massachusetts has some private citizens who may be favorably compared with either Mr. Boutwell or Mr. Dawes in respect to fitness for a place in the Senate of the United States. Mr. Charles Francis Adams, for instance, after a series of invaluable services to the public, is no longer in the public service.

Mr. Dawes is a highly respectable gentleman. In his place in the House of Representatives at Washington, he has shown integrity, independence, and intelligence, and in a small way has gained experience. But the most partial friend would not think of ascribing to him any extraordinary qualities of statesmanship. For high official functions Massachusetts has scores of men of as good capacity as he.

Mr. Boutwell has the name of being an adroit manœuvrer in politics, and an adept in the management of men. This reputation following any person, besides being a thing quite vague in respect to the fact, is so exceedingly equivocal in respect to merit and usefulness, that men of character would generally prefer not to have it attach to themselves. At all events, as a public man, Mr. Boutwell has not established a claim, in the past, to the respect or confidence of the State which is now asked to send him to the Federal Senate. Massachusetts is no debtor to him. On the contrary, he has made trouble for her more than enough. His only very important action in her politics took place about twenty years ago, and it was deplorably bad. As the representative of the Democrats of the State, he entered into articles with Mr. Henry Wilson, representing a portion of the Free-soilers, for a trade in the offices. Nobody said that they handled money in the transaction. They preferred to deal by barter. Mr. Boutwell's allotment was the chief magistracy of the State, to which office he was accordingly elected by the joint votes of his own political friends and of Mr. Wilson's following of Free-soilers, and the plot having been carried into execution, worthy Massachusetts men were grieved that Mr. Boutwell incorporated into his inaugural address a set argument in defence of the horrible fugitive-slave law, then recently enacted.

That was not the end, however. Mr. Wilson enlisted Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Banks in a scheme for demolishing the constitution of the commonwealth. It was not suggested, even by the movers, that anything was the matter with the existing constitution, except an arrangement open to objection in respect to the lower branch of the Legislature. If this needed alteration, the thing was easily to be done by the use of a convenient article of the constitution itself, which provided for making amendments by an action of two successive Legislatures, subsequently ratified by a popular vote. But this would not meet the objects of the contracting parties. They calculated that there was something to be made out of a general scramble, and in the heat and turmoil of the time they got a vote for a constitutional convention.

It came together, and Mr. Wilson, Mr. Boutwell, and Mr. Banks were the triumvirate that ruled it. Mr. Banks was presiding officer, Mr. Boutwell was floor-manager, and Mr. Wilson chief usher in the lobby. They and theirs "overleaped themselves, and fell on the other side." They concocted a dose too unsavory for their best manipulation to force down. If they had had their way, there would have been now in Massachusetts for the election of representatives a system very like the old rotten-borough system in England, and instead of the excellent administration of the laws which Massachusetts always has had and has, there would have been a judiciary like that which has lately occasioned some little sorrow and disgust in New York. When the result of this synod was sent out to the people in the form of an amended constitution, the people could not stomach it. The popular vote condemned it and sent it to its place; and so far Massachusetts is as well off as if Mr. Boutwell, and Mr. Wilson, and their associated friends had let her alone. But it is small thanks to them that she is so. She owes her rescue only to her own stubborn good sense. And the rescue, considering how serious the danger was, is so much to be thankful for, that it is not worth while to remember how many thousand dollars the State treasury was mulcted in for the sorry job.

At all events, for the content of such electors of a senator for Massachusetts as think Mr. Dawes eminently competent, and Mr. Boutwell eminently meritorious, things seem to stand well enough as they are. These gentlemen are both already in situations which afford the public the benefit of all their talents, however great. Mr. Boutwell is Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, a place just now of immense responsibility and power, and Mr. Dawes is chairman of one of the two most important committees in Congress, perhaps the most important. If they are capable of such vast usefulness to the public, why disturb them? Why not leave them where they are, and add to the contribution already made by Massachusetts through them to the public welfare by filling her vacancy in the Federal Senate with a man—if she has such a man—fitted by character, and ability, and knowledge, and experience to do her the highest credit and the best service in that exalted council?

In the course of his conspicuous career, Mr. Adams never did or imagined harm to Massachusetts by constitution-tinkering for sordid ends or in any other way. He has always been in harmony with her sober second thought, if not always with her ephemeral delusions. When he first came forward in public life, the Cotton Whigs (then so called) controlled her action, and Mr. Adams fell under their ban. He kept on his way with brave consistency, and presently Massachusetts thought better of the position, and stood stoutly by his side in helping to lay the slave power. Then selfish schemers plotted against the State constitution, and the peril was great. Mr. Adams addressed his fellow-citizens as its champion, and, short as the time was for blowing away the dust that had been thrown in their eyes, he prevailed, and the wholesome vote of Massachusetts declared her deliberate agreement with him. There were enough persons disappointed and irritated by his patriotic action to keep him on the shelf for some years. But by-and-by that too came right; and in his conduct in the elevated stations which he has held of late, not only his own State, but the nation, has seen cause to recognize the breadth and sagacity of view, the uprightness, the courage, the discretion, the firmness, the good temper, the variety of information and fertility of resource, which characterize statesmen of the highest order.

At all times, and notably at the present time, matters of extreme concern to the national well-being depend on the action of the Senate of the United States. Many think that that exalted body is not now overburdened with the fitting preparation of wisdom, and knowledge, and honest devotion to the public good. Many feel confident that the Senate will not be the worse for a further infusion of all such qualities, and Massachusetts is naturally looked to for such a contribution, when she has a chance to make it. This is not a time for her to be capricious or reckless. Just now the foreign relations of the country are worth attending to in the Senate with some better insight than belongs to Mr. Cameron and Mr. Morton. Is it more than fair to the whole people that before Massachusetts comes to fill her vacant senatorship, she should consider wisely who is, for the purpose, her most trustworthy and serviceable citizen? M. Y.

PUBLISHING EXAMINATION PAPERS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: "N. N.'s" letter on the publication of college examination papers is an extraordinary performance. Every one of his arguments either is directly in the teeth of the plain facts of the case, or makes directly in favor of what he opposes. First he says, "Examination papers necessarily give a very imperfect idea even to scholars of the character or amount of instruction given." I deny this *in toto*. To a scholar there is no way of imparting the idea so quickly and with so little trouble. As to the ignorant, they cannot be expected to get very clear notions on the subject any way.

Suppose a graduate of West Point or of the École Polytechnique asks me, "How high do they read in Cambridge (England) for a mathematical degree?" I answer, "Here are the papers of my year, printed in the 'Cambridge Calendar.' I only did these questions and just passed. The senior wrangler did all except such and such questions. You will remark that the time is limited."

This, I repeat it, is the best and shortest way of imparting the idea to a man who is master of the subject. Suppose I tell an enquirer that at such and such a period of the course the students of a certain college read *Mechanics*. He will then ask the name of the text-book, then what parts of it are read, and after all will not know as much about it as he might learn by a very brief look at the examination paper.

Secondly, we are told that "to the outside public, who cannot see the bearings of the conundrums put, or the daily teaching, they must often seem puerile, sometimes farcical, and must tend to lower the low estimate in which universities are too apt to be held by men of affairs."

I suspect that "men of affairs" do not generally trouble themselves to read college catalogues, whether with or without examination papers among their contents. But if we are to pander to the prejudices of those ignorant, self-conceited, and self-made "men of affairs" who think nothing which *they* do not know worth the knowing, we shall not be able to publish anything relating to the Humanities: we shall hardly be able to have any colleges at all.

Next, he thinks that "public curiosity is insatiate," and ought not to be gratified. It has always seemed to me that the fault was just the other way, and that the general public did not take sufficient interest in our colleges.

But if I am wrong as to the fact, then their curiosity is a good, not a bad sign, and ought to be encouraged.

Then the undergraduates may be assisted by these papers to prepare for their own future examinations. Exactly—and very proper it is that they should be. Not, as he wildly supposes, by cramming the answers to the actual questions in the published papers (for those vary from year to year like the figures of a kaleidoscope), but by ascertaining *the sort of questions* that are usually asked.

Finally, our colleges are "drifting toward an evil," which is that of "attaching too much importance to examinations." Here again I join direct issue with "N. N." on the fact. I am convinced—and convinced that it would be easy to prove—that much of the great progress which our colleges have made within twenty years is owing to the institution of written examinations. These require long previous preparation, and some amount of positive knowledge, whereas the daily recitations are crammed up from day to day, and forgotten, in a great measure, as soon as learned, even by many of the candidates for the highest honors.

C. A. Bristed.

Washington, D. C., January 25, 1873.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "N. N." should not have confined his remarks nor applied his delicate humor to Cornell University alone, but should have included in his denunciations the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, and other great foreign schools, which annually give their examination papers to the public. He should have mentioned Harvard, which, although it does not insert its papers in its catalogue or calendar—I hear it stated that even this is to be done hereafter—at least prints them, and forwards sets to anybody on application. He should have alluded to the Regents of the University of the State, who have frequently published their own examination papers, and those of institutions under their charge. "N. N." may, however, console himself with the reflection that he is by no means the first American who has displayed a gross ignorance concerning this matter. The whole subject of examination is little understood among us, and our lack of knowledge on this point has always seemed to me not one of the smallest obstacles in the way of a full and fit reform of the civil service. Not one teacher in a hundred understands the art of drawing up a proper examination paper—a paper which shall fairly represent the leading points of the subject taught, which shall elicit in the best shape the evidences of the student's attentiveness and labor, which shall maintain the right line between too minute detail and too loose generalization, and which shall subject to the same test every member of the same class. I greet any publicity which shall tend to improve our condition in this regard.

I am aware of the antipathy of a good many more or less well-informed people to "cram," and feel a sincere compassion for the conductors of the *Saturday Review* and *Pall Mall Gazette*, who have written themselves into a state bordering upon mental infirmity on this theme. But "cramming-up on past papers" doesn't seem to me the worst evil in the universe. A man who has thoroughly "crammed-up" on the past mathematical papers published, for instance, by St. John's College, Cambridge, must have got as much out of them as could be acquired from a whole library of text-books. The man who will "cram-up" on the "past papers" on English literature, for example, published in the annual reports of the English Civil Service Commissioners, will obtain a knowledge of the subject which would put to shame the graduates of most of our colleges. To your correspondent, and to others of his class, let me commend this recent utterance of Mr. Gladstone: "What a pitched battle is to the commander of an army, that a strong examination is to an earnest student. All his faculties, all his attainments, must be on the alert, and wait the word of command; method is tested at the same time as strength; and over the whole movement presence of mind must preside." As also this comment on the above made by the London *Spectator*: "Force of character is tested by an examination almost as much as intellect; for instance, the power of concentrating various quite distinct streams of thought and knowledge on a single point is of the first importance in an examination, and requires not merely presence of mind, but a certain faculty of skilful intellectual grouping which is of the first value to practical men."

January 24. S. G.

Notes.

J. R. OSGOOD & CO. have in press: 'Palmetto Leaves,' by Mrs. H. B. Stowe; 'Among the Isles of Shoals,' by Mrs. Celia Thaxter; 'The Other Girls,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; 'American Text-book of Art Education,' by Walter Smith; 'Gothic Forms Applied to Furniture, Decorations, etc.,' by B. J. Talbert, illustrated by means of the heliotype process; 'Music Hall Sermons,' by the Rev. W. H. H. Murray; and 'Enigmas of Life,' by W. R. Gregg.——Scribner, Armstrong & Co. will add to their Illustrated Library of Travels the 'Lake Regions of Central Africa,' edited by Bayard Taylor, and 'Siam,' edited by the Rev. George B. Bacon; and will reprint Medhurst's excellent work on China, 'The Foreigner in Far Cathay.'

—We have received the prospectus of a proposed magazine, to be entitled the *Chronotype*, to be devoted to genealogical subjects, and to be edited by Dr. Jerome V. C. Smith, formerly Mayor of Boston. The circular states that the journal "is designed for the instruction of the young and to afford recreation to . . . elderly people"—an announcement which does not lead us to anticipate that it will be of much value to the student of our history. With this circular, however, we received another, which reads as follows:

"Dear Sir: As it is contemplated to embody in the columns of the *Chronotype* portraits, with family coat armour (hereditary or granted), and biographical sketches of families or persons who may wish to have such memorial for preservation, we shall require to be furnished with the matter and plates, either engraved or photographed, one month in advance of publication. Also, to be advised how many extra copies of the number containing such notice will be required."

This is signed by Albert Welles, President of the American College of Heraldry and Genealogical Registry, 67 University Place. Now we had occasion, on the 10th of October last, to call the attention of our readers to a proposed book of biographies of distinguished Americans. This project, as we pointed out, bore some mysterious relationship to the Genealogical Registry; and the advertised feature of the *Chronotype*, the publication of biographies when plates are furnished, has a family likeness to the scheme of last summer. It is strange that so little is known of this ambitious "American College of Heraldry," an enterprise which is perpetually starting new schemes and issuing trashy circulars. Last year we found that Mr. Wm. Coventry H. Waddell was president and Mr. Albert Welles secretary. Now we find Mr. Welles promoted to the presidency and Mr. M. Turner Forman is secretary. Beyond these names we find nothing, except long lists of undated recommendations, a list of twenty-eight honorary members, and apparently twenty-five life members. As to the active members of the society, its constitution or officers, we are left in the dark. Can the "practical herald connected with the institution" be the Henry Hays who published in the New York *Herald*, apropos of the death of Lincoln, such an amazing exposition of his incompetency in his profession?

—Those of our readers who care for philosophy ought to know of an important weekly journal, *La Critique philosophique*, now in its second year of publication by Germer Baillière, in Paris. Its editor is M. F. Pillon, whose name many will remember in connection with the excellent *Année philosophique*, of which two volumes were published before the German war, but which now becomes merged in this broader form of periodical. The doctrines the journal has to promulgate and defend are those of M. Charles Renouvier, who is an active contributor to its pages. His name has hitherto, we fancy, been less widely known than it deserves, and we rejoice that this popular form of publication promises to attract the attention of a larger circle of students to his writings. For, in our opinion, his 'Essais de Critique générale' form incomparably the ablest effort of philosophical speculation to which France has given birth during this century. How much of truth or error they may contain cannot be discussed here. But no one will read the first two *essais* without admitting their marvellous clearness, their trenchant logic and condensed vigor of expression, and without feeling that sort of weight and moral authority which any theory will possess when it is the resultant of the convergence of all the faculties of a powerful nature. M. Renouvier is through and through a *Verstandesmensch*. No mysticism or evasion of the principle of contradiction ever spots his pages. The knowable universe is for him, as for the school of Mill and Bain, a system of phenomena, and metaphysic is an analysis or inventory of their elements. But among these elements he finds the *possibility*, which British empiricism denies, of absolute beginnings, or, in other words, of free-will. On this somewhat well-ruminated subject M. Renouvier has been able to say something original and simple. Since we *may* affirm free-will, what more fitting than that its first act should be that of its own self-affirmation? So that we have an *act* enthroned in the heart of philosophic thought. Liberty is the centre of gravity of the system, which henceforth becomes a moral philosophy, not however neglecting to say its word concerning certain metaphysical postulates which morality seems to make. Republicanism is of course the political corollary of free-will in philosophy, and the *Critique philosophique* deals with political as well as literary and philosophic questions with an ability that should recommend it to all thoughtful minds.

—The Arundel Society has published many good collections of photographs, representing fans, furniture, pottery, jewellery, gold and silver ware, the Treasury of Petrossa, the Monastery of Batalha, the Cathedral of Compostella, but none that surpasses its last volume, 'The Architecture of Ancient Delhi.' The photographs, which are permanent, are very clear, the points of view selected with admirable judgment so as to combine architectural information with picturesque effect. The absolute truthfulness of photography as to form is specially adapted to architecture, and Indian architecture has the double advantage of being little known and very beautiful. At Delhi are the noblest minaret in the world (of which we have a wonderfully good full-length photograph, taken very near the base), arches which it is very interesting to compare with the Moorish, columns that remind one of the sculptures of Yucatan, and ornamentation as rich as any in the Alhambra. Perhaps the most effective photograph is No. 21, the southern door of Ala-ud-din's Gateway, where an arch, adorned with intricate carvings, admits a soft light into a dim porch ornamented with equal profuseness. This chamber is worthy of note for the mode in which the square walls are changed into an octagonal form to support the dome. The corners of the square are cut off by horseshoe arches of the same shape as the main doorway, but diminishing in size as they recede towards the angle, giving very simply an effect of great solidity, which is clearly shown in the photograph. The text by Lieut. H. H. Cole is unusually good for a work of this kind. He gives a description of each monument and a history of all, as far as it is possible, and makes his sketch interesting in spite of the number of unpronounceable and unrememberable names that trouble every reader of Indian history. This is preceded by a short account of the Archæological Survey of India, by which it appears that the present Government is making praiseworthy efforts to get measurements and photographs of architectural monuments and casts of carvings throughout India. Two large courts, eighty feet high, have been constructed at the South Kensington Museum for the exhibition of full-sized casts of architecture, with the intention of affording an opportunity of comparing the architecture of different countries. Many Indian casts have been deposited there. It is to be hoped that our own art museums will be able to obtain copies of some of these.

—In a recent entertaining book of travels in the Caucasus and Persia, by a gentleman attached to the British diplomatic service, I find, writes a correspondent, the following incident, which is not without interest, both as bearing on Russian operations in the East and as a slight argument in favor of an intelligent civil service. The author does not vouch for its historical accuracy, but his informants, it should be noted, were Russian officials. Some years ago, when it was necessary to settle upon a new boundary between Turkey and Russia in the Caucasus, the Russian Government was very anxious to have the line a small stream running into the Black Sea about a hundred miles from Trebizond. This was in order to include Batum, a place insignificant in itself, consisting in 1865 simply of "some squalid-looking huts," but possessing "the only good harbor on the eastern shore of the Euxine." Some twenty miles to the east of this village, however, there is another stream having the same name, with the exception of a single letter. After the treaty was signed, it was discovered that this distinguishing letter had been omitted, and in consequence this latter stream became, and still remains, the boundary between the two countries. This unfortunate mistake has put the Russian Government to an enormous expense, as they have been obliged to make a port of Poti, a town situated in a swamp at the mouth of the Rion (the ancient Phasis). Though millions have been spent in improving the harbor and deepening the channel of the river, no amount of money can make it equal to Batum. A railroad is being constructed from Poti to Tiflis and Baku on the Caspian. It was opened in 1872 as far as Quiril. The importance of this road in a military and commercial point of view will easily be seen by a glance at the map. All the trade between Europe and the northern and northeastern provinces of Persia, which is now "carried on by means of caravans of camels and mules, which tramp wearily up and down the eleven hundred miles between Teheran and Trebizond," will inevitably follow this route when completed. At Tiflis our author met "a traveller from one of the largest furniture manufactories in Paris, who had been buying walnut-wood in the forests of Mingrelia, the supply in Europe being exhausted. He found it in abundance, but the question was how to get it to France." Eventually it was sent to the Caspian in bullock carts, then up the Volga, then down the Don, and so, *via* the Sea of Azoff and Black Sea, to Marseilles. Russia's negotiations with Turkey in 1871 to obtain a cession of Batum appear not to have been crowned with success.

—The derivation which dictionaries—from Bailey to Latham's Johnson—give of the name *Rickets* is one of the curiosities of English lexicography. Bailey's first edition has "Rickets (*ραχίτις*, of *ραχις*, *Gr.* the back-bone), a disease common to children." Johnson is more explicit: "Rickets (*Rachitis*, Lat. A name given to the distemper, at its appearance, by Glisson)." Dr. Latham retains the "Rachitis, Lat.," but omits the reference to Glisson. The last revision of Webster suggests that the name is 'probably from A. S. *ricg, hric*, back, spine," but adds, "see *Rachitis*" (for the old derivation from the "Greek *ραχῖτις*, sc. *νόσος*"), and gives, *sub verbo*, a story from Aubrey about one Dr. "Ricketts, of Newbury," who was so famous for curing the new disease that people gave it his name—a story which Mr. Mark Antony Lower thinks "may be corfect." No one would think of inserting in an English dictionary references to "*catchpollus*, Lat.," and "*aysiamentum*, Lat.," as the etymons of "catchpole" and "easement"; yet something very like this has been done by the lexicographers who, as Aubrey says, have "vexed their lexicons to fetch *rickets* from the Greek." *Rachitis* is doctors' Latin, as "aysiamentum" is, or used to be, lawyers' Latin. Dr. Glisson's treatise, *De Rachitide*, was written about thirty years after the disease made its appearance in England. He states that, from the first, it was everywhere called by the common people "the Rickets"; that it had no other name; but that when, where, or by whom this name was given, neither he nor any one else could find out. One day, some physicians were consulting as to the name by which the new disease should be designated by the medical profession and in books. "One of us," says Dr. Glisson, "hit upon *νόσος ραχίτις*, or *ραχίτις, morbus spinalis.*" The suggestion was made and received as a joke, but on reflection there seemed to be some good reasons for adopting it. It had a familiar sound, was easily learned and remembered, and besides, it would have an influence to redeem from barbarism the popular English name of *Rickets* ("denique videmur hoc nomine Anglicum nomen, tanto populi consensu receptum, a barbarie liberare"); for "Rickets" might be understood to be merely a corruption of *ραχίτις*, "the difference between the two words not being greater than is often made by the vulgar pronunciation of a word adopted from a foreign language." And so this designation was accepted, and the doctors agreed that the common English name should be retained, as if coming from a pseudo-Latin word *Rachitis*, formed from the Greek adjective ("*ficta voce* Latina substantiva ex Græca adjectiva"). The device was successful, and Glisson's hypothetical etymology passed current with the dictionary-makers. We must except Skinner, whose *Etymologicon* was compiled before Dr. Glisson's treatise was published, and who suggests the derivation of "Rickets" from the Germ. *recken*, to stretch. Richardson quotes this suggestion, without approving or disapproving it. A rare tract, published in 1701, entitled "Scelera Aquarum; or, A Supplement to Mr. Graunt on the Bills of Morality" (4to, pp. vi. 30), by "J. H., M.D.," gives an account of "the London Ricketty Rheumatism," and offers an explanation of the name which has hitherto escaped notice. Dr. Glisson, according to this writer, mistaking the true etymology, "stumbled at the threshold," for "the English in the county of Derby, where the disease broke out, called the thing by the medley name of *Scurfi* and Wrygates—that is to say, *scabby* and *crooked goings*. This was sweetened into *Scurvy* and *Rickets* in process of time" (p. 18). One of the "signa diagnostica" which Glisson notes is, that children affected by this malady, "paullatim infirmis pedibus insistunt, atque inter incedendum sæpius *vacillant*, levique de causa titubant, aut etiam cadunt." Was not a Derbyshire or Somersetshire man more likely to express all this by "wrygates" than to invent for it a bad Græco-Latin name for a disease "of the spine," with which, as the doctors believed, the "going awry" had some connection? Compare, however, the A. S. *wrigian* to bend, Low Germ. *wricken*, Engl. *wriggle*, and O. Engl. *ricketty*, meaning "weak-jointed."

—Among French works bearing upon the task of national reconstruction we should name, if we began at the beginning, Dr. A. Siry's 'Le Premier Age,' or the physical, moral, and intellectual education of youth. Closely allied with this are the two works on 'Marriage in France,' by MM. Ernest Cadet and Armand Hayem, both of which have received honorable mention from the Institute. The former sets forth the statistics of marriage and population in France (in 1870), traces the causes of the evil which they reveal, and suggests remedies. The statistical portion will be found valuable. M. Hayem, in a very thorough consideration of the whole subject, does not omit the effect of the law of inheritance on the number of children; but he differs from most and, we believe, the best observers in denying that the *partage égal* has any influence whatever on the increase of families. In advancing schemes of reform, he goes so far as to propose a kind of sanitary jury before which candidates for marriage shall present themselves for judgment. On the political side, we have Paul Leroy-Beaulieu's 'Administration locale en France et en Angleterre,' a prize essay three years old, though only published last year. It will be found useful in comparing the governmental details of the two countries. A more widely suggestive work is the Marquis de Biencourt's 'Du droit de voter et de la valeur du vote'—a sub-

ject by no means exhausted for the great American republic. The author would attach grades to the vote, according to the capacity of the voter, who would be entitled to promotion, as it were, on fulfilment of the conditions defining the higher degrees; and the penalty he would affix to the neglect to vote would be proportioned to the voter's rank in the scale of suffrage (*en rapport avec la valeur numérique du droit de l'électeur*). And does he not indicate the solution of the great-city problem, and the one to which we must eventually come even in this country, when he insists that there should be a difference between the right to vote for national and for municipal representation?

—Any one interested in the Catholic "revival" in France, concerning which our readers will remember an instructive letter from our Paris correspondent, may procure 'La France à Lourdes,' an official report, by the "Committee of the Manifestation," of the fêtes in honor of the miracle which has drawn such troops of pilgrims to the place. The particulars of the "manifestation" are briefly described, and the "moral" pointed out, and then follow the discourses of Father Chocarne, the Bishop of Tarbes, the Archbishop of Auch, the Bishop of Carcasonne, etc., etc. The fêtes took place on the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th of October, and among the pilgrims were MM. Armand Ravelet and Dubosc de Pesquidoux, who have given an account of their experiences in 'De Paris à Lourdes' and 'Pèlerinage de Lourdes'—collections of their letters written "toutes chaudes des émotions du moment" to the *Monde* and the *Union*. The fair-minded Protestant may as well read in connection with the foregoing a work published in 1870, called, in the abbreviated form to which the French eye is accustomed, 'Mémoire sur les instruments de la passion de N.-S. J.-C.,' by Charles Rohault de Fleury. This author has dared to face the impious doubts of heretics concerning the authenticity of the relics of the crucifixion. To this end "he studies one after another all the sacred instruments of the Passion, approaching what remains of them with respect, getting down on his knees before them, analyzing them scientifically, and making of himself by turns a chemist, archæologist, historian; withal, reaching in regard to each one of them irrefragable conclusions, in which faith and science are admirably reconciled." So, at least, declares M. Léon Gautier in the *Polybiblion*. To meet the scoffing allegation of Calvin and other schismatics that "a whole ship would not contain the pretended relics of the true cross," M. de Fleury has "profited by the latest advancements of science, and particularly by chemistry, from which" (we still quote M. Gautier) "nothing can be concealed, and before which Catholics do not tremble." By this means he clearly distinguished the true nail of Trèves from all those which merely contain small fragments of authentic metal. Twenty-three steel and a great number of wood engravings represent each relic with its proper dimensions.

WHITNEY'S 'ORIENTAL AND LINGUISTIC STUDIES.'*

IT is now about twenty years since Professor Whitney, young then, and just from the lectures of Roth, published his first paper on the Vedas, the very first, he says, in which the main results of modern study respecting the most ancient period in Indian history were made accessible in English. Others followed in 1859, 1861, 1868, and 1871, discussing the Vedic doctrine of a future state, the history of Vedic literature, and the translation of the Veda. First published in the "Journal of the American Oriental Society," and our heavy reviews, they are now collected for us, and thousands who had never seen them will read them gladly. Professor Whitney is surely happy in having connected his name and fame with the earliest literary monuments of the Indo-European race—works in which the foremost nations are seeking to trace their history, and through which the clue leads to the beginnings of all scientific knowledge of man. He has kindled his own enthusiasm in many who have been in his classes at Yale; but the students whom he formally instructs are few compared with those who have enjoyed his advice and aid, and who have filled their urns from his fountain; and year by year he reaches through the press a larger and more deeply interested circle. Something of this increasing interest is doubtless due to the reflex influence of Professor Whitney's European reputation, which is the pride of American scholars; but it is mainly the direct result of the same power which has made his editions of Sanskrit works, and his book on 'Language and the Study of Language,' so highly esteemed in Germany. Thoroughness is his most marked characteristic. Then there are few books of such depth and compass as his, expressed with as much simplicity. And compression never fails. In a wonderfully small space we get a sufficient body of facts for a general understanding of the history of Vedic study, of the Vedas themselves, and their relation to modern mind and life. Now and then the author rises with his thought to rhythm and eloquence.

The essay on the Avesta has the same merits. Then comes an article on Indo-European Philology and Ethnology, a review of two essays disparaging Sanskrit studies, which presents the real claims of such studies with convincing clearness. It also gives Professor Whitney's views on a number of important points in the philosophy of language. What he says on pronominal roots is especially worthy of note. It is clear that they are not thoroughly understood, and that they have been much used as a mere refuge for ignorance. Professor Whitney thinks that the whole apparatus of derivation and inflection has sprung from the composition of independent words, which were originally names of physical acts or qualities. To our mind, there is a gulf between common compounds and derivatives by the pronominal elements which the personal endings of the verb do not begin to bridge; and the characteristic uses of the pronominal letters are such as to leave it doubtful whether their first use in artificial language was not as dependent enclitic syllables or sounds.

In two articles on Max Müller's 'Lectures on Language' (in which Professor Whitney is very exacting), and in those which follow on the present state of the question as to the Origin of Language, and on the "Simian," the "Physical," and the "Psychological" theory of language, Professor Whitney sets forth his views of the nature of language against Müller, Bleek, Schleicher, and Steinthal; and if we may judge from the elaboration and vigor of the criticism, these are the articles which he thinks to contain the most important work for the science of language.

The catchwords or keys of his position are that language is a human INSTITUTION, and that the science of language is a HISTORICAL science. His favorite method is to examine one word at a time, beginning with modern words, then say the unknown words are like the known, and language is nothing but a number of words. Thus, to show that language is a product of the human will, there is "*gas* invented outright by Van Helmont, about A.D. 1600"; then *telegraph, dahlia, petroleum, miocene,* with all their kith and kin, all the same as if forged brand-new; then there are *ink-bottle, steam-whistle, steam-boat, rail-road,* and then *help-ful, loveth,* and so on, until we make the induction that every word has been devised by some man, and so that languages, which are congeries of words, have also been so devised.

When we read Professor Whitney's statements of his own views, we assent; but when we read his assaults on others, we often dissent. The fact seems to be that this region of language is under the concurrent jurisdiction of the will and the unconscious involuntary activities; so that those who would exclude the will from it, and those who would make the will sole cause in it, alike err.

Thus, Professor Whitney urges that the science of language is a historical science, and we assent. Languages are a product of man, and embody his history, and words and languages have a history of their own. The great achievements in the study of language during the last generation are historical studies. We look to the future for more and more light from similar studies. To desert them would be giving up linguistics. When the Germans, who have shown ability to prosecute them, turn to futile metaphysical speculations, it is to be deplored. But then, shall we say that there is no scientific study of language except the historical, no impersonal laws of speech to be investigated? On the contrary, before language is thoroughly understood, its laws must be grounded in laws of the mind and of the organs of speech; and it is no futile metaphysics, but true science, which tries so to ground them.

Every product of man has a history, part of which belongs to the biography of the man who produced it. There was a steam-engine, whose story is part of the biography of Watt, and every machine has its story. So has every word. When the first schooner, narrates Professor Whitney, slid from her stocks, the chance exclamation of an admiring bystander, "Oh, how she *scoons!*" drew from her contriver the answer, "A *scooner* let her be, then," and made a new English word. There is, then, a history of language, which is a collection of anecdotes, and the free-will seems to reign in it. But there are laws of language, as there are laws of mechanics, and surely the word science is commonly used for the body of laws. We speak of the history of inventions, the science of mechanics; the history of prices, the science of political economy. If there is a body of laws of speech which are impersonal, these are the science of language. The history, the anecdotes, are linguistic truth, are interesting, they furnish material for science; but science, by eminence, comes with laws.

To work out the position that there is a science of language which is laws and not anecdotes, it has been urged that neither the origin nor changes of language are personal or voluntary. This Professor Whitney controverts, and he points out at great length that every utterance of every word is an act of man. That is true, but there are involuntary acts; a large part of

* 'Oriental and Linguistic Studies. The Veda: The Avesta: The Science of Language. By William Dwight Whitney, Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in Yale College.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.

both the movements of the muscles and of the mental acts are involuntary, many even unknown to us. The laws of reflective volition are different from those of the unconscious activity. The first are motives of the free intelligence, the latter are for the most part relations between objects external to the will. We learn to use our eyes, and habitually use them by processes unknown to us, and so the laws of optics have little to do with will or motive. There is something similar in speech. There are many steps between an object and the utterance of its name. Some trait of the object is established in the mind as its representative; this is the primary sign. With it is associated the phantasm of a vocal sound, a secondary sign. Then a sound like the phantasm is uttered by the movements of many muscles. But reflective consciousness knows nothing of the movement of particular muscles. We will the sound; the movements of the muscles are directed by the phantasm without consciousness. Often the volition is directed to expressing a thought, and primary signs, phantasms, and sounds all flow forth in answer. The changes in language are in great part produced in that part of the process of speech which is unknown to consciousness. The most familiar and widespread changes of sound are those in which sounds are exchanged for others more easily pronounced, as when *k* is no longer sounded in *knight*, or we say *cap'n* for *captain*. It is all wrong to explain these by motives addressed to the free-will, to call the change reflective economy or laziness. The speakers who bring them into use have no desire or purpose to speak otherwise than correctly; they are very often used in spite of a strong special desire and purpose to speak correctly. The explanation is to be sought in physiological and psychological laws, in relations of the movements of the muscles not controlled by special volition. It is true that such changes may be produced by the will. When the father of Æschines begins to be called Atrometus instead of Tromes, the story which Demosthenes tells explains it as a matter of free-will and motive in the rising son. But when we combine the facts of any old popular speech, free-will becomes infinitesimal.

If we carry back this mode of thinking to the origin of words, we come upon another of the questions on which Professor Whitney labors most: whether or not name-giving follows conscious thought, and is to be explained by conscious motive and purpose. He tells of the invention of modern words, and insists that the object named was distinctly known before it was named, and he is surely right; many words are inventions. But we have seen that the acts concerned in speech are under concurrent jurisdiction of the will and the unconscious activities, and it may very well be that an object and the phantasm of the sound which is to be its name may be united according to the laws of association in the unconscious activity. Uneducated persons often make new words. Their affixes and prefixes are attached according to their laws of association, without the slightest heed of dictionaries, or any special volition or purpose. The combination of thought and sound is made before either comes into consciousness. The first name-givers were probably least of all deliberate contrivers, and the first words, most of all, should be explained by laws of the unconscious activity and the relations of objects. Professor Whitney's views on this subject lead him to overrate the part which the imitation of the sounds of external objects plays in the origin of language, and to underrate the intimacy of the connection between man and speech, and the rapidity of its growth. He thinks that a period of experiments in communication, and probably even a language of gestures, preceded speech. But onomatope is imaginative by-play, and no free-agent with man's natural language would live without using his voice in freedom, and no family would live without rapidly associating the natural cries as names with the objects calling them forth.

If we pass from the origin of particular words to that of grammatical forms, of classes of words, of laws, Professor Whitney admits most fully that these are not matters of purpose or invention. He says:

"The unconscious laws which govern consciousness shape into a regular and well-ordered whole the congeries of items thus miscellaneously and as it were accidentally produced; they create out of words a language." "While, however, we are thus forced to the acknowledgment that everything in human speech is a product of the conscious action of human beings, we should be leaving out of sight a matter of essential consequence in linguistic investigation if we failed to notice that what the linguistic student seeks in language is not what men have voluntarily or intentionally placed there."

It would seem as though the statement that what the linguistic student seeks in language is not voluntarily or intentionally placed there, is a full admission that the science of language deals with the involuntary and impersonal only. Müller need say no more.

The paper on the present state of the question as to the origin of language was read to the American Philological Association. It accepts the question as a scientific one, but thinks we have gone nearly as far as we can in the historical method, and that progress hereafter is to be looked for from the settling of questions in the philosophy of language. Two are mentioned, the answers to which will take us about as far as we need care to go. The first is, whether speech is essential to thought, or its assistant and instrument. The other is, should the first impulse to speech have come from within or without.

Here, we think, Professor Whitney points in the wrong direction. We want more facts, and more minute scrutiny of facts. Man has a natural language, and every presumption of science favors his passing with no *saltus*, by its gradual extension and development, to the present speech. We want a minute scientific study of the natural language in children and deaf-mutes, and of the rapidly-forming and decaying speeches of savages, and of the children of mixed races. Wedgwood is on the right track when he takes up one sound at a time and shows that it is a part of natural language used by infants and the deaf and blind, and that words grow up from it in the nursery, and are to be found in the languages of many nations, civilized and savage. Tylor's studies of the speech of deaf-mutes and savages and Darwin on 'Expression' are in the line of progress. It would have given better promise of fruit if Prof. Whitney had urged American linguists to study the speeches of savages and of families of mixed races. We have special facilities for such studies, and facts may be hoped from them which may control our philosophy.

But even if we were thrown back on philosophical speculation, Professor Whitney's questions, interesting as they are, do not seem to open any fruitful distinctions. The question whether the first impulse to speech is from within or without, seems most accurately answered by saying that we have an impulse to speech both from within and without. Professor Whitney's point is that language is social; desire of communication is its impulse. But to show that any organs of man are intended for the social state does not show that there is no impulse to their solitary exercise. The use of the voice is eminently social, yet the solitary use of it is pleasant, the degree of pleasure being a trait of race. Negroes go talking to themselves. Professor Whitney supposes man to begin speechless, and to invent one word at a time slowly. One man's first voluntary use of his natural cry might be social, another's æsthetic, a modulated tone for his own delight. If, by some miracle, a single life were enough prolonged, the man would invent many tools, subdue many animals, and he would talk to his horses, and dogs, and tools, himself, and his God. So we fancy. As to speech being essential to thought, it obviously is not. It is even a characteristic of an original thinker now, that he thinks much in natural signs without vocables. But it is by no means clear that in the beginnings of infant or speechless life, it is not the rule that thought is drawn from indefiniteness into reflective consciousness by becoming attached to some sensible sign by the laws of association; and while we would not exclude free-will and device from any stage of language, we certainly look to explain the general facts of early speech by association and the unconscious laws of mind and the organs of speech, rather than by motives and devices.

But we cannot here discuss these subjects at length. All our readers will read Professor Whitney. Many of them will study him, and none will study him without learning many things.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR JANUARY.

IN the January *North American*, Professor Shaler, of Harvard University, has an essay entitled "Mixed Populations of North Carolina," which is as attractive as anything else in the number. So far as it relates to North Carolina, it is occupied almost wholly with the population, white and colored, of the Pamlico Sound region, and therefore has nothing to say about that infiltration of Scottish and Quaker blood which from before the Revolution until now has had so important an influence upon the history of the State. The Germans and Swiss and Huguenot French of New Berne and the swamp country adjacent are the people with whose fortunes Mr. Shaler has to do, and it is but a melancholy tale of stagnation that he has to tell. Of the negroes there resident he speaks at once better and worse than of the white. Better, because he pronounces them undeteriorated by the bad physical conditions, climatic and other, under which existence is carried on in the swamp and pine barrens; worse, because the fact that they endure these conditions without deterioration appears to him proof of their inferior development as human animals. A high state of development, he suggests, consists in the possession of qualities which are more precariously held, more dependent upon the conditions of environment, than are the broad underlying qualities which differentiate man from the other animals. And the "intense race individuality of the negro," while it enables his body to withstand the climatic influences which are detrimental to his white neighbor, also endues his mind with a like capacity for resisting change, and makes his intellectual advance but feeble.

Upon one or two points of Mr. Shaler's essay it may be useful to suggest

one or two considerations as worth bearing in mind, not so much for any positive and definite value that they have, but as, perhaps, of value in promoting a tendency to slowness in coming to a conclusion on a very large matter. The colored race in North Carolina, says Mr. Shaler, has before it the danger of gradually becoming extinct; "the cotton-seed is a ready substitute for ergot, and is used to an alarming extent"; "the opinion is very general among physicians and other observant persons, that the death-rate is not balanced by the births"; that there are as many negroes now as in 1860, as some say, is no proof that the race is not diminishing; formerly its increase was in excess of that of the whites; and during the first half of the decade between 1860 and 1870 the negroes were "under pretty much their old conditions, and should have added largely to the total of1860."

As regards the continuance of "the old status" throughout the half decade covered by the civil war, we should say, in view of the Emancipation proclamations of September, 1862, and January, 1863; in view of the occupancy of a great part of the slaveholding territory from 1862 onward; and in view of the "underground" information which was regularly carried to every plantation cabin—in view of all this, we should doubt if the old status was, in point of fact, a good deal disturbed. As for the crime of abortion, often as it was committed in old times out of spite, or from indifference to children, or to defraud a slave-owner of additional property, or for other causes, it is reasonable to suppose that it has a good deal increased since emancipation set free to wander about, from town to country and back again, a great number of men and women previously much restrained, and neither notably industrious nor notably chaste and constant. But, on the other hand, excessive child-bearing was in old times openly and directly encouraged and inordinately stimulated; bribes were everywhere offered to breeding women to produce children, and to produce them to an extent with which nature really had little to do beyond furnishing the apparatus. One-half the South bred slaves for the other half in order to keep itself in income, and the other half bred all it could that it might not have to purchase beyond its own boundaries. The average census-taker, a product of a very different order of things, here found himself on an unknown shore. Then again we have to recollect that in 1870, when the last census was taken, the new status, as distinguished from that of slaveholding days, can hardly be said to have been established; and that consequently, all things considered, it is early yet for trustworthy statistics bearing on the question whether the African race is really to become extinct among us.

As to the North Carolina negro's being as good physically as the Kentucky or Tennessee negro, while hardly anywhere is there a poorer specimen of the white man than has grown up side by side with him in the Pamlico districts, it is proper to recollect that the North Carolina slave, as compared with the negro of other States, was, on the whole, a favored being. There were very few large plantations; there were many small farms where two, or three, or four, or seven negroes worked side by side with their owner, were fed much as he fed himself, and enjoyed a life far freer than that of the negroes in the gangs of the great plantations which extended from the South Carolina line on through the rice, cotton, and sugar States to Texas. Then of the sickly country on the coast where the white man deteriorates, the one tolerably healthy portion is the turpentine barrens, and there the work of the negroes lay. Probably, then, there may be better regions in which to study the "intense race individuality of the negro," as compared with the race individuality of the white man. Mr. Shaler closes his interesting article by expressing his belief that the negro's greatest need now is not more or better assured rights, but better wages than fifteen dollars a month. "Civilization," he remarks, "cannot grow on such wages." And he adds, "He who would do the best for this people must seek to establish in the South real industrial schools, manufactories, and savings-banks." However, it is the North Carolinians themselves who must do this.

A writer hitherto little known to the public, Mr. Isaac Butts, contributes what will probably be proved to be the *North American's* most useful article. It consists of a very rudimentary discussion of the ill-understood problem known as "the labor question"—a question one side of which, it is perfectly true to say, is urged by men who, whatever they may think they are doing, are in fact "repudiating the principles, the language, and the customs of social and business life, and adopting those which properly pertain only to spoliation and war." This is Mr. Butts's language, and he goes on to say it over again to Mr. Edward Kellogg, author of the workingmen's free banking system, to Mr. S. P. Cummings, and others of their way of thinking, by amplifying it in these words: "An indefinite expansion of this 'system' would substitute universal spoliation for the present custom of buying, selling, and exchanging all commodities, the parties to each transaction being free to consult their own interests and tastes exclusively; and brute force would take the place of mutual consent in all transfers of property." That Mr. Butts's exposition is too elementary, that it is

> "Proving by Plato and the Stagirite
> That fire ascends and snow is white,"

no one will be over-ready to say, when he reads Mr. Butts's extracts from the monetary speeches of a distinguished member of Congress whom workingmen keep in his seat; and when he recollects that some hundred thousands of our voters are banded together in partial support at least of Mr. Kellogg's financial theories; and when he remembers the praises of the Commune which are openly chanted not only in London but in Boston. In fact, all ought to be glad to see articles like Mr. Butts's. As he remarks, there are two modes of dealing with the question and this state of facts, between which we must necessarily choose: First, to treat this pet system and its adherents with contempt; and, second, to appeal to the intelligence of the men who sincerely believe it would form a panacea for all their ills, and endeavor to convince them that its adoption would inevitably disappoint their expectations and add to their present grievances. To choose the first mode would be equivalent to saying to some millions of our population, "Your wrongs, your remedies, and yourselves are unworthy of our serious consideration"—language which, from one republican citizen to another, no matter how stupid he may be, is absurd; all the more absurd, indeed, the more stupid is the body of voters maintaining any dangerous doctrine.

"Cheap Money," "How would Cheap Money help the Poor," and "The Workingman's Grievances and their Proper Remedies," are the topics of which Mr. Butts treats from the capitalist's point of view, so to speak; or rather from the point of view antagonistic to that occupied by Mr. Kellogg and Mr. Wendell Phillips. But he does not forget that there is another side, and that the workingman, that the vast majority of the community, has real grievances which must be removed; he does not forget that there are classes in the community who habitually act upon the doctrine which Mr. Butts has known to be expressed literally in these terms, "Money has always beaten labor and always will." What is this, again, but war and not trade, spoliation and "beating," instead of "the present custom of buying, selling, and exchanging all commodities"? Not now, any more than in the past history of the slow advance of civilization, will it be the workingman who will make all of the difficulty, and be responsible for all of the injustice and cruelty of the struggle. More briefly, the essay deals with the second branch of the subject, but all that it says is calculated to promote an understanding of its subject and should have a wide circulation.

We have left ourselves very little space in which to speak of the other articles in this number of the *Review*, though there are two or three of them which for one good reason and another are well deserving of the attention of our readers. Professor C. K. Kendall, apropos of Lanfrey's first volume of the 'Life of Napoleon,' makes an article entitled the "Rise of Napoleonism in France," which at first sight looks trite, but which is not so, and for which a wide perusal may be hoped, as also for the work which it reviews. Compared with the ordinary and cherished American view of Napoleon's character, M. Lanfrey's view is like the almost frightful cast of the Emperor's face taken after death, revealing the true barbarian, when compared with Heine's picture of the Emperor after Jena, as he rode down the Unter den Linden. Mr. Hjalmar Hjarth Boyesen tells us more about Björnson than our public has previously known, and translates some scenes from one of his tragedies. A little ambitious, perhaps, the general criticism is, and a little unsatisfying the specific—as, for instance, when question is made of the fitness of Eywolf for the place of hero, as if he were of much consequence in presence of Hulda and her passion. But the essay, both critical and biographical, will be welcomed.

"The Rationale of the Opposition to Capital Punishment" is a cleverly turned little essay, or rather an essay with cleverly turned parts, which neatly and smartly sets forth some of the objections to the infliction of capital punishment on murderers. Avowedly they are, for the most part, sentimental objections; but there are one or two which are not such. The writer (Mr. E. S. Nadal) objects, for instance, that the punishment cannot be inflicted; as a matter of fact, it is found that it is "impossible"; people will not hang other people—that is to say, they will do it only once in a while, and unsystematically, "in an absent-minded and mechanical manner." Again, there is this practical and experimental objection to inflicting the death penalty—that "a great empire like Russia gets on without it" (but with the aid of Siberia), and so do commonwealths such as Michigan and Wisconsin. But most of Mr. Nadal's objections are entirely sentimental, unless we make the further exception of the objection that in putting a man to death by due course of well understood law, "we presume to lay our hands upon the awful mysteries of death and immortality." The essay is witty, and it raises a question which will bear discussion, though we suppose the death penalty will retain its place in our system, and be more or less judiciously employed until somebody, more tender of the bodies and souls of murderers than society at large has

ever been or is yet, shall devise some more effective deterring agency. Meantime, essays against the horribleness and sinfulness of hanging are tolerably good testimony to the deterring power of the particular deterring agency now in use. "Find out what your murderer does *not* want and give him that," is a coarse rule, no doubt; but it will answer after a fashion till the rule of the future is got into working order by its friends.

There is also a lively article on "The Causes of the Commune," which, perhaps, might as justly be entitled "The Commune's Occasion"; but it says nothing, we suppose, that is not true, whether or not it can be held to give us the whole truth.

The book notices are rather more varied than usual, and there is none that is not to be called good, though perhaps none which rises to the rank—not seldom attained by the *North American's* book notices—of being a literary product capable of standing by itself apart from the book reviews. But the notice of Büchner is helpful to an understanding of that philosopher; those of the biographies of Amos Kendall and Chief-Justice Taney dispense the reader from going through the biographies themselves; those of Eastlake's 'Household Taste' and Smith's 'Art Education' may be read in the gynœceum, and all the others are readable and worth reading.

THE MAGAZINES FOR FEBRUARY.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Woman's Journal* points out that "A Curiosity of Literature" in this month's *Atlantic* is largely composed of matter which years ago appeared in an American translation of Bettina Brentano's famous letters to Goethe. But not the less does the article exhibit a real curiosity of literature, and one which will be quite new to ninety-nine readers out of a hundred; and, we may add, one which the writer in the *Atlantic* doubtless supposed himself or herself to be presenting to the public for the first time. It is a little strange, by the bye, that this Boston edition of the celebrated correspondence has been allowed to remain so long out of print and become generally forgotten; it has the name of being excellently done.

The *Atlantic's* article tells how Bettina earned seven thousand dollars by the publication of the letters in German; how this sum seemed to her insufficient for her purpose, which was to erect a colossal monument to her idol; how she determined upon putting forth an English edition, being moved to do so by a mistaken opinion as to Goethe's fame in England, for she knew only of the Goethean clique represented by Carlyle; how she employed first an Oxford and then a Cambridge student to make the translation, and how each in turn failed to satisfy her, as well they might; how she thereupon set herself to learning English that she might be her own translator; how she learned English—after a fashion, and a queer enough fashion; how the edition—ten thousand copies—was shipped to England to Messrs. Longmans, Brown & Orme without any previous understanding between them and the lady as to the reception of her consignment; and, finally, how the ten thousand copies were at last sold out of the custom-house as "unclaimed" matter, and in all probability went back to the paper manufacturers as "stock." So romantic an enterprise has seldom had a catastrophe so pathetically prosaic. Our writer has seen in this country one of the eight or ten copies of this singular work which may be presumed to be in existence—the only one, it is probable, that has ever been seen in this country. It was given by Bettina, with an autograph note, to the wife of a gentleman who alone had interested himself enough in her London venture to find out what had become of her books, and it is from this original source that the quotations in the *Atlantic* are taken. They are very interesting, especially where she describes her enthusiastic desire that the English should know the story of her affection for Goethe, and her labor in mastering, as she persuades herself she has mastered, the difficulties of the new language: "Forsooth," she says, "I saw in the last year no roses, no tree blowing; my intelligence lay narrowly grated up in the dictionary of good Johnson, and the grammars that I took to my couch and fell asleep on them, and had also a very hard bed to no boot, for I had unfortunately in no language a grammatical learning; all its terms were unknown to me, and their inferences incomprehensible; and those who would advise me frightened me out of my wits. I struggled for my version as does an animal for its young, and suffers them not to be touched by an indiscreet hand, but licks them clean again."

Often entirely incomprehensible, and sometimes only amusing, unless one recalls the intentions and the earnestness and courage of the lady, her version is once in a while quaintly but poetically felicitous. For example, we may take a metaphor which the magazine writer emphasizes. Bettina is speaking of the sun's power in opening a bud, and says, "It cannot again return to the cool closet of darkness." The phrase is a good example of that class of beauties which only a foreigner may be permitted to find in a language; but it is a beauty of a certain sort, though doubtless the reader's involuntary reference of the metaphor to the unfolded affection in the heart of the young girl lends to it a charm. We quote, in conclusion, the following letter-picture of Bettina and Herder:

"Now I will tell thee also the story of my second kiss, it followed almost immediately upon the first, and what dost thou think of thy girl, that she is become so light-minded? Yes, that once I was very light-minded and to a friend of thine—the bell rings hastily; I spring to open the door; a man in black dress, of stern appearance, with somewhat inflamed eyes, enters—even before announcing his name, or saying what is his business, he kisses me, even before I bethink myself. I give him a box on the ear, and only then I look furiously in his face and become aware of a friendly countenance which seems not at all frightened and not irritated at his proceeding. To escape my dilemma—for I did not know if I had done right or wrong—I quickly opened to him the doors of my grandmother's apartment. Then my surprise was suddenly changed to fright, when I heard her exclaim in great ecstacy, 'Herder, my Herder! Is it possible that your way should have led you into this whimsical cricket-hut? Be a thousand times embraced!' and here followed these thousand in-armings, during which I gently sneaked away, and wished that in the throng of caresses the one might be drowned which was replied to him with a box on the ear; but no! he forgot neither kiss nor flap!"

"Boy Life in a Scottish Country Seat," by Mr. Robert Dale Owen, relates, among other things, how Robert, then a thoroughgoing Calvinist seven or eight years old, undertook the conversion of his father, and is otherwise entertaining and not uninstructive. That is to say, there is about it a frankness of mental autobiography, so to speak, which may be of help to parents and other instructors of youth. "Idiosyncrasies," by Miss H. R. Hudson, talks about such unusually impressionable people as are depressed by the sight of a combination of purple and light blue, for instance, and who at once recover their spirits at the sight of a barberry bush. "Most people like roses and dislike snakes," she says; "but why are there so many snakes and roses for me?" A majority of her readers, we dare say, will be able to make a large supplement to her list of pet aversions and peculiar likings, all unexplainable, and the more unexplainable by those who are most affected by them. And probably, as she remarks, there is no one of her readers, however hard-headed, who can be described as having not a single "bit of nonsense about him." Odd associations of thought, more explicable than the so-called instinctive likes and dislikes, but probably reducible to the same law, also get some of Miss Hudson's attention, and her cursory article is throughout pleasant.

In "Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State," we have Mr. Parton admitting that there was some right thinking on the side of the anti-French party in our early politics, and some wrong thinking on the part of our pro-French politicians; but this admission is a matter of words, it would seem, rather than the expression of full intellectual conviction. One would almost suppose, to hear Mr. Parton, that behind Burke's eloquent execrations of the Republicans who killed Louis XVI. and his queen there was nothing but the spirit of the aristocrat or of the romantic rhapsodist, with a half-crazy ideal of the spirit of chivalry. Perhaps so in the case of Burke, and Burke at this moment; but for all that, it requires Mr. Parton to say that some of the men and some of the theories against which Burke was fulminating did not need opposition of various kinds, unarmed and armed. As the Jeffersonians said, it was indeed not well that the wretched French peasantry should be feeding on grass in order that "one Austrian woman," whom Burke had happened to see when she was beautiful and graceful, should pursue uninterrupted "a career of ignoble pleasure." And, on the other hand, it is not well either that Mr. C. C. Bowen should have that "manhood" constituency of his in South Carolina which he has because of the practical carrying out of some of the doctrines which Burke detested and denounced, and of which many millions, of whom Burke was the too eloquent mouthpiece, disapproved, some from selfish, some from disinterested and reasonable motives. But some of us will die with this unlearned.

"The Bride of Torrisdell" is a versified Norse legend by Mr. H. H. Boyesen; "Lost," by Mr. P. Deming, is of good promise if, as the sketchy handling of its incidents would seem to indicate, the writer is young; "A Hunt for Smugglers," by Mr. Prentice Mulford, will be liked even by those who would have expected to find it in the *Overland Monthly* rather than in the *Atlantic;* "The Telegraph and the Post-office," by Mr. E. H. Derby, bristles with figures and is strong for the assumption of the telegraphic lines by Government; "Edible Fungi," by Mr. R. M. Copeland, shows us how little it is that the unbotanical epicure knows of his resources in the way of mushrooms; Mr. Howells's "Chance Acquaintance" goes on; and Mr. Whittier has a poem called "A Mystery"—the mystery being that common one of some day seeing with the bodily eyes a landscape which, it seems to us, we have assuredly seen before, in a dream perhaps; or in another life, "as poets feign":

> "Was it a dim-remembered dream?
> Or glimpse through æons old?"

The critical departments of the *Atlantic* are even better than usual. Mr.

Theodore Thomas is mildly expostulated with for playing to unaccustomed audiences not such music of Wagner's and Berlioz's and Lizst's as might lead them on with him to a hearty admiration for the "music of the future," but the more painfully intense, passionate, abstruse, and terrifying and annihilating music of those masters. Under the head of "Politics," we have an article, useful to journalists, which discourses of the common-law doctrine of contempt of court. The art-critic—who, by the bye, considers himself but poor authority as regards the just measurement of statues, while we, on the other hand, consider ourselves good enough authority in a matter so simple—gives us the good news that there is now in Boston a "Household Company of Art," which will be of invaluable assistance to persons who are furnishing houses and who wish to furnish them tastefully.

The Scientific Department develops one of the principal points in Mr. Walter Bagehot's "Physics and Politics"—a book of much interest to those who maintain and those who contravene the position that there "cannot have been in prehistoric times a general loss of the attributes of civilization." The department of "Recent Literature" reviews Turgenef's 'Liza,' Mr. John Fiske's 'Myths and Myth-makers,' About's 'Alsace,' Gagal's 'Tarass Boulba,' Cherbuliez's 'Etudes de Littérature et d'Art,' and the second volume of Forster's 'Life of Dickens'—the last-named work meeting with no more favorable a welcome from the *Atlantic's* critic than from the rest of the critics. It is indeed a work which justifies a good deal of plain speaking.

For a good specimen of the *suggestio falsi* in historical writing we refer the reader to the 349th page of the current *Harper's*. The writer is once more going over the story of Mary, Queen of Scots, and is speaking of her education at the Court of France:

"Certainly the last custodians of the conscience which a modern would choose would be those Jesuit fathers—Vasquez, Escobar, Mendoza, for example—who did not hesitate to defend by their casuistry, and under color of religion, fraud, forgery, falsehood, murder; and whose teachings, before they were counteracted by the protests of such believers as Pascal and such heretics as Luther, brought forth their fruit in the assassination of William of Orange and of Coligni and in the wholesale massacre of St. Bartholomew. And it was these fathers, and their apt disciple the Cardinal of Lorraine, who were the keepers of Mary's conscience."

One would not gather from this paragraph that Escobar was born two years after Mary had had her head cut off. And as for the other two, neither of them, so far as we know, ever set foot in Spain, and therefore "certainly were among the last custodians of the conscience" which anybody, ancient or modern, would have selected as the instructors of a young princess resident in Paris. Another queer assertion is that the last that is known of Henry Darnley he was reading the Fifty-fifth Psalm. Why he was doing this appears from two of the verses here quoted: "It is not an open enemy that hath done me this dishonor, for then I could have borne it. . . . It was even thou my companion, my guide, and mine own familiar friend." Save us from our friends, indeed.

"Life in the Diamond Fields" is lively in its description of the South African miners, boers, and negroes; "The Mont de Piété" describes a French institution which Boston once copied, and a copy of which our New York philanthropist might, we suppose, set on foot with advantage to many people now the prey of the pawnbroker; Professor Henry Draper publishes a lecture, desultory and fragmentary, but well adapted to a general audience, on "The Delusions of Medicine," in which he says something about the follies of the astrologers; "The Easy Chair" eulogizes the late Horace Greeley, not without discrimination; also, he satirizes the citizens of Boston for their alleged severity of taste in music, and appears to approve an assertion overheard by a gentleman who recently visited that city, to the effect that "the Bach business" as transacted in the Music Hall is a humbug—a fashion that has nearly gone out. Mr. Reade's, Mr. Wilkie Collins's, and Miss Thackeray's stories continue as usual, and, as usual, there is much other matter of a well-known kind.

Lippincott's has for its most attractive article one upon a curious subject—the strange sights which meet the eye of the submarine diver. The writer is fond of adjectives, and cannot bring himself to tell his story in plain language, as one would suppose a man of his profession would be likeliest to do; and his incapacity in this respect, and the large capacity that he displays for fine writing, incline one to doubt if what he says may not be of his own invention. If not, it is well worth having. For an example of the better part of the article, we quote a passage in which the writer illustrates the proposition that fishes are full of curiosity—and he remarks *obiter* that the fact that animals are so full of curiosity as they show themselves to be when not terrified, is, to his mind, sufficient disproof of "the now exploded theory of instinct":

"A prolonged stay in one place gave a diver an opportunity to test this intelligence further, and to observe the trustful familiarity of this variety of marine life. He was continually surrounded at his work by a school of gropers, averaging a foot in length. An accident having identified one of them, he observed it was a daily visitor. After the first curiosity the gropers apparently settled into the belief that the novel monster was harmless and clumsy, but useful in assisting them to their food. The species feed on crustacea and marine worms, which shelter under rocks, mosses, and sunken objects at the sea-bottom. In raising anything out of the ooze, a dozen of these fish would thrust their heads into the hollow for their food before the diver's hand was removed. They would follow him about, eyeing his motions, dashing in advance or around in sport, and evidently with a liking for their new-found friend. Pleased with such an unexpected familiarity, the man would bring them food and feed them from his hand, as one feeds a flock of chickens. The resemblance, in their familiarity and some of their ways, to poultry was, in fact, very striking. As a little chick will sometimes seize a large crumb and scurry off, followed by the flock, so a fish would sometimes snatch a morsel and fly, followed by the school. If he dropped it or stopped to enjoy his *bonne bouche*, his mates would be upon him. Sometimes two would get the same morsel, and there would be a trial of strength, accompanied with much flash and glitter of shining scales. But no matter how called off, their interest and curiosity remained with the diver. They would return, pushing their noses about him, caressingly in appearance if not intent, and bob into the treasures of worm and shell-fish his labor exposed. He became convinced that they were sportive, indulging in dash and play for the fun of it, rather than for any grosser object to be attained."

The concluding paper of a series which recounts the adventures of a party who were "prospecting" in South American woods for cinchona trees—and which, by the way, has been running through the *Tour du monde* during the past year, of course in French—is also worth reading; and the magazine reader will say the same thing of Miss Woolson's "Commonplace"; Miss Carpenter's "Winter's Reverie"; Mr. Reginald Wynford's "Country-House Life in England"; Miss Ita Aniol Prokap's "Forest of Arden." Mr. Mulford's "John Chinaman," albeit "thin," will have an interest for housekeepers, we suppose; any one who cares to go, Mr. Thomas Dunn English's "Jack the Regular" will carry back into the American literature of forty-odd long years ago, and it is an excursion not without a subdued and melancholy pleasure; finally, there is a lively little account of the adventures of a young gentleman who, without a passport, ran the gauntlet of two French custom-houses on the Swiss frontier, although the officials were at that time lynx-eyed for escaped Communists of various nationalities.

The book reviews—as of 'Songs from the Old Dramatists,' for instance, and of 'Gareth and Lynette,' are noticeably good in the February *Lippincott's*, and altogether the number is a good one.

The *Catholic World* opens with a translation of the Sixth Canto of the 'Purgatorio.' It is understood to be the work of Dr. Parsons, and, true or not, the statement certainly does not malign him. We commend also to the attention of the reader, whether Catholic or non-Catholic, an account of a steerage passage from England to this country written by a steerage passenger, who describes himself as a London clerk, thirty years old, who, for reasons not given, found himself compelled to seek his fortune in this country. The description is intelligent and clear, in no way sensational, and offers what is called "internal evidence" that it is truthful. There is to be another article or perhaps more than one continuing the subject. Another readable contribution is the description of a friendly visit paid to some Acoma Indians by an American party from Fort Wingate, Northern New Mexico. With these three articles in one number, the reader will see that there was no great call for the friendly advice which was given to the *Catholic World* the other day by one of our sweetest-tempered journals, and which was to the effect that it had better translate all its articles from foreign tongues.

It is a bold saying, but whoever reads Mr. John Burroughs's chronicle of his visit to Stratford-on-Avon will consent to call it about the newest and most agreeable thing that he has happened upon, whether in the *Galaxy* or anywhere else, for a long time. That what is seen depends upon who sees it quite as much as what is there to be seen, is very well proved by this intrepid traveller to Ann Hathaway's cottage, to the room where Washington Irving sat, to the much-travelled walls of Chester.

A little known writer, Emily Brontë, as to whom, indeed, many of her few readers would perhaps wish that she should still remain little known, is the subject of a careful and, as it seems to us, justly appreciative criticism by an anonymous contributor. Good service is done those who already know 'Wuthering Heights,' also to such persons as this criticism may prompt to read it, when it is suggested that there is a sowing of literary wild-oats, so to speak, as well as of other kinds, and that the unhuman and hateful character of that powerful story may be due to that fact. "When a woman's imagination posseses virile fire and power, it is apt in its first essays to project itself as far as possible from the beaten track of feminine grace and refinement, to delight in the sombre and the lurid, and to indulge in displays of strength which are too often uncouth and savage. There is a sowing of

wild-oats in literature and art as well as in life," etc. It is good service, too, to point out the extreme beauty of the pictures of open-air scenery—pictures with the air and space in them—which relieve the gloom of the novel. But nevertheless it is probable, we imagine, that the more strenuous and fiercer parts of 'Wuthering Heights,' and the stronger and more unconquerable strains of the poetry, better express the nature of the woman than the pictures do, or the verses expressive of the intimate feeling of the life of nature. We may, indeed, suspect nature to have been her refuge from herself. The article embodies much of the best of Emily Brontë's verses, and includes what we suppose will be pronounced the best, the poem called "Remembrance," in which she really speaks with perfect intelligibility and with great force to the common heart. But then her rare quality, unique we may call it, is perceptible in all she does.

To the sedater magazine reader the *Galaxy* offers a paper on "Life Assurance," and some "Casual Cogitations" by Mr. Carl Benson. Mr. Benson discourses on "American Impoliteness" and on the "Unmorality of the Scientific Dispensation"; and on the latter he discourses in much the same way as if it were not true that, however much science men may come to know, nevertheless so long as they live in this world touching each other's elbows whenever they move, a system of morals they will most inevitably have. Liars and thieves, we may be sure, will not be any more popular and admired when we all have spectroscopes in our coat pockets than they used to be when we all temerariously maintained that nature abhors a vacuum. Science may more probably modify certain dogmas of religion, either momentarily or permanently. The rest of the number is made up of some chapters of two novels—Mr. De Forest's "Wetherel Affair,' and Mrs. Edwards's "Vagabond Heroine"; another chapter of General Custer's "Life on the Plains" (and its bloody story will not please the Eastern philanthropist, whether of the true or the mock breed); "Women as Companions," by Mr. J. H. Browne; "The Norse Emigrant," by Mr. Boyesen, who is good, as is usual with him when he is Norwegian; some poetry by various writers, and a good deal of popular science.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

FEBRUARY 3.

THE money market has remained active since our last report, with rates ruling at 7 per cent. currency and 7 gold; in some instances, $\frac{1}{64}$ commission in addition to the legal rate of interest was paid, which was the highest rate of the week. Balances at the close of business were loaned out, on one or two days, as low as 4 and 5 per cent., but these rates were entirely exceptional.

A fair amount of business has been doing in commercial paper, and we quote rates on prime names at 8 to 9 per cent. Transactions are reported at 7 per cent., but they were in bankers' acceptances. Paper of lower grades than either of the above is selling at 9 to 12 per cent.

The tendency of the European money markets, according to recent advices, is in favor of greater ease. The Bank of England rate of discount has again been lowered, and now stands at 3½ per cent. Money is easy on the Continent, and there are no indications, at present, that any unfavorable turn will take place in financial affairs. The Bank of England reports a gain of £235,000 in specie last week, and the Bank of France 500,000 francs.

The weekly statement of the New York banks is unfavorable, showing a loss both in specie and legal tenders, with an increase in liabilities in the shape of deposits. The loss in specie is accounted for, in part, by last week's shipment—that of Saturday, as we pointed out at the time, counted for but one day in the table of averages upon which the statement was made up, and the real condition at the close of the week was considerably weaker than the statement caused it to appear. We give below the statements for the two weeks ending January 25 and February 1, which show that the banks have lost $1,931,400 in their total reserve, and that their total liabilities have been increased $469,500. The banks now hold $3,246,925 in lawful money in excess of the 25 per cent. required:

	Jan. 25.	Feb. 1.	Differences.
Loans	$282,159,100	$286,879,600	Inc. $4,720,500
Specie	20,371,700	18,612,200	Dec. 1,759,500
Circulation	27,529,200	27,501,000	Dec. 28,200
Deposits	216,670,800	217,168,500	Inc. 497,700
Legal tenders	45,974,000	45,802,100	Dec. 171,900

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Jan. 25.	Feb. 1.	Differences.
Specie	$20,371,700	$18,612,200	Dec. $1,759,500
Legal tenders	45,974,000	45,802,100	Dec. 171,900
Total reserve	$66,345,700	$64,414,300	Dec. $1,931,400
Circulation	27,529,200	27,501,000	Dec. 28,200
Deposits	216,670,800	217,168,500	Inc. 497,700
Total liabilities	$244,200,000	$244,669,500	Inc. $469,500
25 per cent. reserve	61,050,000	61,167,375	
Excess over legal reserve	5,295,700	3,246,925	Dec. 2,048,775

The activity and buoyancy in the stock market, which commenced two weeks ago to-day and continued for the remainder of the week, seems to have been but temporary, and was not the forerunner of a regular "bull campaign." This bears us out in what we said last week, that it was occasioned by a few professional operators, who went in and bought only for a quick turn. The week just passed has been an unsatisfactory one to most operators, if not to the brokers, and the market has presented no special or interesting features. The operations in Atlantic and Pacific Preferred (the latest "fancy") have been upon quite a large scale, considering that there are not probably over 10,000 or 15,000 shares owned outside of Mr. Stockwell's party. The entire number of shares is 100,000, and the recorded number of shares sold during last week was 108,400—just 8,400 more than are in existence. Mr. William B. Duncan recently explained to the Ways and Means Committee his understanding of a "syndicate." He said that "'syndicate' is another name for what we call a 'ring' in New York, which manipulates the market in order to get rid of a thing, . . . by stimulating the market by numerous transactions, and *by inducing people to sell what they have not got or to buy what they do not want*, thus creating an unnatural demand." The "ring" in Atlantic and Pacific Preferred seems to be following out Mr. Duncan's definition. The dealings in this stock have been carried on to such an extent that the daily papers have been furnished with very amusing matter for their financial articles, and some of them have been posted up in the Exchange, where the point was readily seen.

The long-lost steamship *Alaska*, belonging to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, has at last turned up, some twelve days overdue, at Hongkong. No cause has yet been given for the delay in her arrival. The first effect of the report of her safety was to send up the price of the stock, but the advance was not maintained, and at the close of the week the price is about where it started from. There has been a stronger feeling in coal stocks, as well as in the stocks of the railroad companies engaged in the coal-carrying trade, which is due to the recent rise in the price of coal, as indicated by the higher prices obtained at the auction sale of the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad Company last week. The rise in Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western for the week was about 3 per cent., the closing sales being at 102 against 99⅛, the lowest price on Monday. The investment stocks have been in good demand. Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy sold at 120 on Friday, an advance of 5½ per cent. since the 25 per cent. bond dividend came off January 15. Chicago and Alton found ready sale at 114 to 115, and Michigan Central has been in demand at 109. The latter Company, it seems, has expended the money that would otherwise have gone to the stockholders as a dividend (the Company paid a stock in place of a cash dividend), in furnishing additional equipment to the road, and improving its road-bed. The President of the Company, in a circular to the stockholders, complains that connecting roads have not been able to receive all the business that the Michigan Central has had to give them, and he looks forward with pleasure to the completion of other new lines that will add to his road's ability to accommodate the business offered.

The range of prices for the week has been as follows: Central and Hudson, 104⅜ to 105⅝; Lake Shore, 94⅜ to 95⅞; Erie, 64 to 67⅜; Union Pacific, 34⅝ to 36⅜; Rock Island, 112⅝ to 114⅛; Del., Lack., and Western, 99⅛ to 102; C. C. and I. C., 38⅝ to 41⅛; Wabash, 73½ to 74½; Boston, Hartford, and Erie, 8½ to 10; Ohio and Mississippi, 47⅞ to 49¼; Western Union, 83⅜ to 87; Pacific Mail, 72⅛ to 74⅝. At the close on Saturday there was a more buoyant feeling than had existed during the earlier part of the week, but it was manifested in only a few speculative favorites like Erie, Western Union, and Boston, Hartford, and Erie, which all closed at the highest point of the day and week.

The united syndicates have published all the details of the negotiation of the 300,000,000 new 5 per cents which the public are expected to require, and on Tuesday the books of subscription will be opened here and in London, and remain open for three days only. Everything looks favorable to the success of the loan, especially in London, where so many of the old bonds, which will be paid off, are held. Before the present number of the *Nation* is published, it will be pretty well ascertained whether the new bonds will be taken. Meantime, we wish the agents success in their negotiations. The market for Governments has been strong. Prices are all up to and above par in gold. The Treasury was unable to obtain the $1,000,000 5-20s advertised for on Wednesday, only $208,900 being offered at 113 70 to 113 99. The amount accepted was $169,350 at 113 70 to 113 74¾. The price of gold at the time the offers were made was 114.

Beyond some transactions in Tennessee, Southern State bonds have been dull, and only a small amount of business was done in those of other States.

The market for good railroad bonds will be much benefited if the new Government 5 per cents are successfully negotiated, and the probability of their being all taken has already imparted to the market a stronger feeling. Next to a Government bond, there can be no safer investment than a first-mortgage railroad bond, provided that the road is bonded only to a reasonable extent, say $15,000 per mile or under, and that the railroad on which the bonds are issued is located so as to command business at all times. An intelligent examination into the following facts will be of great benefit to investors: The length of road, amount of bonds, amount of stock, amount of money *paid* upon the stock, character of managers, condition of rolling stock (and whether it belongs to the road, or is owned by an inside "ring" and rented out to the road), condition of road-bed, and likelihood of business when completed. All of these questions are of importance to investors in making purchases, and a closer investigation of the actual condition of the different companies that have placed bonds upon this and the European markets would have prevented the "floating" of such loans as the Rockford, Rock Island, and St. Louis Railroad Company and others that we could mention.

The gold market is weaker, in consequence of the favorable outlook for the syndicate operations. The shipments for the week amounted to $591,579, making the total for the year $7,402,734, against $1,542,344 for the same period in 1872, $3,405,523 in 1871, $2,932,695 in 1870, $3,788,603 in 1869, and $8,983,833 in 1868.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1873.

The Week.

MR. B. F. BUTLER has overreached himself with his Salary Bill by trying to tack it on to the Miscellaneous Appropriation Bill, and thus prevent direct debate on it. A motion for this purpose was therefore defeated with the aid of those who are favorable to the scheme on its merits. The Louisiana Committee of Investigation has reported that the votes in that State at the late election were not counted by anybody who had a legal right to do so, and Louisiana will therefore probably contribute nothing to the decision of the Electoral College. Except the passage of the bill in the Senate providing for the distribution of the *Alabama* damages by commissioners, and the return of Oakes Ames with his "memorandum book," there is little other news of importance from Washington. It seems more and more likely that nothing will be done at present about the *Alabama* damages, and that the money will pass into the Treasury and lie there indefinitely. Under the decision of both Houses, that the United States receive it in absolute ownership, there is no good reason why it should not; but about the effect of the performance on the national reputation there can, unhappily, be no doubt. Coming close on the Crédit Mobilier affair, one hardly knows what to say about it that can make it either look worse or better.

To complete the account of the Crédit Mobilier investigation, it ought not to be forgotten that one of the most curious features connected with it was the fate of J. B. Stewart, a stubborn witness, who refused to tell the Wilson Committee what he did with a quarter of a million of dollars given him by the Union Pacific Railroad in June, 1864—about the time when the act was passed by Congress making the Government loan a second instead of a first mortgage. Mr. Stewart—who is described as "sometimes of New York and sometimes of Washington, a lawyer of some prominence, a lobbyist of skill and daring, nearly seven feet in height, with an immense frame and an erect carriage," but of "slow and deliberate movements"—declined to tell the Committee anything about this money, notwithstanding that he had already before the Committee admitted the receipt of it; his manner was "defiant," while that of the Committee was "considerate and forbearing." His reason for refusing to testify was the "privilege of counsel," and although he was assured in the most gentlemanly way that this did not protect him, he remained as stubborn as ever, and would disclose nothing, though in a negative way his testimony pointed to "newspaper proprietors" as the recipients of some, at least, of the money. Mr. Stewart by this means has succeeded in getting himself brought with much solemnity before the bar of the House for contempt, in making an oration on the liberties of the subject and constitutional rights, and finally in being committed to the custody of the Sergeant-at-Arms, in which he will languish till the 4th of March, when he will proceed to business again. Throughout the whole affair no one has cut a better figure than J. B. Stewart.

The Wilson Committee has been examining the books of the Union Pacific Company in Boston; but the testimony of B. F. Ham, who is described as the auditor of the railroad and secretary of the Crédit Mobilier, as it appears in the newspapers, is so unintelligible that we must probably wait for the Committee's report before being able to unravel it. One of the things which the auditor undertook to explain was the loss of a quantity of Union Pacific bonds, now missing a long time. This loss is always described in the testimony as "shortage," the securities used up having been so great in amount, and having been sent round the country so much, "carried" and "placed" and "put up" and "deposited" to such a degree, that they gradually came to be regarded in the office of the Company as being in bulk, like wheat or oats, and liable to the same sort of vicissitudes; as for example, that of being on arrival found "short" in quantity—as lawyers say, "by the act of God." The shortage to which we refer is thus explained by Mr. Ham. In March, 1869, he was told to "lock up his safe and leave New York until he was sent for"; he did not return until July, when, on "making up his account, he discovered the shortage; large amounts had been deposited in various places as collateral, prior to his departure, and every effort had been made since to discover the holder of the missing bonds, without success." "The coupons," however, "were regularly presented and paid," and it seems impossible to avoid believing that the strenuous efforts made to discover the holder were something like those made by the younger Weller to discover and identify the elder Weller, when engaged in proceedings in contempt of court, in the trial of *Bardell* v. *Pickwick*.

Senator Pomeroy has made "the explanation" which our Washington correspondent says was looked for with so much curiosity. As might have been expected, it consists of a flat denial of everything, followed by a demand for a "Committee of Investigation"; and a committee has accordingly been appointed. As only seventeen working days of the session remain, and as the witnesses have to be brought from Kansas, and as Mr. Pomeroy returns into private life and thus passes beyond the jurisdiction of the Senate on the 4th of March next, it is pretty certain there will be no investigation whatever, and we greatly fear "the Christian statesman" knows this very well. However, let us be thankful that the rays of his piety will hereafter only illumine the immediate vicinity of his own home.

There has at last been an open breach between Mayor Havemeyer and the Republican Committee apropos of the new charter, and we are sorry to say that it does not seem to have been marked by much discretion on his part. Few thinking men not "inside politics" doubt the soundness of his position, but as long as the Custom-house publicists have the power of doing mischief, it was unwise to break with them openly, except in the last extremity. He chose for it, too, a very unfortunate occasion, viz., a visit of encouragement or condolence paid to him by the chiefs of the "Liberal Republican" party in this city, headed by General John Cochrane. If the General and his coadjutors be any more estimable politicians than Mr. Tom Murphy and his coadjutors, the public has not yet reached any such conclusion. The Mayor's *mot*, however, that the Custom-house publicists "pass the night gambling to cheat each other, and the day intriguing to cheat the public," was, apart from its possible effect on city politics, very happy, and has been received with considerable gusto by the community. Things at this writing go badly with the charter. The Republicans seem steadfast in insisting on making the Mayor share the appointing power with the Board of Aldermen, which will of course make the reform movement an utter sham, and give us two or three years hence the old jobbing.

The miscarriage of the Tweed trial still continues to be a prominent topic of discussion. Everybody agrees that it was the jury that did it, but the question in dispute is how the jury came to be what it was. We are informed that the bad characters on the jury were challenged by the prosecution, but the challenges, under the present law, being passed on by triers, and not as in the United States Courts by the judge, they failed. The panel for the Tweed trial, too, was only drawn the day before the opening, and not, as is the ordinary panel, fourteen days before, so that there was no time for enquiry as to the persons found on it. It is alleged that the Sheriff summoned only the bad characters, and failed to summon most of

the good ones, but it appears that the "bummer" who served was never summoned at all, but came to court of his own accord. The form the charge against Douglas Taylor, the Commissioner of Jurors, takes is, that although his duty is simply to make up the list of persons liable to jury duty and pass it to the Sheriff, nevertheless, as he has discretion in the matter of selection, he corruptly put on four or five thousand say of the class known to be favorable to Tweed, thus creating a probability that ten or more of them would turn up on every panel of one hundred. We see the Commissioner threatens to meet this charge by a prosecution, and we think he ought to do so. A man in his position cannot afford to lie quiet under suspicion of this kind. Tweed will be retried again before long, and we trust with greater precautions as to the jury. Although the penalty is only one year's imprisonment and a small fine, by multiplying the indictments the old "Boss" can be shut up for a good part of the remainder of his life.

The great strike in South Wales and the Russian advance in Central Asia are the two most prominent topics of English news. The strike continues, and is likely to continue, neither side showing the slightest sign of yielding. The colliers who are striking under the orders of their union enjoy the great advantage of having only 10,000 men to support, while keeping 60,000 more iron-workers out of work also. The iron-masters have thus far had the advantage in argument, as they have been able to show that they were only receiving nine pounds a ton for iron when the men thought they were receiving twelve pounds ten shillings; but the men met this by the declaration that their profits were nevertheless large enough to permit the payment of the old rates of wages, and that, at all events, this was a good opportunity to settle all questions in dispute between them and their employers. They desire, in particular, either arbitration or co-operative partnerships; that is, a concession to the workmen of a share in the profits. The masters, however, refuse resolutely to concede either demand, and their objections have been put forward with considerable force by Mr. Laing, a well-known authority. He cites two cases to illustrate the difficulties of any such arrangement. One is the Brighton Railroad, which for years paid 6 per cent. dividend, out of which arbitrators would probably have ordered 1 per cent. to be divided between capital and labor as "extra profits." It was discovered, however, that the dividends were really paid out of the capital, and during the ensuing four years there were no dividends, or only about one-half of one per cent. During all the time, however, the employees received the highest rates of wages. The second is the case of a Welsh iron company, a concern which for several years was worked at a loss, and ruined two sets of proprietors; the third has made it pay; but during all this time great buildings and machinery were put up, and the men were paid high wages—the difficulties and losses of the capitalists in no way affecting them. And now comes the most striking part of his story, which is worth the serious attention of all who are interested in the labor problem. When the price of iron rose, wages had to be raised 30 per cent., and the company were making great exertions to finish contracts taken at the old rates, so as to be able to take work at the advanced prices. For these two reasons, it was of the last importance to them to increase their production. But the effect of the advance of wages was to diminish production. The more the men received, the less they worked, so that the yield of the mine actually fell off from 44,000 tons a year to 36,000, while the interest on capital and the cost of machinery and horses and the rent and salaries remained the same.

About the Russian difficulty in Central Asia but little as yet is positively known. Count Shuvaloff has returned from St. Petersburg, after, it is said, a "friendly interchange of views," but without inducing the British Minister to depart from his position. What this position is has not been explicitly stated, but it would appear to be an expression of determination to maintain at all hazards the independence of Afghanistan and Persia. To make this effective, however, the Afghan frontier on the north has to be defined, and this will be the point on which there will be difficulty, if any arises. Afghanistan has not hitherto had any northern frontier, but has been separated from the khanates by a sort of debatable land or march in which nobody ruled, and caravans provided for their own protection. An alarm was raised by the English press a few weeks ago by the announcement that a secret treaty had been concluded between Persia and Russia, by which Russia had been allowed to erect a fortress on the Attrak, in Khorassan, on Persian soil. The Persian Ambassador writes to the London *Times* denying the existence of any such treaty, and the *Pall Mall Gazette* asks how then the existence of the fort is accounted for. The importance of this matter is due to the fact that in the opinion of many it is not by way of Afghanistan and the mountains that British India has reason to fear the Russian advance, but through Persia and down the Gulf, which, however, appears tolerably wild. It would seem that the British would be well satisfied if Russia would take the Amu River as her northern frontier, which she would perhaps be disposed to do as far as it runs west, but not beyond the northern bend at Kilif. The Russian press has been ordered to maintain strict silence on the whole matter, but the decree did not come till it had spoken out its mind, which is bellicose. The expedition beyond Khiva was at the last advices on the point of starting, was to consist of 12,000, in three columns, under the command of General Kauffman, and was made up with great care. This is as large a force as can safely move across the desert. The Khivan cavalry is said to be already in the field engaged in raids.

The Committee of Thirty of the National Assembly have completed their report, and it will be presented to the Assembly by the Duc de Broglie before this reaches our readers. The work of the committee was to define the relations between the Executive and the Chamber, and more particularly to settle the mode in which he should communicate with it. The committee went to work on two projects, one prepared by a sub-committee, the other by a M. Tallon. It is useless now to give the details of the negotiation, for the work of the committee has been largely negotiation with M. Thiers; but the general result is this: The President is to have a modified veto power, which is to enable him to suspend the operation of a law for the period of two months after its passage; he is to have the right to participate in the debates of the Assembly, not simply on bills, as was at first proposed, but on "interpellations," or questions addressed to the ministers by members, and other proceedings relating to subjects of general policy, and the council of ministers is to decide when his presence at the debates is necessary; but the Assembly is to adjourn immediately after hearing him—a provision which he vigorously combated. The parties are agreed as to the necessity of a Second Chamber, but, contrary to M. Thiers' wish, the Committee refused to provide for the creation of one now, or until the present Assembly is about to dissolve—in other words, the subject is remitted to future consideration. The conclusions of the Committee seem to be generally regarded as a break with M. Thiers, and there is a good deal of public excitement. But it is difficult for a dispassionate looker-on to avoid the conclusion that the Assembly is doing about the best thing under the circumstances of the case—that is, by holding on to power, maintaining order, creating little by little the machinery of a regular government, disregarding theories, and refusing, in a word, to commit the future of France to a body of wild theorists, each with a bee in his bonnet, assembled under the name of an "Assemblée Constituante."

In the meantime, the other members of the Assembly are busy forming constitutions. The "projet Tallon" is only one of hundreds. Nearly every member has produced one, which he has printed in pamphlet form and carries in his pocket. Some members produce three or four constitutions a week, which they distribute among their friends. The principal constitutions are those of M.

Passy, the Count de Chambrun, and M. Langlois. The great difficulty with all of them is to provide a Second Chamber. M. Passy gets his Second Chamber by dividing the present Assembly into two parts. The Count de Chambrun simply says that the Second Chamber "shall have power to fill its own vacancies," but does not provide for its birth, and M. Langlois composes it of the defeated candidates at the next general election, which is the most original mode of all. Still another method is suggested in the last *Revue des Deux Mondes*, viz., the election of the Upper House by the proprietors, professional men, merchants, and military and naval officers —the lower one being elected by universal suffrage.

The news from Spain is very important. Amadeus has grown tired of his rôle, and, in spite of all entreaties, has abdicated, the Zorilla Ministry being a little too much for him. What has precipitated his action is the support given by the Ministry to a General Hidalgo, an artillery officer of the radical school, who participated in an insurrection and in the massacre of his comrades in 1866. His antecedents in short are such that no officer of any army in the world would serve under him, and when he was appointed Captain-General of the Basque Provinces last November, the artillery officers protested, and sent in their resignations, but he retired and the storm blew over. The Ministry did not give him up, however, and appointed him recently to another command in Catalonia, whereupon the artillery officers protested and resigned, and the King sided with them, but the Ministers appealed to the Cortes, and obtained a strong vote of confidence. The King not unnaturally regards this determination to disregard his wishes, not on a question of state policy, but with regard to the interests of a simple individual, and this individual a military man guilty of the worst of military offences, as an affront, which if borne quietly would make his position contemptible as well as weak. The Cortes, on the other hand, has probably been more affected by the appearance of insubordination in the army than by any other consideration, for the army is the one power in Spain which has of late held the state together, and if it cannot be depended on to obey orders, there is a good chance of regular anarchy—not the "anarchy" talked of in the newspapers, but the real thing. Nevertheless, it would be hard to say which would be most prejudicial to discipline—Hidalgo's promotion, or the success of the artillery officers in resisting it. In the meantime, the session of the Cortes has been made permanent in order to control events. As we go to press, a dispatch from General Sickles to Secretary Fish announces the nearly unanimous adoption of a republican form of government.

The Liberal party in the Prussian Diet are beginning to discover that, with all the forms of a constitution, they have not yet secured the essence of a parliamentary government; that changes in the Ministry, instead of being made in obedience to the majority in Parliament, and to represent its views, are made in the secret councils of the Ministry itself, to meet the convenience or the wishes of individual members of the Ministry, or at the option of the King; that changes so grave as the transfer of precedence and responsibility from a Liberal to a Conservative leader, and the increase of the Conservative element by the creation of an additional Minister, may be made without so much as feeling the pulse of Parliament, and without any call from either House or from the country—may be concealed from the public for days, and no explanation of their grounds be vouchsafed even in answer to an open interrogation in Parliament itself. Bismarck retires; Von Roon succeeds him; Von Kamcke, an officer of Von Roon's type, is created Second Minister of War; Conservatism comes openly to the front, and the only answer that Lasker and other Liberals get to their enquiry as to the motive of these changes and their bearing upon the measures of reform and the relations of Prussia with Germany, is the assurance of Count Eulenburg that Prince Bismarck and Count von Roon have not quarrelled, and that time will show the identity of their policy.

Whatever be the exact meaning of Bismarck's retirement, it appears to be quite certain that the change did not mean any disposition on the part of the King to give way in the contest with the Papacy. This grows more truculent, as far as the civil power is concerned, every day, and is certainly all that Bismarck could wish it or would make it. The Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs, or, as the French call it, of Public Worship, has introduced two bills into the Lower House, which are enough to make the Pope curse with redoubled energy. Since 1850, boys preparing for the Catholic priesthood have been allowed to receive their education in private schools or seminaries managed by the clergy, and at the university have been kept in ecclesiastical boarding-houses, and pursued their studies under ecclesiastical superintendence, and the examination at the close of the course was in the hands of the bishops. All this will be changed by the new bill. Boys going into the priesthood will have to attend the public schools, and at the university to follow the general course, or, if they live in Catholic colleges, will have to be examined by state officers in the classics, philosophy, history, and natural sciences, before being allowed to take a pastoral charge. But sterner than all are the provisions made to protect the priests thus educated from undue coercion at the hands of the bishop. No priest can be appointed to a charge without the approval of the Government; no priest can retain a clerical office after a civil tribunal has sentenced him to deprivation of it; no priest can be sent by his bishop to any penitentiary in which the penance is anything severer than prayer; and no priest can be detained in any such establishment against his will. If a priest is deposed by his bishop for obeying the civil law, he will have his action at law for redress, and the bishop will be obliged to fill his place with somebody of whom the Government shall approve, within one year, on pain of 1,000 thalers. Moreover, to show that he means fight, Bismarck has written to the *Staats-Anzeiger*, under his own name, informing the public that he has had to expose a nobleman at court for indulging in Ultramontane intrigues.

The order of the Prussian Government prohibiting the publication of the Pope's Allocution in Germany, and confiscating the journals in which a translation appeared, is known to have emanated from the King himself, who could not brook the idea of being accused before his subjects of ignorance, impudence, and infidelity. The personal relations of King William with the Pope had always been of a friendly character, and in formers years letters had passed between them in a spirit of good-will. The fierce and coarse denunciations of the Vatican wounded the sensibilities of the Emperor, and hence the order, the effect of which has been to acquaint every reader of a Prussian newspaper with the fact that the Pope had been saying something about the King so very naughty that the King was not willing to have it published, or so very strong that he was afraid to have it come to the knowledge of his subjects. It would be strange if such a prohibition did not stimulate curiosity, and if Romish priests could not find ways enough to elude the censorship in conveying to their flocks the pith of the Allocution in the homeliest German. Had the Allocution been left to the free discussion of the pulpit and the press the pride of the nation might have been roused against this insult to its head, and the Pope have been made to feel the shafts of ridicule, to which he is quite as sensitive as King William is to abuse. But this would argue a measure of freedom in the press for which Prussia is not yet prepared. The prohibition of the German version of the Allocution and the seizure of journals which published it, were covered by acts of Parliament under the provision of the Constitution; and multitudes of intelligent and liberal Prussians regard the daily censorship of the press—every journal being required to submit to the police an early copy of every number—as their own protection against abusive personalities, and the protection of the public from scandals and from spurious and sensational news. In this case, however, the Prussian censor has put a new weapon into the hands of the Pope, and he will strike again where he sees that his blows are felt.

SOME COMPARISONS OF SALARIES.

THE Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives has reported a bill for the increase of certain salaries. These are the President's to $50,000, the Vice-President's and Secretaries' to $10,000, the Judges of the Supreme Court to $10,000, and that of Members of Congress to $8,000. The proposition is designed to seem fair on its face by being made to look like an even distribution between the three departments of the Government, but a moment's examination will show it to be one of those shallow artifices that so often come up in Congressional legislation.

The only objection that any one ever raises to an ordinary increase of salaries is that it will to that extent deplete the Treasury. Let us now see to what extent this proposed distribution of justice or generosity will affect the Treasury. The account will stand thus:

For nine Executive Officers, $41,000 per annum.

For nine Judicial Officers, $18,000 per annum.

For 367 Members and Delegates, $1,101,000 per annum.

Does this device really explain the unprecedented alacrity with which the House abolished the franking privilege? Is it a little bill to be paid for that isolated item of honest legislation?

An increase of Congressional pay brought forward at a proper time and kept within due proportions, very few persons who know anything about the expenses of living in great cities will object to; but we shall now endeavor to show that this proposed increase made at this time is beyond any decent approximation to what is reasonable, and that if the power of Congressmen to increase their own pay is allowed to run on unchecked, it will grow from a national scandal into a national danger.

The Constitution invests Congress with unlimited power to fix the pay of its members, or, to state the case more bluntly, gives the members unlimited power to fix their own pay. If we were remaking the Constitution now, we should in all likelihood limit this power in some way; but at the time the Constitution was made, such a limitation was deemed and was, in fact, altogether needless. The members of the First Congress, controlled and led by members of the Convention, spoke of the duty of establishing their own compensation as a most delicate and even painful duty. When they had enacted laws for the organization of the Executive Departments, the collection of the revenue, the government of the Northwest Territory, the registration of vessels, and had substantially agreed upon the well-known judiciary act, the amendments to the Constitution, and the pay of everybody else, they fixed their own modest compensation at $6 a day. We use the term "modest," not in relation to the value of $6 a day in these times, but in comparison with every other salary which the First Congress established. There was a sharp debate upon motion to reduce the amount to $5, and the committee which reported in favor of $6 explained that they had ascertained the pay allowed by the States to their delegates in the Confederate Congress, and had "struck an average," which was about $5 50, and taken it as their criterion. When the bill went to the Senate an amendment was made in it allowing senators $7. But so scrupulous were the men of that day in legislation which concerned themselves, that it was provided that this discriminating dollar a day should not begin until after the expiration of six years, that is to say, until the term of every senator who voted upon it should have expired.

What, then, was the pay which our first legislators assigned to themselves—which must be taken as the unit of comparison for all the other salaries that they established, and for all the changes that have been made since? It was $6 a day (without the franking privilege) for the three most laborious and arduous sessions that have ever been held, summing up five hundred and twenty days, and giving as a result only $1,560 a year. But even this result was too large for a precedent; for the First Congress had much more work to do, and of a more perplexing kind than was expected to fall upon its successors. The Second held but two sessions, footing up three hundred and eighteen days, and giving a result of $954 a year to its members. The Fifth Congress held three laborious sessions, and advanced some salaries—among others the Comptroller's to $3,500—and yet the members received but $1,200 a year. We may therefore conclude that in the First Congress $1,000 a year was about the estimated average pay of members.

When these men who estimated the value of a Congressman at about $1,000 a year, and who certainly had sufficient brains to frame intelligible statutes, came to the consideration of other salaries than their own, they showed a statesmanship, a breadth of comprehension, that must make every American who looks back to the past blush anew for the ignorance, demagogism, and moral cowardice that now prevail in Congress. The President's salary, it was said, must be commensurate with the dignity of his high office—no citizen could desire it to be less. The committee charged with the duty of ascertaining the proper amount enquired what had been the expenses of former Presidents of Congress—the position coming nearest in dignity to the new Presidency. It was found that their expenses had varied from $7,000 to $13,000 a year. Apparently the style in which they had lived was not thought sufficiently suitable for the President of the United States, and $20,000, with furniture, servants, horses, carriages, etc., was suggested. The House determined to strike out these perquisites, and then $30,000 was proposed. This was thought too high, and was reduced to $25,000, and the furniture already purchased for the use of the President. But the enactment was avowedly an experiment—if the salary was not sufficient, it was to be increased. "No one," it was well said, "knows better how to unite dignity with economy than the illustrious person who is now President." In four years the statute expired, but was then re-enacted, so as to establish the permanent salary of the office.

But it was chiefly on the subject of judicial officers that this early statesmanship was evinced. Elbridge Gerry seemed to anticipate some modern occurrences. "Your legislature may be corrupt," he said, "and your executive aspiring; but a firm, independent judiciary will stop the course of devastation—at least it will shield individuals from rapine and injustice." Some of the remarks incidentally show the moderation of professional incomes in those days, which to a certain extent must have furnished a standard for the judicial salaries. Fisher Ames said that, speaking for the four New England States, $1,500 a year for the Chief-Justice of the United States "would be an object sufficient to excite the attention of men of the first abilities in those States." Mr. Vining said: "There are many gentlemen in the practice of the law whose abilities command a greater income than $3,000 per annum; can it be expected that such persons will relinquish their lucrative professions merely for serving the United States?" With such statements as these before them, Congress fixed the salary of the Chief-Justice at $4,000, and of the Judges at $3,500—*the avowed purpose being to secure the most eminent lawyers by paying more than they could make in their private practice.*

Let us now look at the proceedings of the last seven years. In 1855 the salary of the Judges of the Supreme Court was fixed at $6,000, and in 1856 that of members at $3,000. Since then Congress have raised their own pay *sixty-six* per cent. (in 1866), and that of the Supreme Court *thirty-three* per cent. (in 1871). The next move proposed by the Judiciary Committee is to increase the former from its present rate *sixty* per cent., and the latter *twenty-five* per cent. We thus have on the one side an advancement at the rate of sixty-six per cent. and sixty per cent. against thirty-three per cent. and twenty-five per cent. How long will it be at this rate before the whole body of three hundred and sixty-seven members and delegates will be receiving higher pay than the Chief-Justice of the United States?

But it is not only the extent of this disproportionate advance and its significant rapidity; the manner of it must also awaken some apprehension. In 1856, the judicial salaries had been first raised, and the measure to increase the pay of Congress was brought forward in a separate bill standing upon its own merits. In 1866,

the measure was sprung upon the public as an amendment to some other bill; it was coupled with some meritorious matter, and it was introduced by a doubly dangerous arrangement in which the two opposing parties nefariously agreed to silence the political press by equally sharing the infamy. The new project is in like manner coupled with a proposition to increase the pay of an officer whose present salary dates back to the first year of the Government, and of judges whose responsibilities exceed those of any other tribunal in the world, but whose pay is about what this city gives to a justice of the peace.

There are two conclusive reasons, if no more, why the pay of Congressmen should never approach the pay of our judges; first, because their great numbers will make the aggregate of high pay a serious drain upon the Treasury; second, because the laws of the United States forbid the judges to engage in other avocations, and require the sacrifice of their entire time. Of members of Congress there is no such exaction. Mr. Dawes keeps open his law-office in Pittsfield, and runs home after adjournment to argue cases. Senator Carpenter receives for a week's work in the Supreme Court as much as the annual pay of each judge who decides his cases. General Butler has brains enough—we have his word for it—to make two or three incomes outside of Congress. Mr. Oakes Ames could win the admiration of his countrymen by building the Pacific Railroad. An increase of Congressional pay may come, but it must come last, and by itself. And if the trick of 1866 be attempted of throwing half of the blame on the Democratic members, we trust it will awaken the public mind to the fact that the party in power is responsible for the legislation of Congress, and that it should never be allowed to transfer that responsibility to the minority.

THE IMBROGLIO IN CENTRAL ASIA.

THE upshot of the negotiations which have been pending for the last three years between Russia and Great Britain seems likely to be that Russia will capture Khiva, and if she evacuates it after having liberated her subjects held in slavery, and exacted proper guarantees against outrages on them in future, England will abstain from remonstrance or interference; but that if Russia should see fit to stay at Khiva, which is not at all unlikely, inasmuch as it is very difficult of access, she will be called on to draw the line which is to mark the limits of her advance, for the present at least, on the south. That she will engage in a conflict with England in India, just now, there is little likelihood. It is with difficulty she can push even 12,000 men over the desert to Khiva, or anywhere south of it. England can meet her with 100,000 men who are longing for active service, and who would have behind them the resources of a vast and populous empire. It is, therefore, most probable that the difficulty about the frontier will be amicably arranged; but the Russian advance in Asia will, nevertheless, continue to be an event of immense importance, and one likely to exert great influence on the whole Mussulman world.

There is probably nothing in modern history more curious and interesting than the part which the populations of the mysterious, and until within the last thirty years little known, table-land on which Russia is now operating have played in the affairs of the more civilized nations around them. Although, properly considered, a vast desert, it appears for two thousand years at least to have been the source from which great swarms of men flowed in every direction. The uneasiness of the German tribes under the Roman Empire, and the impulse which finally carried them over the border, are supposed to have been due to the pressure from behind of the mounted hordes of Central Asia, and in the first historical glimpse we get of the modern world we find the Tartars raiding in every direction in great multitudes. They overwhelmed eastern Europe and pushed across the French frontier in the ninth century, and during the following five centuries they contrived to overrun Russia and Hungary every two or three years in vast hosts. Under Timour they descended into India, captured Delhi, and founded a Tartar empire, which extended from the frontiers of China to the Mediterranean, and from the Frozen Sea to Cape Comorin, fighting great battles, and suffering tremendous losses, apparently without in the least degree diminishing their resources, either in men, horses, or courage. In fact, combined with the Turks, who are only another branch of the same great family, they may be said to have been for five or six hundred years the scourge and terror of Christendom. They have within the last two centuries been gradually driven back and cooped up by the growth of Western science, and nothing that one now sees, either of them or their country, reveals the secret of the great organizations which conquered under Genghis Khan and his successors. In fact, they, rather than the Jews, constitute the great "Asian mystery."

They did not lose their fanaticism with their aggressive power, however, and the old faith, which underwent obscuration by the conquests of the British in India and the subjection of Stamboul to European influences, continued to burn as brightly as ever at Bokhara and Samarcand. Until within twenty years no infidel could enter those cities, except in disguise or as a slave, without danger to his life; and from this quarter, as well as from Central Arabia, devout Mussulmans have drawn much of the inspiration which has within the present century produced the great Mohammedan revival, of the strength and reality of which there appears no longer to be any doubt. The Russian conquests are mainly interesting to the Western world in view of their probable effects on the progress of this remarkable movement, although it will doubtless have an important influence on trade also, by opening up both new markets and new sources of supply in certain natural products—cotton, for instance.

We gave some account of the Mohammedan revival in India when reviewing Mr. Hunter's book on the troubles in that country, some months ago. There it has given, and continues to give, the Government great anxiety, particularly as it derives a good deal of stimulus from the reduction of the Mussulmans from the position of a ruling caste to one of equality before the law, as well as from the Wahabee crescentade in the beginning of the present century. But it has been going on actively in Turkey also, where it has been fed by a steady flow of Mussulman immigration from the Russian territory both on the shores of the Caspian and of the Black Sea. There is hardly a doubt that the effect of conquest on the people of the three khanates of Central Asia will also be a considerable intensification of faith, and that their subjection to the infidel, by restoring their long-severed communication with the rest of the Mussulman world, will cause a great quickening of zeal through the whole of Islam. The tide has undoubtedly turned in Turkey, in spite of the growth of "modern improvements" at Constantinople and of the waning of the Mussulman population of the European provinces. On the Asiatic side there has been a veritable revival. Within twenty-five years mosques have been built and repaired to an extent unknown for a whole century. The schools established for all denominations have been slowly but steadily monopolized by the Turks; there has been a great diminution of drinking and other infidel practices and a great increase of rigidity on the part of all classes in the observances of the Mussulman ceremonial. Prayers have not for a hundred years been so numerously and punctually attended, nor the Mussulman colleges so crowded with young men. Moreover, the foreigners who swarmed in all branches of the public service almost ever since the beginning of Mahmoud's reforms, have been slowly but surely pushed out, and their places taken by true believers of the ancient race. It has been observed, too, that the old beys and their sons, who built up the Turkish Empire and spread the terror of the crescent up to the walls of Vienna, begin to take service once more in the army. In other words, there are signs, and not a few, that though the Orientals take our machinery and rifles freely enough, they do not take our ideas, and that the East is still nearly as impervious to Western thought as it was when the Romans sought to absorb or assimilate it—when, as the poet says:

"The brooding East with awe beheld
Her impious younger world.
The Roman tempest swell'd and swell'd,
And on her head was hurl'd.

"The East bow'd low before the blast
In patient, deep disdain;
She let the legions thunder past,
And plunged in thought again."

What impression Christendom, with its jangle of contending creeds, and lukewarm and sceptical professors, its confusion of thought and practice on all questions of morality, the total want of stability in all its systems and organizations, and its growing devotion to material ends and aims, can oppose to this revival, remains to be seen. Probably very little. When it worsted the Mussulman before, it worsted him with a faith as fiery as his own, but that contest cannot be fought over again. Islam can never again be a temporal dominion, because science has come to the aid of the infidel; but it may possibly show in its subject state how much it suffered from its temporal successes, and what wonders it can work in adversity. Indeed, it is hard to see with what weapons the Western world can assail a creed which contains nothing but the assertion "that there is no God but God, and that God alone is great," and whose disciples are willing to die for it. There are weak points in Mahomet's history, it is true, but he owes his greatness in the eyes of his followers to his having been chosen to preach the simplest of all forms of theological belief.

INVESTIGATIONS AND INTRIGUES.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 8, 1873.

BUT for Pomeroy's ignominious downfall in Kansas, the last fortnight could scarcely have satisfied the morbid appetite for scandalous revelations which seems to have seized upon political society here. The proceedings of the two Crédit Mobilier Committees were comparatively dull. The refusal of "Joe Stewart" to testify, based upon the plea that an attorney may bribe Congressmen, and then screen himself behind his professional character and "fiduciary capacity," and the failure of the Hon. Job Stevenson, who evidently was in too great a hurry "to catch the Speaker," served indeed to relieve the monotony a little; but Pomeroy was the great feature of the day. His discomfiture was a sweet morsel which everybody enjoyed, except, perhaps, Mr. Harlan and General Howard, who had so emphatically vouched for Mr. Pomeroy as a pure patriot, a Christian statesman, a truly good man, and a self-sacrificing benefactor of the human species. Mr. Harlan still gives vent to his dissatisfaction with this bad world in his paper, describing in articles overflowing with high morality the depraved character of "that man Yorke" who seduced the good Pomeroy to bribe him, and then, as the base instrument of a wicked conspiracy, betrayed the generous confidence of the unsuspecting and much persecuted victim. That there was a "conspiracy" nobody doubts, but it is also thought that such conspiracies are utterly harmless to candidates for the Senate who do not buy votes with bribes; and there is a touch of humor in Pomeroy's case which cannot fail to be appreciated. Such men as Colfax and Patterson are profoundly pitied by almost everybody, and when Gen. Butler, in his brutal way, in debate recently alluded to Mr. Garfield as one of the dead, he only excited the disgust of his hearers, for Butler is certainly not the man to sit in judgment on other people's morality. But when the news arrived that the old bird Pomeroy had gone into a trap which, from his familiar knowledge of such things, he ought to have seen through, there was a broad laugh all over town, and people seemed inclined to congratulate each other on the fact that knaves will sometimes be greater fools than honest men. There is an impression spreading that the hand of fate is upon the rascals, pushing them on with irresistible power to self-destruction. Indeed, the conduct of most of those who are to-day disgraced and ruined men was such as to make one believe that they were not in their senses. Pomeroy went lustily into the bribing business while the investigation of his colleague Caldwell's briberies was going on, and everybody had his eyes wide open; and those who had taken Crédit Mobilier stock, knowing that Oakes Ames had it in his power to expose them, and knowing also that he desired to "let them off" if they only permitted him to do so, annoyed and irritated and drove him with their insulting insinuations and assertions, until finally he was forced in self-defence to bring forward the proof which crushed them. Their worst enemies could not have managed their cases more disastrously for them than they did it themselves. Some of them have at last learned wisdom enough to hold their tongues, but Mr. Colfax seems resolved to try his fortune once more, while here scarcely anybody doubts that such an attempt will only more deeply involve him. Mr. Pomeroy arrived a few days ago, and shut himself up with his sorrows; but it is announced that he will soon appear in the Senate and "explain everything," a performance which is looked forward to with great curiosity.

It is now rumored that the Senate Committee which investigated the Caldwell Bribery Case will produce two reports, one signed by the majority, headed by Mr. Morton and supported by Mr. Trumbull, in favor of punishing—probably expelling—Caldwell, and a minority report exonerating him, to be championed by Mr. Carpenter, who seems determined to add to the unenviable notoriety he achieved in advocating the admission of Mr. Abbot, of North Carolina, to a seat in the Senate, in spite of the undisputed fact that the latter had received only a minority of the votes in the legislature. The special committee appointed to investigate the charges against senators, based upon the testimony taken by the Crédit Mobilier committees of the House, is not expected to do much. The senators composing it are known as very honorable but mild-tempered gentlemen, who are not likely to be very severe in their treatment of a fellow-senator as long as they can possibly avoid it. The committee was appointed by Senator Anthony, the President *pro tempore* of the Senate, who is believed to be rather averse to harsh proceedings. No report will probably be had until immediately before the expiration of this Congress, when all whose names appeared in the Crédit Mobilier investigation, except Mr. Logan, will escape from the jurisdiction of the Senate, and the matter may be suffered to disappear in the hurly-burly of the last days of the session. The special committee which investigated Mr. Clayton's proceedings in Arkansas remains also mysteriously silent. The Republican majority in the Senate does not appear very eager to vindicate the honor of that body.

The steamship-subsidy jobs are killed, for this season at least. After the defeat of the Australian line in the Senate, it is not likely that another scheme of the same kind will be passed. The chances of the internal improvement jobs, some of which will come up in the House on February 13, when the Committee on Commerce has leave to report, are equally poor. The advocates of the postal-telegraph scheme are also reported to be in a despondent frame of mind, and will probably not attempt to push it now. But all these things are merely adjourned, not given up. They will reappear next winter, when it is expected that the fit of virtue which the Crédit Mobilier investigation has brought forth will have spent itself. But the bill to raise the salaries of the President, the members of the Cabinet, the judges of the Supreme Court, and the members of Congress, which was a few days ago reported by Gen. Butler from the House Committee on the Judiciary, is continually gaining strength. Its advocates count already upon a majority of votes in the House of Representatives. In the Senate the proposition was twice brought forward in a less complete shape by Mr. Hill from Georgia, and was bashfully voted down by large majorities. But it is thought that, when the same thing appears again in the more respectable form of a bill already adopted by the House, the number of senators who will overcome their scruples will not be small. It is very doubtful, however, whether it can pass. If we could have honest legislation at that price, it would be a profitable investment; but to give us that will require other things than a mere raising of salaries. Mr. Sherman's specie payment and free banking bill will come up again on Senator Stevenson's motion to reconsider the vote laying it on the table. That motion will probably carry, and it is then not unlikely that the bill will pass the Senate. The vote, however, will be very close, and nothing can be predicted with certainty. As I am informed, its defeat was not owing to a combination of hostile interests, to which it was ascribed by some newspapers. The strongest "interest," that of the banks, is rather in its favor. But the opposition arose from a general apprehension that the scheme would not only not accomplish the object for which it is professedly designed, but might lead to fluctuations and abuses worse than those under which the business interests of the country are now suffering. Even if the bill should carry in the Senate, it would in all probability fail in the House. There are many who are earnestly in favor of as speedy a return to specie payments as possible, but will not support a plan so uncertain in its effects.

The regular business of the session is so little advanced that it will require an extraordinary effort to dispose of it before the 4th of March. It is said that some members of the House are systematically retarding its progress for the purpose of rendering an extra session necessary. This design is particularly ascribed to a Democratic leader, who thinks that by continuing the investigations now and during the recess the majority party can be severely injured, and to General Butler, who believes things in a favorable condition to defeat Mr. Blaine for the speakership, to get a speaker of his own making, and to establish himself as the leader of the new House of Representatives, the investigations having "killed off" almost all the prominent

men among the old members. I have some reasons for believing that such schemes exist. But it is also certain that a large majority of the Republicans, as well as of the opposition, desire to adjourn on the 4th of March, the former because after the unpleasant experiences of the last two months they want to have some breathing time, and the latter because they think that the situation as it stands is favorable enough, and should be left to develop itself. There seems to be a disinclination on both sides to disturb by partisan demonstrations that sort of good feeling which has sprung from the curious circumstance that, after the opposition had been defeated in the Presidential election, the victorious party began to destroy itself. This circumstance has imparted a peculiarly mild and conciliatory tone to the intercourse of the men who but a few months ago so fiercely assailed one another, and may be of good influence when new ideas come up for discussion. But if an extra session should be called, which, although improbable, is by no means impossible, nobody knows how long it will last, and what may happen before its close.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, January 24, 1873.

THE chief topic of conversation during the last fortnight has been the death of the Emperor Napoleon. On the strength of the good old maxim about speaking no evil of the dead, the papers have, as a rule, said much more in his favor and indulged in much less hostile criticism than would have been thought becoming a fortnight ago. I need not consider the propriety of their conduct, as the whole matter falls rather beyond my province. The same maxim, however, has been invoked in behalf of two Englishmen of mark who have died within the last week. The friends of Dr. Lushington indeed had little cause for appealing to our compassion. He had long outlived all the animosities which may have been provoked by his early career as a strenuous partisan of the old Radicals. Born in the year when England acknowledged the independence of the United States, he was universally respected as a venerable link to a past generation. His last act was to travel from a considerable distance to Oxford in order to record his vote in favor of Dean Stanley's nomination as a select preacher. With him dies the last hope of obtaining any new information as to the history of Lord Byron's domestic difficulties. He might have given important evidence for or against Mrs. Stowe's narrative; and it has been suggested that the death of the persons chiefly interested should have released him from the pledge of secrecy. I, for one, am grateful for his reticence; I fancy that the world can get on pretty well without stirring up the unsavory scandals of the past, however grievous may be the lamentations of Dryasdust. Our other loss makes a more sensible gap to the general public. Lord Lytton died suddenly the other day, and has been the subject of innumerable eulogies from the daily press. Of course such praises are apt to be pitched in too high a key; and yet it is impossible to deny that Lord Lytton was a man of very remarkable and very varied powers. He had the art, whatever it may be, of success. The last illustration of his power is curious. It turns out that he was the author of 'The Coming Race,' a fact which was so carefully concealed that, though I have heard much speculation on the subject, I do not know that I ever heard it given to Lord Lytton. Many authors of reputation would find it a very dangerous experiment to publish their last book anonymously; but Lord Lytton certainly showed, in this instance, that the popularity of his later works was not due to the prestige of his name. And yet, whilst we are all lamenting his loss, and admitting that he fully deserves the honor of a burial in Westminster Abbey, one cannot but feel that there was something hollow in his reputation. He was scarcely one of the writers of whom one could predict with any confidence that they are likely to reach posterity. Amongst his other titles to fame, he was a fairly successful politician, and had a considerable reputation as an orator. I happened to hear what must have been nearly his last performance in that capacity, a speech on the last Reform Bill. The House was crowded and deeply attentive, and everybody came away convinced that we had been listening to an excellent piece of rhetoric. The sentences were admirably polished, and imbued with a certain scholarlike flavor. It was a good set speech, fully realizing one's traditional notions of parliamentary eloquence, and yet, in any higher sense, it was not really a speech at all. Not only did it belong to the species of oratory which never turns a vote—for in that species are certainly included ninety-nine out of a hundred in all the best speeches uttered in Parliament—but it was curiously devoid of any contagious influence. It had the frigidity of a calculated work of art; it had the form but none of the fire of genuine rhetoric; and for all practical purposes we might as well have been listening to an essay from Addison's 'Spectator' read by a well-trained elocutionist. The same defect seems to me to be characteristic of all his productions. They might be used by a judicious lecturer as an excellent illustration of the difference between talent and genius. That he was full of talent is as undeniable as that he had turned it to the very best account; but I fancy that one might read through all his novels and plays and poems and essays without meeting a single instance of those sudden illuminating flashes of thought which are characteristic of a really great writer. And thus Lord Lytton has of late enjoyed rather an anomalous reputation. His popularity has been very great, and great with a class which aspires to a certain amount of cultivation and of literary taste; but the greater part of his work has already become old-fashioned, and is regarded with considerable indifference by the critics who aspire to be our modern leaders of taste. In short, he is as distinctly below the first rank of our writers as he is above the ordinary run of literary craftsmen. We shall bury him in the Abbey, and compose a good deal of laudatory matter about him, and then, I suppose, we shall gradually settle down to a definite opinion as to his merits. I doubt very much whether, as the *Daily News* of to-day rather doubtfully suggests, he will be placed in different departments of literature beside Macaulay, Dryden, Addison, and Dickens; but, at any rate, he deserves the rare praise of having made the most of his abilities, and if any one values the result more highly than I do, I shall not quarrel with him. Lord Lytton, I may notice, was the contemporary at Cambridge of Sir Alexander Cockburn, both of whom were members of the same small college. A tradition survived there for a long time of his fame as a member of the well-known debating club, the Union, which has listened to the juvenile eloquence of a great many men distinguished in later life. It is customary to ridicule eminence in that arena, and indeed the students themselves generally have a British contempt for premature oratorical fluency. So far, however, as my experience has gone, the indication of talent thus afforded is by no means contemptible. Perhaps in a country where speech-making is more generally valued one might form a different opinion of the significance of the symptoms; but when a young Englishman overcomes his natural shyness sufficiently to talk fluently to an audience of any size, it generally shows that he has in him a good proportion of the essential qualities of vigor and self-assertion.

To turn from such questions, there are just now some serious topics for reflection. A strike is occurring in Wales which promises to take an important place in the history of the long warfare between labor and capital, from the magnitude of the interests involved and the bitterness of the feeling already produced. The iron-workers and colliers have refused to submit to a reduction of the rate of wages. The masters declare that the prices which they at present receive are insufficient to enable them to carry on business at a profit. Thereupon the men demanded an arbitration, and to this the masters have absolutely refused to consent. They say that they are willing to allow of an inspection of their books in order to prove the accuracy of their statements, but they will not, under any circumstances, continue to pay what they have hitherto been paying. The professed willingness to submit to arbitration gives a certain advantage to the men in the controversy. The masters, however, regard this offer as illusory, and believe that the men would repudiate an award unfavorable to their claims. They have firmly made up their minds, at any rate, that they cannot afford a concession, and are clear that no arbitration can convince them that they can afford it. Who is right in the dispute is a matter upon which no outsider can speak with any confidence, and I am profoundly ignorant upon the whole subject. The serious consequences of the warfare now waging are, however, obvious to everybody. The Welsh population had hitherto been rather behind the times, and this is the first case in which their industry has been affected by a strike. A great majority of the workmen do not even as yet belong to the Union, but the Unionists are able to stop the working of the collieries, without which the business cannot be carried on. Meanwhile, the men on strike are supported by the Unionists of the North of England, and the Union seems to be sufficiently prepared to carry on the struggle for a very long time to come. A large population, undeniably dependent upon them, is meanwhile reduced to misery, and there are grievous accounts of the suffering which has already been produced, and which will, of course, grow more intense as the struggle is prolonged. According to the report, most of the men thrown out of employ would be willing to accept the masters' terms, and it is said—I know not with what accuracy—that if the question could be submitted to a ballot to-morrow, there would be a great majority in favor of returning to work. However that may be, the Union succeeds in maintaining its position for the present, and even if it should be beaten in this struggle, it is generally admitted that the effect will be to increase its power in the long run, and induce outsiders to join it in the hopes of a more successful contest at some future time. In short, it seems that we are merely at the beginning of a campaign which will certainly lead to great misery for the present, and which will, in all probability, bring about increased bitterness between classes, and be prolonged for an indefinite period. We have heard so much lately from Mr.

Mundella and others of the marvellous efficacy of arbitration that this result is not a little disappointing. It looks too much as if arbitration were only possible by way of smoothing over little difficulties when both sides are convinced that some compromise is necessary. When either masters or men fairly feel that they have been backed to the wall, and that fighting is a less evil than concession, arbitration has as little influence as it has under similar circumstances in an international difficulty. Meanwhile, the outside public is beginning to realize with unpleasant distinctness that, whilst masters and men are wrangling, consumers are in all cases suffering. When the laborers at the gas-works endeavored to strike the other day, Londoners felt that no possible grievance could justify their being left in the dark; and a dispute which threatens to screw up the price of coals even above the present intolerable level comes home to everybody's hearth. Altogether, I need only say that we are beginning the new year without much promise of an increase of brotherly love.

I will only add that the education quarrel seems to be blazing up more fiercely than ever. Mr. Forster's well-meant compromise between Dissenters and Churchmen shows symptoms of breaking down in every direction. The League, who represent secular education, and the Union, who stand up for the church, are beginning to use very hard language of each other, and there are materials for a very pretty fight. A quaint illustration of the spirit of some of the school boards was afforded at Birmingham the other day, where a board was elected with a small majority of Church of England members. When they had to select teachers, the other members of the board amused themselves by cross-examining the unlucky candidates as to their religious principles. Roman Catholics and Wesleyans took turns in enquiring into the views of the teachers as to their views about the atonement, justification by faith, and other abstruse doctrines, and the result was not particularly edifying or conducive to religious harmony.

EUROPEAN OPINION ON THE DEATH OF NAPOLEON.

PARIS, January 23.

WHEN these lines reach America, the death of Napoleon will have ceased to move Europe as much as it has done during the last few days. I may, therefore, without being accused of want of discretion, and of the sad courtesy which surrounds every tomb, be allowed to make a few remarks on the character of the emotion which this event has produced in Europe. There is a very striking contrast between the attitude of France and that of her ancient allies, England, Italy, etc. The Bonapartist press is very emotional. The *Pays*, the *Ordre*, etc., appear every day surrounded with black lines, and enter into the minutest details concerning Chiselhurst; they are trying to make political capital out of the very event which for the present destroys their hopes; but there is something artificial in this very excess of descriptive power, in this attempt to rebuild a party with the promiscuous names of the Frenchmen who are now in England. The Bonapartists must feel that the Empire is gone with the Emperor, at least for many years; it was not likely that, broken as he was by the most painful illness, unable to show himself on horseback, Napoleon III. would try to make a "return from the Island of Elba," but the great mass of the French people did not know how ill he was. This illness had been very carefully concealed in 1869, when the Emperor had a terrible attack of his malady, and could only preside at the Cabinet Council in his bed. Very few people knew that at that time the Emperor was carried to the Bois de Boulogne and placed with great difficulty on a very quiet horse, in order to pass a great review of the army, which was considered a necessity. The consultation of the doctors which took place some time before the war remained a secret till the last few days. The Emperor was always so quiet, so silent, so sphinx-like that even the visitors who lately saw him at Chiselhurst did not suspect that there was under his increased apathy anything else than the sadness of defeat and exile. He was still in the people's imagination as he had appeared in the old days when he reviewed the Crimean army, or returned with the Italian army. The country could not forgive him the loss of Alsace and Lorraine, nor the humiliation of Sedan; but it cannot be denied that whenever the troubles of France became too acute, when her dissensions seemed too dreadful, when the expected saviour was called in vain, the eyes of many were secretly cast on the exile of Chiselhurst, who had shown himself able for eighteen years to struggle successfully with the spirit of revolution. The picture of Napoleon III. in various attitudes has never disappeared from the shop windows of Paris. There is in the French popular mind an innate, and what I must suppose a Celtic, disposition to give a legendary form to history, and to be drawn towards excessive misfortune as much as towards excessive prosperity. Napoleon III. had rapidly become legendary after Sedan; the dramatic incidents of his life could not be forgotten, and there was so much in it which seemed like the work of fatality that the people would perhaps have accepted any new chapter of a book which seemed written by the hand of Destiny. But the book will have no more chapters; the legend of Sedan seems already as distant as the legend of Waterloo. The two Napoleons will meet in the popular imagination, one as silent, as reticent, as melancholy as the other was ardent, fiery, and eloquent, looking like the types of two different races, seeming, however, like the instruments of the same will, both usurpers, both emperors, conquerors, both surrounded with a court of princes and kings, and finally dying on English soil. When France feels uneasy, what help can she expect from the young student of the Woolwich Academy? If the Bonapartists call him Napoleon IV., they only make us think of Napoleon II., who died so young and in exile. Will the hopes of the Bonapartist party gather round the Empress or Prince Napoleon? They are both unpopular. The Empress is justly accused of having for years advocated the war with Prussia, and to have been the soul of the military and anti-liberal party during the latter years of the Empire. Prince Napoleon has a clear intelligence, a very accurate perception of the forces now at work in Europe, and he is handsome and eloquent; but all his gifts seem to be lost in his hands. He stands somewhat in the position of the would-be usurper before the Prince Imperial his cousin; he has allowed his enemies to doubt his personal courage and to accuse him of avarice.

Notwithstanding the assurances of the Bonapartist press and the efforts of the old partisans of the Empire, it seems to me that the death of Napoleon is a crushing blow to their cause. Such is the general impression in France, and this impression might partly explain the apathy of the French public. Indifference is contagious as well as enthusiasm; and even among the Bonapartists there are many who only mourn the Emperor in order to pay, as it were, their debts, and who will from this time consider themselves quite free. This is especially true in the army, where the Emperor had won many personal friends by his great courtesy and his almost unbounded generosity.

If we turn to foreign lands, we see Italy officially mourning the Emperor, a subscription raised to place his statue in Milan, the first great Italian town which was delivered by his arms. King Victor Emanuel has sent several of his aids-de-camp to the funeral of the Emperor, who was, as he said himself, his brother in arms. Nothing could be more natural and proper than this conduct. If any country owed a debt of gratitude, it was Italy. He first delivered Lombardy, and he allowed all the terms of his own peace of Villafranca to be successively broken. He was the first instrument of the alliance which allowed Italy to seize on Venetia, even after her own defeats of Custozza and Lissa. The Italians, with their usual caution, have waited, however, before raising him a statue in Milan, till he was in his grave, till he could do no more for or against their cause.

In Roumania there have been also great demonstrations of popular gratitude. Napoleon III. invented, as it were, Roumania after the Crimean war. In the Congress of Paris he advocated the union of the two principalities under one prince. This union only took place afterwards. A young Prince of Hohenzollern is now trying to make a new nation on the banks of the Danube, an attempt which seems somewhat difficult, situated as is this nation between two great and ambitious countries. The peasantry of Roumania is still in a state of barbarism. The inhabitants of the great towns are singularly French in their affinities. Owing to their Latin language, they wear our fashions and mourn our monarchs.

The sensation produced in England by the malady and the death of Napoleon III. is, perhaps, the most difficult to analyze correctly. Before all, it must be said that Napoleon III. was known to be an Anglomaniac. The memories of Waterloo, of Saint Helena, the traditions of the First Empire with regard to England, had not only died out in his heart during his long sojourn in England, but had given place to feelings of deep sympathy. There was nothing of the Corsican in Napoleon III.; his was a slow, solid Dutch nature; he admired power, money, rank; he found himself at home with the lords and with the city men; he lived in the clubs, he liked a run across country, he dressed like an Englishman. Lord Palmerston was the first to perceive how useful Prince Napoleon might become to England; he applauded the coup d'état of the Second Empire. Then came the Crimean war; Kinglake in his History has very well told how much England did at that time for the Empire, if he has said as well how much the Empire did for England. From a purely French point of view, the Crimean war was a mere absurdity; it only served for a time the interests of England. The English alliance became from that time the centre of the Emperor's politics; he always acted with England; during the American war, he went directly against all the traditions and interests of France, and he espoused the hostile feelings of England against the Government of Washington. He imposed the treaty of commerce with England on an unwilling Chamber, and he was probably less influenced in this circumstance by economical principles than by the desire to secure the friendship of

England, and even of the English Radicals. At the time of the great rebellion in India, he allowed the English troops to go across France and to embark at Marseilles, instead of going through the Straits of Gibraltar. There was but a single cloud in this blue sky; after the attempt of Orsini, thirty colonels of the French army signed an address to the Emperor, in which they asked to be led against a nest of political pirates and assassins. The Emperor was contented with this war of words, and consoled himself easily with the momentary retirement of Lord Palmerston, who had proposed a new extradition bill. The volunteer fever was not of long duration, and the English are now fully persuaded that Napoleon had never for a moment dreamed of invading England. They only remember his services; they forget that it was their alliance which first gave the Empire a certain respectability and standing in Europe. They forget that the Emperor had constantly projected the invasion and seizure of Belgium, which would have been a fatal blow to the prestige of England; they forget the Benedetti treaty, which the *Times* first revealed to the world. Ever since the Emperor left captivity and came to England, the English seem to have had no other object than to repay him with their hospitality for the hospitality they received from his hands at the Tuileries. They seemed to remember only in the history of the Second Empire those brilliant fêtes, those theatrical scenes of the Tuileries and the Hôtel de Ville, where the best places were always reserved for those who bore English names. There is, I am afraid, also another feeling visible in the great concert of admiration and almost of adulation which has surrounded the exile of Chiselhurst: a secret contempt for everything which is not English. Would any Englishman not consider the Bonapartist system of government as intolerable in England? Would he not only object to its most cruel practices, but also to its centralization, to the régime of the press, to the tyranny of its prefects? All this, however, seems natural when the scene is in France. The lot of French men, apparently, is to obey some Bonaparte, as the lot of Britons is to be free.

Correspondence.

MUNICIPAL REFORM IN PHILADELPHIA.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your notice of the Presidential pardon of James Brown, in the *Nation* of to-day, you remark, "There is reason to believe that the political state of Philadelphia is worse than that of New York in the days of the Ring, and the apathy of the citizens gives reason to fear that it will continue for some time." Will you permit me to make a brief comment on this statement?

That the municipal corruption of Philadelphia is as deep-seated and as all-pervading as that of the Tammany rule in New York will hardly be doubted by any one familiar with the details of our government; but I should regret to be forced to agree with you as to the "apathy" of our citizens. There is with us, as elsewhere, far too little of that healthful and righteous indignation at misgovernment which is the only security for popular institutions, and yet it is growing in a very hopeful way. We cannot, however, look for a revolution so sudden and successful as that which has purged New York—and this for several reasons, besides the more sedate and less impulsive character of our population. Malversation of public moneys with us has not been conducted on that grandly dramatic scale of which the development at once arrested the attention of every taxpayer, and showed even the most unthinking that a very few years more would plunge the whole community into bankruptcy. We have plenty to disgust the thoughtful, but not to startle the careless.

Again, the principal cause which led to the success of Reform in New York was the fact that the Ring was Democratic, while the country at large and the National Administration in particular were Republican. Tammany was the last stronghold of Democracy, and the energy of the great and triumphant Republican party was concentrated upon its overthrow. Moral influences are not to be overlooked in politics, and those influences told fearfully upon the last desperate struggle of Tammany in November; while perhaps even more important was the material assistance derived from the Enforcement Laws in the able and energetic hands of Mr. Davenport. But for the machinery of the United States Government, it is safe to say that Tammany would have counted itself in as it had done more than once before.

In Philadelphia the career of Reform is vastly more arduous because the corruptionists to be reformed are part and parcel—the representatives, indeed—of the great Republican party in a city which, ever since the dark days of the war, has boasted itself as the Gibraltar of loyalty. It is not every one who has the moral courage to revolt against party dictation when he is told that to secure the local advantage of good government he may be imperilling general principles for which he stood forth so bravely from 1861 to 1865. With civic pride, pardonable if mistaken, we imagine ourselves to have been one of the pillars of the Government during the war, and it is not given to every one to perform the part of Samson Agonistes. Thus the moral influence which in New York was in favor of Reform, in Philadelphia is against it with tenfold strength.

The material influences are even more unfavorable. The National, State, and Local Governments are united; there are no opposing forces to be pitted one against the other. The Democracy is too demoralized and disheartened to count as a political force in such a contest, especially as its local managers are thoroughly distrusted by the more intelligent of the rank and file, and are believed to be in secret league with their ostensible opponents. But, most of all, the machinery of elections is under the complete control of experts as able and unscrupulous as Tammany, with the enormous advantage over Tammany that they likewise control the operation of the Enforcement Laws. That the October election was carried by fraud, in spite of its enormous apparent majorities, I think scarcely admits of a doubt.

I mention these facts to explain the slow progress of Reform with us and the seeming "apathy" of our people. Yet we do not despair. Though God's work will surely be done, we do not intend to sit down and wait for it. We have every reason to hope that the Constitutional Convention now in session will render the task more easy, and give us a fairer vantage ground in our portion of the eternal struggle of Right against Wrong.

Very respectfully, L.

Philadelphia, Feb. 6, 1873.

Notes.

A. D. F. RANDOLPH & CO. will issue a 'New Cyclopædia of Illustrative Anecdote, Religious and Moral,' condensed; also, a 'Cyclopædia of Missions,' giving a comprehensive view of the missionary field, without regard to sect or party, together with facts, incidents, etc.——The supplement to Mr. Leypoldt's *Publishers' Weekly* of last week contains a useful Alphabetical Reference List of Works recorded in that publication during the past year. It is both an authors' and a subject catalogue.

—In no State do the relations between the State and learned societies seem to be better established than in Wisconsin. To the liberal provisions of its Legislature we owe the sixth volume of the Collections of the State Historical Society, and the first of the Transactions of the Wisconsin Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters. The latter is a volume of 200 pages 8vo, fairly representative in its contents of the Academy's aims. Among the papers of special interest to students we should name the report of the President, Dr. J. W. Hoyt, which, in giving the reasons for the organization of the Academy, makes a pretty thorough survey of "what had previously been done by and in behalf of Wisconsin in the sciences, in the arts, and in letters." This embraces the bibliography of each of these divisions, which will be found useful for reference to all investigators of the history and progress of the Northwest. Prof. W. F. Allen contributes a very clear and instructive article on "The Rural Population as Classified in Domesday Book," with especial regard to the status of the socmen (*sochemanni*), whom he concludes to have been descendants of the Danes. Prof. J. B. Feuling offers some forcible considerations on "The Place of the Indian Languages in the Study of Ethnology." The collections of the Historical Society embrace in the present issue the reports and papers of four years (1869–72), the former being inspiring reading, and calculated to excite envy and emulation in the bosom of most other societies of the same kind. Three papers, "The Northwest in 1817," by Samuel A. Storrow (from a rare pamphlet); "Journal of a Voyage to the Falls of St. Anthony in 1819," by Major Thomas Forsyth; and "Captain Jonathan Carver and Carver's Grant," by Daniel S. Durrie, are of first-rate importance. The pretensions of the false Bourbon and his biographer are amusingly exposed in "Eleazer Williams and the Lost Prince," by Hon. John Y. Smith. It is stated in the 18th Annual Report that "the average increase of the Massachusetts Historical Society, the pioneer institution of the kind in the country, has been 625 volumes, while ours, since its reorganization, has averaged 2,800, and, during the past six years, but little short of 5,000 annually." The 19th Annual Report just issued shows an increase for 1872 of 2,166 volumes and 1,528 documents and pamphlets. Of the former, 404 were newspaper files, making a total number of 2,044, distributed in the three centuries as follows: 54 in the seventeenth, 146 in the eighteenth, and

the remainder in the present century. The library is also strong in containing 360 volumes on genealogy alone; 865 local histories of towns and counties; and 175 local histories of churches. On the 17th and 18th of June next the Society will celebrate at Prairie du Chien the 200th anniversary of the discovery of the Mississippi by Joliet and Marquette.

—The late Matthew F. Maury, formerly Commander in the U. S. Navy, who died on the 1st inst., was first brought prominently into notice as Superintendent of the Naval Observatory at Washington, to which position he was appointed by John Y. Mason, on the completion of the observatory in 1844. Here he devoted himself not to astronomy but to the collection of material for the study of the winds and currents of the ocean. He endeavored, with partial success, to engage the commercial marine, not only of America but of the whole world, in the work of recording systematic observations of ocean meteorology on a uniform plan. The results of these observations were published in successive editions of his 'Sailing Directions,' the eighth and last of which was in two quarto volumes, published in 1858 and 1859, and also in his 'Wind and Current Charts,' which were intended to show at a glance both the currents and the prevailing winds of every part of the ocean. His work was brought to a sudden termination by his desertion to the rebels, on the secession of Virginia, in 1861. The great industry and ability he displayed in organizing the scheme of observations referred to gave him a world-wide reputation, while the number and extent of his publications made him very popular, especially in the South. But he was held in very low esteem by the scientific men of his own country, all affiliation with whom he avoided. With all his native ability, he was entirely deficient not only in education but in scientific training and in elevation of character. He collected facts with great industry and ability, but his explanations of them were faulty, and his theories often fanciful in the extreme. We may cite, by way of example, his doctrine of two winds blowing in different directions at the same time and in the same place, one of them carrying its dust along without any interference from the other, which he stoutly maintained to the last. His labors have added to the knowledge of ocean currents and meteorology, but he is entirely forgotten as a scientific investigator.

—There is an association of ladies in this city, formed only a year ago, for the purpose of visiting the almshouses, hospitals, and other public charitable institutions of the city and State. After a year's weekly inspection of Bellevue Hospital they were so impressed with the abuses, disorders, and neglects produced by the low character of the nurses, who are "all illiterate, some immoral, and others intemperate," that they determined to make an effort to establish a training-school for nurses in connection with the hospital, on the model of those established in England by Miss Nightingale, from which eventually a supply of educated and intelligent nurses might be procured not only for the hospitals but for the sick in private families. In England, the women who have entered this service are mostly drawn from the same class as the "upper servants," but the ladies here believe they can get their recruits from women of a higher grade—from "the large class of conscientious and laborious women whose education and early associations would lead them to aspire to some higher and more thoughtful labor than household service or work in shops—such as the daughters and widows of clergymen, professional men, and farmers throughout New England and the Northern States, who have received the good education of our common schools and academies, and are dependent on their own exertions for support." The Association proposes at first only to undertake the control and nursing of six wards of the Bellevue Hospital, and afterwards to extend its field of operations, and finally hopes to establish a college for the training of nurses, which will issue diplomas to persons whose qualifications have been properly tested. They have had one report made to them on the English training-schools by Dr. Wylie, and they propose to send over their own lady superintendent, to make herself familiar with the details of her work at St. Thomas's Hospital in London, and at the Liverpool Infirmary. They have the cordial co-operation of the medical staff at Bellevue Hospital, and will undoubtedly have that of all the other medical men of the city. The enterprise, which hardly needs a word of commendation, of course needs money. There has to be a home provided for the nurses, and the head nurses who will train "the probationers" will have to be well paid. The Association, therefore, asks $20,000 of the public to start them, and of this they have received already about $3,000. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Henry G. Stebbins, 50 Exchange Place, or Mrs. Hartman Kuhn, 237 Fifth Avenue. The scheme not only appeals to the charitable and humane, but to all those who feel the great shame and scandal of our time, the corrupt and inefficient administration of our public institutions, and the strong and widespread tendency to slovenly, inadequate, or dishonest work.

—More than a common degree of general interest attaches to the last Annual Reports of the President and Treasurer of Harvard College. The great fire in Boston had for one of its noticeable results a reduction of the University revenues, and to this fact public attention has been widely called by an appeal for aid addressed by the corporation to the friends of American education. In the second place, some remarks of the President in regard to a proposed abolition of compulsory attendance on recitations in the College proper have caused a good deal of newspaper discussion, and the change suggested has been very much criticised, both favorably and unfavorably, but favorably less often than otherwise. So far as we make out from the report before us, the case of those who are friendly to the change is substantially as follows: The average age of the young men admitted to the College is now somewhat above eighteen years, and the age at graduation is consequently between twenty-two and twenty-three. "It is conceivable," says President Eliot, "that young men of eighteen to twenty-two should best be trained to self-control in freedom by letting them taste freedom and responsibility within the well-guarded enclosure of college life, where mistakes may be remedied and faults may be cured, where forgiveness is always easy and repentance never comes too late." And he adds that, "whenever it appears that a college rule or method, of general application, is persevered in only for the sake of the least promising and worthy students, there is good ground to suspect that that rule or method has been outgrown." The report does not say so—for the reason, as we suppose, that nothing has yet been definitely settled in the matter—but, judging from some of the newspaper statements and argumentation, the practical working of the new plan, if adopted, will be that the recitation-rooms will be regularly open, and instruction from the teachers will be regularly obtainable by such pupils as may prefer the old method of study; but that such pupils as prefer to pursue their required studies by themselves, with the help of a tutor of their own selection, will be allowed to do so, and to absent themselves from the class-rooms and prepare themselves for the examinations in their own way. A complete abolition of all possibilities of instruction by means of recitations we do not understand to be intended; an abstinence, permitted by the Faculty, if the student chooses to run the risk of getting up his subjects after his own fashion, we take to be the whole meaning of the change proposed.

—By those persons who are unfriendly to the new movement numerous objections are urged, some of which are reducible to the time-honored principle of "*nolumus mutare leges*," while others are more specific—as, for instance, it is objected that the moral training of the undergraduates in habits of regularity and order is a main end of the college course, and that this end is better subserved by the old system than it can possibly be by the system suggested. To the more general objection the Report makes an anticipatory reply by setting forth a probable good to be got from the change, saying that it is reasonable to expect in the undergraduates, when they are freed from the compulsion of attending upon recitations, lectures, and religious exercises, less of a "certain schoolboy spirit which is not found in the professional schools," where attendance is optional. An improvement in this respect would be a great improvement, and one well worth trying to secure. As for the specific objection above mentioned, experience will be necessary before the question of the relative moral salutariness of the two systems can be settled. That the old system, however, has been a highly salutary system it is easier, we suspect, to say than to prove. The Report makes, as regards this point, a distinction between former generations of undergraduates, of an average age of fourteen and fifteen years at the time of admission, and the older undergraduates of the present day, and it is a distinction which no doubt should be borne in mind, whatever may have been the history of recent classes working under the compulsory plan. Another specific objection to President Eliot's scheme, and one which is urged by President McCosh of Princeton, is that it will most likely lead to "cram"—that is to say, to monthly and bimonthly cram, as distinguished from daily cram on the one hand, and on the other from the patient and thorough mastering of text-books. It is an objection which calls for consideration, and much consideration, and which may probably at last be found to call for nothing less than a careful consideration of two very different schemes of college life, and two almost contradictory notions of what should be the student's relation to the seat of learning at which he is resident. It is not an easy question; perhaps not a question which any one of our colleges can settle for any other; and profitable as any discussion of it might be, we dare say a year or two of carefully limited practical experiment may be, of all discussions, the very best and most conclusive. Instructors might pray, we should think, that the event might be prosperous.

—We note that in pursuance of the determination that every degree conferred by the University shall have "a serious meaning and a real value,"

the Academic Council—a body composed of the professors and assistant professors of all the faculties—will hereafter confer the three degrees of Master of Arts, Doctor of Philosophy, and Doctor of Science, in accordance with a scheme established last year, and which in its main features is as follows: Any Bachelor of Arts graduated at Harvard College may obtain a doctorate of philosophy by pursuing at Harvard University for two years a course of liberal study (approved by the Council) in philology, or philosophy, or history, or political science, or mathematics, or physics, or natural history; provided that the applicant shall have presented a satisfactory thesis on his chosen subject, or some branch of it, and shall have passed a thorough examination. Other Bachelors of Arts than Harvard men must satisfy the Harvard Faculty, by examination or otherwise, that their degree of Bachelor is a true equivalent for the same degree given at Harvard. And in the case of Harvard men, the Academic Council will, in its discretion, dispense them wholly or in part from residence at the University. The Doctorate of Science is to be given on much the same terms, relatively. The intending doctor of science must be a bachelor of science; must have pursued during three years a course (approved) of scientific study embracing at least two subjects, and have passed an examination upon them, showing in one of the subjects special attainments; and, finally, must have made some contribution to science, or some special scientific investigation. But if a man is a bachelor both of arts and of science of Harvard University, his course of study need be but two years long—the other requirements remaining the same, we suppose, in his case as in that of others. For obtaining the degree of Master of Arts there is requisite for bachelors of arts, or of law, or of divinity, one year's course (approved) of liberal study in law, or in theology, or in some other branch of liberal learning. This, it will be seen, is the extension to applicants for these higher degrees of the same system which has been applied to the applicants for bachelorships. And, apparently, while it is not different *in genere* it will be a system much severer *in specie* than our colleges and universities have hitherto known.

—The scientific activity of Harvard College, aside from monographs that professors and students from time to time publish, is perhaps best represented by the 'Illustrated Catalogue of the Museum of Comparative Zoology.' Of this, begun in 1865, seven numbers have appeared: I. Ophiuridæ and Astrophytidæ. By Theodore Lyman. 1865. II. North American Acalephæ. By Alexander Agassiz. 1865. III. Monograph of the North American Astacidæ. By Hermann A. Hagen. 1870. IV. Deep-sea Corals. By L. F. de Pourtalès. 1871. V. The Immature State of the Odonata; Part I. Sub-family Gomphina. By Louis Cabot. 1872. VI. Supplement to the Ophiuridæ and Astrophytidæ. By Theodore Lyman. 1871. VII. Revision of the Echini. By Alexander Agassiz. 1872. In No. VII. Prof. Alexander Agassiz discusses at length the difficult subject of nomenclature alluded to by Mr. Lyman in No. VI. It is to be hoped, judging from the way in which Prof. Agassiz approaches the subject, that science will receive help from the museum in bringing symmetry and reason into the naming of specimens. At present, we should say not only, with Prof. A. Agassiz, that the student engaged in the study and naming of single specimens would find it difficult to rise to general laws, but that the only outcome of his studies would be general desperation. As to the rest, each number (except the second, which has woodcuts by Prof. A. Agassiz's own hand) is illustrated by lithographs, the last containing also photographs of much beauty taken by the Albert-type and Woodbury processes. The numbers differ considerably in size, No. V. containing 17 pp. of text, and No. VII. 378. Each is prefaced by a bibliography of the subject treated. The tendency appears to be, wisely we should think, not to limit the account of specimens to those the museum may have now, but, with an eye to the growth of the museum, to extend the account to the present state of science. The catalogue appears to indicate that solid and faithful work is being done at the museum.

—Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, is one of the great men of history whose fame is rather enhanced than diminished as he comes to be better known. He is ranked with the great conquerors, but he was rather an organizer and a lawgiver than a conqueror; and, after all, his best claims to renown rest upon his constant and successful efforts to advance all the highest interests of humanity. His empire broke to pieces, as he must have known it would; society fell back into anarchy and decay; but he had given it a breathing space of almost fifty years of order and good government. M. Francis Monnier, author of an excellent treatise on the Carolingian epoch, has just published a thin book entitled 'Charlemagne Législateur,' devoted to elucidating that side of this great man which is, perhaps, least appreciated. It is written in graphic style, and at the same time incorporates the results of careful study of the original documents, in some points differing from the views of the best German authorities. A valuable special feature is the description of the provinces of the Missi Dominici.

—The literature relating to the Creole dialect is now voluminous enough to make the study of it both interesting and profitable, and it may be worth while to enumerate the principal publications on this subject. 'The Theory and Practice of Creole Grammar" by J. J. Thomas (Port of Spain, Trinidad, 1869); an essay on the 'Philology of the Creolé Dialect' by the same, of which extracts were given in *Trübner's Literary Record* for December 31, 1870; 'Guide to Hayti,' by James Redpath (Boston, 1861); 'Slave Songs of the United States,' Creole of Louisiana (New York, 1867); an article in the *Athenæum* of December 31, 1870, on the dialect of Mauritius; and 'L'Histoire de Cayenne et la Grammaire Créole,' by M. de Saint-Quentin, (1872?)—these works and articles, to which we may perhaps add our own notes in Nos. 240 and 293 of the *Nation*, cover nearly the whole field. The Guiana Dialect, described by M. de Saint-Quentin, arose originally from the intercourse between the French Colonists, their negro slaves, and the more or less subject natives (Galibis), whose contribution to the Creole was the names of plants, animals, and implements peculiar to the country. Other Indians, fleeing from the hard servitude of the Portuguese settlements on the Amazon, brought with them a large number of expressions derived from their late masters; and here and there occur a few words traceable to contact with vessels from England, Holland, and the South of France, like *chouit*, palatable (Eng. sweet), *nomsèk*, namesake. Among the phonetic changes, we recognize the customary Creole elision of *r*, and the fusion of the definite article with the noun, as in *lapôte* (porte); and *u* becomes *i*, as in *larim* (rhume), *diven* (du vin), with which compare *dilo* (de l'eau). Where in Trinidad they say *moèn ca manger* (I am eating), in Guiana they say *mo ka* [*ca*] *mangé* [*manger*]—with only a difference in the pronoun, and that but slight. In like manner the imperfect is formed with *té* (*etait*) in both countries. "Talheure [toute à l'heure] mo vini,' Mauritian for I shall come, contrasts with "mo oua [*qu.* va?] manger," I shall eat, in Guiana. All words are invariable, unless we except the article *la* sing. *iéla* plur., which stands always after the word it determines, and sometimes at the end of a phrase. The genitive may be expressed by *di*, but this is habitually neglected. The second person of the pronoun is *to* as in Mauritian, or *ou* (Maur. *vous*), and *zot* (vous autres). The relative word is *ki*. *Que* after the comparative is expressed by *passé*. The superlative is often formed by mere repetition, as *louen, louen, louen*, etc., for *très-loin*. (See the cover of No. 623 of *Le Tour du Monde*, December 14, 1872.)

— A paper read at a conference of missionaries of the Rhenish Missionary Society in Hongkong last summer by Ernst Faber, one of their number, has since been printed there in a pamphlet of 74 pages, with the title 'Lehrbegriff des Confucius.' It is an attempt, the first of the kind, to digest into a system the teachings of Confucius as they appear in the 'Analects,' 'The Great Learning,' and 'The Doctrine of the Mean.' The pamphlet contains a very full collection of extracts, which are given in a simple translation or paraphrase, followed in most cases by the original Chinese text, but with little additional discussion or comment. In a purely philosophical point of view the result is not very satisfactory. Confucius was too practical in the constitution of his mind and in his aim to make it possible, even if his teachings were more fully reported to us than they are, to construct out of them a well-developed system. As an analytical concordance, however, of his views on ethical subjects, the pamphlet will be found very convenient. To place, as Mr. Faber has done, 'The Great Learning' and 'The Doctrine of the Mean' as sources of authority on a level with the 'Analects' is an error, though fortunately, with his treatment of the subject, not a serious one. The nearer approach to a systematic form into which the former have been cast is the work not of the master, but of his disciples. The 'Analects' are the 'Memorabilia' of Confucius, the uncolored report of his sayings and doings. Mr. Faber is usually just to Confucius, but not always. In the closing summary of the errors and defects of his teaching, he finds him guilty of untruthfulness on quite insufficient evidence. Among the cases cited in proof, the only one worthy even of a moment's consideration is that quoted also by Dr. Legge with like disapproval, where Confucius excused himself from receiving an unwelcome visitor on the ground that he was sick. But the example of Confucius, we venture to say, will be quite harmless if only copied in full, for as the messenger was leaving the door, Confucius, to leave him in no doubt as to the real motive of the refusal, took a musical instrument, and sang to it. On the other hand, the sincerity and truthfulness on which Confucius elsewhere so strongly insists, *e.g.*, 'Analects' ii. 22, "I do not know how a man without truthfulness is to get on" (Dr. Legge's translation), Mr. Faber makes to be only confidence or faith in others (*Vertrauen, Glauben*), which though a frequent meaning of the Chinese word here used is certainly not its sense in this and other similar passages. Mr. Faber in his preface informs us that he has nearly ready in manuscript a translation, with introduction and commentary, of the works of the two leading Tauist philosophers of the fourth century B.C., Lieh Yu-K'au and Chwang Chau, which

he pronounces the best philosophical works in the Chinese language. They have never before been translated, and though possibly not quite deserving of the praise here given them, we hope that some patron may be found generous enough to assume the expense of publication.

AMERICAN ORATORIOS.*

THE appearance of two new works by American composers, both highly cultivated musicians, and both young men from whom much more may be expected, is an event of some significance. True, they do not enter fully into the domain of absolute music, the symphony, but content themselves with the comparatively limited conditions of the oratorio—a form of music in which the chorus is everything, and the nature of the text confines the composer to a narrow, emotional range. The oratorio, or sacred cantata, is for the present the only available sphere for the development of the American composer, for the public is not yet far enough advanced to understand music not explained by words; and, at the same time, the composers themselves have not had the elementary training, especially the unconscious absorption of a musical spirit from a surrounding musical atmosphere, in childhood, which would fit them to give their germinal ideas an easy development in the form of the symphony. The two composers with whose works we have at present to do have the rare merit of being accomplished scholars in church-music, and therefore familiar with all the best work yet done in this school.

No one can turn over the pages of Mr. Paine's 'St. Peter' and not see everywhere the work of an excellent musician. It is without doubt the most important musical work yet produced in this country. Nevertheless, one must be very much in love with Bach, and very little influenced by the modern taste for lyric forms, not to find a certain dryness in 'St. Peter.' The real false step in the book, it appears to us, is the text—the libretto. It ought to be mere truism to say that the first essential quality of text for musical illustration is *emotion*. Music is emotional if it *is* music. True, a Schubert or Mozart can write tunes for any words, however matter-of-fact they may be. But modern taste requires of vocal music something more than mere melody; it imperatively demands a true interpretation of the dramatic element in the text. This, in its fullest element, one finds in the admirable little songs by Franz and Robert Schumann, and in the operas of Wagner, though with perhaps less regard to the exclusively *musical*.

The old oratorio was too devotional, too monotonous in its emotional range, to serve as an amusement. It was an act of high religious rapture, a lifting up of the heart to God. One sees this in the 'Passions Music' of Sebastian Bach and the 'Messiah' of Handel. In Haydn's 'Creation,' the "worldly" element, of which Franz Brendel speaks, comes to the front. Here descriptive instrumentation becomes more noticeable, and an air of almost operatic tenderness pervades the third part. Mendelssohn gave a fuller "concert" character to the oratorio. In order to relieve the pious monotony, he introduces his choruses of unbelievers who cry to Baal and otherwise disport themselves in an ungodly manner. At the same time the modern orchestra employs its full resources to give a brilliant and characteristic coloring to the whole. This is especially true of the moment when fire descends, and of the chorus, "He watching over Israel," in 'Elijah.' Mendelssohn likewise recognized the need of the lyric element as affording suitable moments of repose. True, Bach had the same idea and relieved the tedium of his orotorios with chorales, in which all the audience joined; as if a modern audience should sing in the three parts of the 'Messiah': "Blow ye the trumpet, blow" (to Lenox), "Rock of Ages, cleft for me" (to Toplady), and "All hail the power of Jesus' name" (to Coronation). Mendelssohn, indeed, introduces chorales far more sparingly than Bach, and that, too, in a purely artistic way, for the audience now "assists" in the French sense only. But the lyric element is far more developed in Mendelssohn's oratorios than in Bach, for we find it in all the airs and most of the concerted pieces. Bach's melodic ideas almost refused to flow into lyric forms. He was not without a sense of dramatic fitness, else he could never have written the remarkably effective "Thunder and Lightning" chorus in the 'Passion Music according to St. Matthew.' But the airs for solo voices are so broken up with unessential ornamentation and long orchestral interludes as to be merely tedious to modern ears accustomed to a more positive passion in singing. These of Bach's are meditations and not airs in the modern sense.

To whatever extent Mendelssohn carried the melodious in his oratorios, it is always chaste and religious in tone—cold if you will—the melody of angels rather than of men and women. This cool and celestial melody is wanting in Costa's oratorios; here we get a smack of the warm sensuousness of the Italian opera. At the same time we descend from the highly dramatic characters of the 'Messiah' and 'Elijah' to the comparatively commonplace heroes *Eli* and *Naaman*. And with this descent comes a wonderful diminution of the general nobility of the music. Culture and ripe musicianship remain; we have more beautiful vocal effects than the old oratorios attempted, and the rich sensuousness of the modern orchestra in Italian hands. But the old religious fervor has departed. Yet not of oratorio only is this true. Since Beethoven and Schumann all music has become deeper and more poetic. Many of the slow movements in Beethoven's sonatas have a depth of the religious, the "repose which is typical of the Divine Permanence," such as can nowhere be found even in the most solemn moments of Bach and Handel. And Schumann by his short pieces gave an immense enlargement to the emotional scope of instrumental music. So that just as religious art has become more secular, secular art has become more religious (always excepting the Italian opera, which we must be excused for regarding as, in Western parlance, "a gone case").

From this greater richness of modern music arises a new demand upon the text of oratorio. Since the work is no longer an act of devotion but a work of religious art, it must abide the test of a criticism enlightened by all the triumphs of composers of the last hundred years. The religious art of Bach and Handel was the best art their time admitted. It not only had *religious* fervor, but it had by all odds the most *musical* inspiration of any contemporary works. It is also instructive to observe that of all the oratorios of that period only the 'Messiah' of Handel can be said to be really alive, in the sense of having the ear of the public. And this has been saved, in our opinion, by the glory of the text, which gave the composer such a wealth of inspiration that in several points he reaches emotional heights otherwise impossible. "Lift up your heads," "Hallelujah," and "Worthy is the Lamb" are the masterpieces which have saved Handel's 'Messiah.' The much bepraised air, "I know that my Redeemer liveth," is far too long and too broken by orchestral interludes. It has been kept alive by the efforts of great singers, who have found in its simplicity and noble melody an opportunity for new triumph. Besides, the musical texture of the 'Messiah' is somewhat monotonous when tried by the standards of modern music. It must travel down the ages in the strength of its sublimity and true nobility, in which sphere it is without a rival. It will be useless to attempt to rival it, for the spirit of the age is different, and the subject itself is the only one admitting the perfection of this particular emotional element.

Our new composers do well, therefore, when they seek more modest flights, and confine themselves more to the common level of human life; for here they are at once within reasonable reach of their abilities, and find scope for the tenderness and poetry now required. The lyric element is one of the most vital. By lyric forms in music are meant those songlike strains where the melodic ideas fall into symmetrical sequences of phrases, exactly as verses fall into stanzas, and where a particular emotional experience finds its full expression in two or three stanzas. The key of the song is its very first line, and this is particularly true of the song in melody. The opening phrase is the pith of the subject, and to this we often and finally return. It admits not of reasoning or dramatic progression, and cares little for mere elegance. It is the instantaneous picture of a moment of the human heart. The song is comprehensible without study. And so the lyric moment in an oratorio is at once the moment of greatest passion to the singer and most complete repose to the listener; complete repose, because the often-returning melodic phrases convey their own interpretation, and the conviction that the singer has at last quit "fooling around" in recitative and settled down to a steady pull at singing, is especially reassuring to the average listener.

A good oratorio text must have dramatic interest and sentiment, and there must be moments of great passion, otherwise there can be no climax. The chorus is of first importance. But to employ a chorus to express words or musical thoughts which could just as well have been done by a single singer is to violate the principle of artistic economy. The chorus text *must* be such an elevated emotional state as to furnish its own justification for the employment of large resources. In the arias we find room for the tender and poetic, and in the recitatives we look for dramatic painting. The great law of contrast should be observed. A soft piece relieves a loud one; the tender, the bold and heroic. The dramatic and broken are relieved by the lyric; conflicting voices of the individuals are complemented by the union of all—the chorus.

Tried by such tests as these, the libretto of 'St. Peter' is found wanting. It is divided into two parts, and each of these again into two scenes. I. "The Divine Call"; "The Denial and Repentance." II. "The Ascension"; "Pentecost." The first division embraces eight numbers. No. 1, chorus, "The time is fulfilled," Mark i. 15; No. 2 (Rec.), "Now as Jesus walked by the Sea of Galilee," Mark i. 16, 17, 18; No. 3 (Air Sop.), "The

* 'St. Peter: an Oratorio. By John Knowles Paine.' Boston: Ditson & Co. 1872. 'The Forty-sixth Psalm. Composed for Chorus, Solos, and Orchestra, by Dudley Buck.' Boston: Ditson & Co. 1872.

Spirit of the Lord is upon me," Isaiah lxi. 1, 2; (Rec. tenor) "And he called his disciples together," Luke ix. 1, 2; No. 4 (twelve male voices and choruses), "We go before the face of the Lord," Luke i. 76–79; No. 5 (choral), "How lovely shines the Morning Star!" No. 6 (Rec. and twelve male voices), "And he asked his disciples saying," Matthew xvi. 14–18; No. 7 (Air, bass), "My heart is glad," Psalm xvi. 9–11; No. 8 (chorus), "The church is built upon the foundation of the Apostles and Prophets," Eph. ii. 20, Ps. cxviii. 23. No. 5 is taken from the German, so that the only remaining opportunity for lyric or emotional writing in this part is in the third number, which Mr. Paine has somewhat singularly given to a female voice. The air is a very good one indeed, really lyric, and at the same time not commonplace. The opening chorus is set to a very unpromising text, but the musical result is creditable in a high degree, and, we judge, effective for voices. It works two subjects throughout in a masterly manner. The great objection to the entire last part of the work is the undue length and dryness of the recitatives. The text in this part embraces about forty verses of St. Peter's sermon, delivered on the day of Pentecost. Of this, in a musical point of view, the best we can say is, "warranted evangelical."

It is likely that Mr. Paine's 'St. Peter' would not be entirely available for public performance. But with judicious omissions we see no reason why it may not prove of permanent value. It is very unfortunate that the text did not include words suitable for at least one genuine musical chorus in each part. Whatever we have here we have in spite of the libretto. Nor do we find in this work enough attention to the tender and simply *musical* for the best impression upon the public; but we do find such a degree of cultivation and high musical intention as to be uncommonly creditable to the composer and American art. And we might properly add further, that we have given way to so long a digression on the matter of the text solely with reference to after-coming composers, who might be in danger of adopting an unsuitable libretto for want of proper instinct or consideration of the disadvantage at which they thereby place themselves with the public. The libretto of 'St. Peter' is probably quite as good as that of 'St. Paul,' or many of those set to music by Handel.

Mr. Buck's Psalm is not an oratorio, yet it is so much allied to one as to be properly noticed under that head. It is divided into seven numbers, which are so diversified in treatment as to afford an agreeable and appropriate variety. Mr. Buck's standpoint of writing is different from Mr. Paine's. The former is more devoted to the dramatic aspect of the text; the latter, to the demands of counterpoint and the Bach principles of writing. Mr. Buck also gives himself up now and then to mere sweetness, quite in the French style. On the whole, he has produced exactly what he set himself to do, namely, a work in oratorio style, long enough for half a programme, and within the ability, with good study, of average singing societies of forty to a hundred members. The dramatic conception of the text is excellent. The form of the music is admirable, and the melodic ideas are judiciously assigned to suitable voices. From a high musical standpoint the work appears to us to be open to the suspicion of crudity, or abruptness, or want of finish. Yet it is very difficult to say exactly why. Perhaps the slight imperfection arises from too strict a following of the Wagner theory of a close dramatic interpretation of the words. In any case, the Psalm is a desirable acquisition to the repertory of choral societies, and to their tender mercies we now dismiss both works.

SOME NEW FRENCH BOOKS.*

IN his latest work, the author of 'Ladislas Bolski' and the 'Revanche de Joseph Noirel' reveals himself in a fresh literary aspect. His new volume of 'Studies in Literature and Art' is made up of essays entitled (1) "A German of the Olden Time"; (2) "A German of To-Day"; (3) "Germany's Militant Poets"; and (4) "Nine Letters on Art." The German of the olden time is Lessing. The German of to-day is Strauss (not to be confounded with the composer of the "Blue Danube"). The militant poets are those of the new German Empire, from Redwitz and Geibel down to the immortality-destined Kutschke, with his

> "Was kraucht da in dem Busch herum?
> Ich glaub', es ist Napoliam."

In this chapter are some pleasant pages on Uhland and the *Geharnischte Sonette* (sonnets in armor) of Rückert, with a glance at the early patriotic poetry of the Liberation war.

Those of our readers who know M. Cherbuliez only as a brilliant novelist will be surprised at the extent and solidity of his acquirements in German literature. His 'Lessing' is an admirable study, with incidental criticisms on Goethe, Schiller, Winckelmann, and Voltaire. In discussing the ancient quarrel touching Lessing's estimate of the French dramatic classics, Corneille and Racine, M. Cherbuliez makes it evident that Geneva is nearer to Paris than to Weimar. The German of to-day, Dr. David Strauss, author of the 'Life of Jesus,' is an essay semi-biographical and semi-critical, in which the Doctor's worth is analyzed and appreciated, and some account given of 'Ulrich von Hutten' and his other works. The letters on art afford the writer a field in which his pen has somewhat freer play. The letters on sculpture especially merit attention.

M. Edmond About's last production is what the French would call a *livre de circonstance*, and is mainly interesting for what it tells us concerning its author. We all know how exceedingly clever he is; yet this book will not add to his reputation. Writing from personal observation touching the occupation of a conquered province by a victorious enemy, Edmond About would almost certainly be found keen of observation, picturesque in description, and reasonably well provided with useful information—provided only that the conquered province be not Alsace, and the victorious army other than Prussian.

Born at Dieuze, a small village of Lorraine, and long a resident of Saverne (Alsace), where, as he says, "I have passed fourteen years of my life, written three-fourths of my works, and which is the birthplace of four of my five children," we can well understand how the Prussian invasion affected him personally. In September, 1871, on his return home after the cessation of hostilities, our author finds the country filled with Prussian troops, and the native population in the bitterness of defeat manifesting toward the conquerors all the animosity of actively engendered hatred. He listens to the thousand highly colored stories current concerning Prussian insolence, Prussian vulgarity, Prussian avarice, and Prussian cruelty, which his friends and acquaintances pour into his ears, gives them shape and form in letters to *Le Soir*, and of this staple the work is made up. Had M. About been writing in Poland and Ireland, his knowledge of the world and of mankind would have qualified him to witness calmly the natural resentment of a conquered people, and to eliminate with judgment the exaggerations and inventions springing from the intense hatred of a disarmed population, which in default of swords and guns takes refuge in pens and tongues. But in the case of Alsace—and we make it no reproach to our author—all the circumstances of the case disqualified him from being its historiographer at such a crisis. Cool observation, careful research, or impartial judgment were simply impossibilities to him, and his chapters therefore possess merely the interest of a succession of pictures taken from a single standpoint. We have the animus of the whole work in the dedication (a legacy of hatred): "*A mon fils—Pour qu'il se souvienne.*"

The chapters on Strasbourg, Muhlhouse, Belfort, etc., are filled with details of the organized passive resistance of the Alsatians to the conqueror, which extends, it seems (where a Prussian is concerned), even to the denial on their part of any ability to comprehend or speak the German language. Any one who has ever heard Alsatian French spoken, or read its delicious reproduction in the pages of Balzac, may have some faint idea of the irresistible comicality of hearing an Alsatian refuse to understand a Prussian, with the explanation, in French of formidable accent, "*Moi Vranzais, moi pas safoir Allemand,*" or again, "*Pas poufoir Allemand*" (*Ich kann nicht Deutsch.*) This is legitimate. So also is this: "We reply to Prussians, who accost us politely in French, with a strict, ceremonious, and special politeness which makes them keep their distance. If they ask for information or one of those slight services that no one can refuse, we respond obligingly, but accept nothing in return—not even a simple 'I thank you.'" This is reported of Saverne, but at Strassburg, About hears stories in which the glacial politeness is totally absent:

"The German who chances in a French shop is exposed to a thousand impertinences—all the keener that they are witty and in good taste. A dealer who is obliged to answer a Prussian, persistently lowers his eyes and fixes his gaze on the stranger's long feet. That is sufficient. Attacked in his weak point, the Prussian hesitates, stammers, and generally rushes out bargainless and furious."

Another:

"A German lady enters a *magasin de nouveautés* to purchase a dress and trimmings. 'You understand,' she remarks, 'I do not wish to look like a Frenchwoman.' She is answered with much politeness: 'Have no fear, madame, it would be impossible to effect that.'"

Yet another:

"The wife of a Prussian functionary coming out of a shop in great agitation meets a friend, and bursts into tears, with 'Oh! this is horrible. I can never exist here. My husband must change his post or resign.' 'What is

* 'Etudes de Littérature et d'Art, par Victor Cherbuliez.' Paris: Libraire Hachette et Cie. New York: F. W. Christern. 1873.
'Alsace, 1871-1872. Par E. About.' Paris: Libraire Hachette. New York: F. W. Christern. 1873.
'Vingt Mois de Présidence.' Paris; J. Hetzel et Cie. New York: F. W. Christern. 1872.

the matter?' enquires the friend. 'Nothing—everything. I went in there. A pretty, graceful girl of sixteen was waiting on a French lady with the greatest possible politeness. At the sight of me she appeared to grow at least two feet taller—put on the air of an offended queen—turned her head away while listening to me, threw me my purchases as one might pitch a bone to a dog, and pushed my money into the drawer with a piece of paper.'"

"Voilà comment les Alsaciens vendent aux Allemands," is M. About's somewhat unphilosophical commentary.

But we must do our author the justice to distinguish between the requisitions of journalistic and permanent literature—between the preparation of a serious book and the hurried transcription of a letter amid the excitement of passing events. For the publication of some portion of this work originally in the *feuilleton* of *Le Soir*, M. About was, as our readers may remember, arrested at Saverne, sent under guard to Strassburg, and there imprisoned to await trial by a court-martial order of the Minister of War at Berlin. The crime charged was high treason. This was in September, 1872. The accusation was founded on the *feuilleton* of *Le Soir* of Oct. 26, 1871. How a French subject could be held answerable to a foreign tribunal for an article written and published in France, M. About naturally professed himself unable to understand. He was answered that the tribunal considered the crime as committed wherever the paper was circulated, and *Le Soir* was circulated in Prussian territory. Under the Prussian system, the accuser in this case was not brought personally before the court, which was composed of two civil judges and three military officers, but was tried on written testimony and his own answers to interrogatories propounded by an official nearly equivalent in functions to our judge-advocate. M. About has no words but of praise for the consideration, care, and politeness with which this officer discharged his duties. The accused underwent two interrogatories, the last one terminating in a manner so eminently characteristic of the respective nationalities of prisoner and judge as to merit reproduction.

M. About said in his justification:

"How can I be guilty of treason towards you? I am not of yours. I am your enemy. I hate the conquerors of Lorraine and Alsace. I hate them not only as a citizen, but as an individual. You have annexed my native Lorraine village, which never was German, where no one speaks German but your functionaries. There my father lies buried. His tomb is your property. You have annexed the place of my adoption, Saverne. The cradle of my infants belongs to you! Why, if I were not your enemy, I should be neither a son, a father, nor a man. Put down in the interrogatory, if you please, that I am your enemy!

"'*Natürlich*,' replied the judge, with the imperturbable serenity I had already admired, says M. About; and he dictated to the clerk: 'I am your enemy. I hate the conquerors of my country.'"

'Vingt Mois de Présidence' is a history of the Government of France, and more especially of the administration of President Thiers, from the 17th of February, 1871, to the end of October, 1872. The work addresses itself mainly to the demonstration of two propositions: First, that the Republic is the solution of the French political problem; and, second, that the administration of President Thiers has been eminently capable and successful. Those observers who have watched with attention the late scenes of the 13th of November, 1872, in the National Assembly, will find special interest in its statements. The book has been attributed to M. Thiers himself. From internal evidence we greatly doubt this, but think that it very likely may have been inspired by him. The author, whoever he may be, professes entire impartiality.

"All," he says, "agree on one point, that for nearly a century the malady from which France suffers is revolutionary in its nature. Are the doctors who have taken their degrees in the Faculty of Authority still convinced, as they were yesterday, that compression is the best method to manage steam? The machine has exploded too often to permit us to believe that the employment of the same processes will not ensure like explosions. We have been subjected to all the varieties of monarchical treatment—the First Empire, traditional monarchy, constitutional monarchy, dictatorship, Second Empire. All these passing governments decreed each in its turn that the era of revolutions was closed, and yet invariably, after the lapse of a few months, each governmental apparatus exploded, leaving the soil covered with its ruins.

"Monarchical régime, if it survives monarchical faith, is order on the surface and revolt at heart—revolt which, one day or other, appears in the form of revolution. Aided by compression, things may go on apparently well for a short time, but, at the moment when least looked for, reality appears, and with its iron hand sweeps away the artificial edifice. All the old processes failing, the most vulgar common sense counsels a different method; instead of compressing, allow expansion; instead of unavailing dykes and dams for a resistless current, give it a canal. The canal of revolution is the Republic.

"I am aware," continues the author, "that the word Republic frightens many good people, and most alarms those who do not know what it is; for the Republic can hardly be said to have experimentally lived in France. Was that terrible epilepsy of 1793 the Republic? In 1848, drawn to and fro by the ambition of pretenders, it was a phantom. The day when the doors of the National Assembly and of France were opened to Louis Napoleon, the Republic was dead. What we beheld from the 4th of September, 1870, to the 7th of February, 1871, was no more the Republic than it was monarchy; it was the dictatorship of a group, a dictatorship born of a catastrophe. The weakness of the Monarchical party, then, being demonstrated by a shipwreck five times repeated in half a century, let us, once for all, have done with this principle if we desire to have done with revolution."

The writer concludes, of course, for the necessity of adopting the Republic, if the country is to be saved and its government placed on a firm basis. So much for the preface. The remaining two hundred and fifty pages of the work may be looked upon as the administrative and diplomatic history of France down to within a period of now six months. On the 8th of February, 1871, seven hundred and fifty National Representatives of France assembled at the Grand Theatre of Bordeaux—Legitimists, Absolutists, and Moderate Republicans of every hue, Orleanists and Indifferents, and, possibly, some lingering Imperialists. These last soon found their faith sorely tried. On the 1st of March, a member (Bamberger of the Moselle) denounced the name of Napoleon III. as one eternally "nailed to the pillory of history," a sortie followed by immense applause and the appearance of a member "from the depths of the Right," his face as pale as a spectre. This was M. Conti, who had the nerve to ascend the tribune and undertake an apology of Napoleon III. All he gained by it was the immediate passage, amid tumult "à son comble," of the proposition of Bethmont, that the misfortunes, defeats, and ruin of the country were caused by the Empire, and that therefore the Empire should be for ever accursed—"l'Empire doit être à jamais maudit."

After successive defeats and the melting away of several armies, soon came the "humiliation suprême" of the entry of the Prussian army into Paris. Every nerve was strained, every device exhausted, to avoid this crowning calamity. But Prussia was inexorable, although this work asserts that, by way of compensation, she gave up Belfort, which was originally included in the cession of Alsace, and also diminished the indemnity by a considerable amount. Then follow the more exciting incidents of Paris and the Commune, and parliamentary discussions on all the great questions which underlie the administration of every modern state—conscription, the army, the navy, commerce, agriculture, national finance, etc., etc.—giving to this brochure, as a book of reference, a decided historical value.

How I Found Livingstone. By Henry M. Stanley. With maps and illustrations after drawings by the author. Published only by subscription. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)—If we may judge by its effect on ourselves, the reading of this book is calculated to win back for Mr. Stanley a good deal of the respect which he had forfeited by his behavior since his return to civilized parts. In straightforward, unaffected narrative, only disfigured by reporters' rhetoric, he describes the intelligent manner in which he prepared himself for the long and toilsome march from the seaboard to the interior; the obstacles, dangers, and common incidents of the route; the happy meeting with Dr. Livingstone; their joint exploration of the north end of Lake Tanganika; their venturesome return through an unexplored country to Unyanyembe; their leave-taking; and the safe arrival of the *Herald* expedition at Zanzibar. There is no effort, on Stanley's part, to make a hero of himself. On the contrary, the reader might even be led to underrate his courage, forgetting that his was an undertaking in which tact was more essential than daring, and that he showed throughout an exceptional knowledge of human nature, without which he might easily have been foolhardy, but with which he could as easily afford to appear less courageous than he really was. His resolution and his self-reliance never failed him, and undoubtedly he had made up his mind to succeed or perish. No feature of his African mission seems to us more creditable to him than the fact that it was accepted in spite of a personal indifference on his part to Livingstone, whom he had entirely misjudged; and there are no pleasanter passages in his work than those in which, with evident sincerity, he pays a really loving tribute to the character of the veteran explorer as revealed to him most unexpectedly in their four months' intercourse. One perceives that the chill given to this ardent attachment when Stanley was once more in the midst of jealousies and heart-burnings of which Dr. Livingstone was unjustly the object or unconsciously the cause, almost of necessity threw him into an antagonistic frame of mind towards the Doctor's countrymen. This was rather confirmed by the to him amazing conclusion of the Dawson expedition not to proceed any further, on learning what he had achieved; and prejudice gave way to anger when, partly owing to the mystery in which his early movements were shrouded, he found the British public unprepared to believe him. A little more judgment, a little better knowledge of the *Herald's* reputation for sensational journalism, would have enabled him to turn these doubts and suspicions into what they actually were—the highest compliment that could have been paid him. He would thus have spared himself those

exhibitions of bad taste, sensitiveness, and bad breeding which we can now partly forgive to his loyalty to Dr. Livingstone and his employer.

Mr. Stanley's book unquestionably takes rank with those of Burton, Grant, Speke, and all other travellers in the same district of Africa, in so far as it is a truthful and trustworthy account of what he saw, heard, and did. In scientific attainments he was inferior to all his predecessors, in descriptive power as well, though his narrative is anything but dry reading, and contains many excellent descriptions of scenery. He was peculiarly fortunate in several respects. When only a month out from Bagamoyo, he heard authentic news of Livingstone; four months later he was again cheered by similar tidings; and three months later still, on the final march to Ujiji, all doubts were removed of his finding the Doctor if he could reach that place. Had he experienced fewer delays in coming up from the coast, he might have anticipated the latter's arrival, and either turned back in despair or missed him in further searching. He had also the singular felicity, when returning to Bagamoyo, to receive on the way copies of the *Herald* containing his letters forwarded months before. This return trip, we ought to add, was towards the close perhaps even more perilous than the advance had been.

The publishers will permit us to call their attention to the awkward position of the general map of the expedition. Placed in front instead of at the back of the volume, it cannot be consulted without great inconvenience, which leads the reader, or led us at least, to tear it out and spread it near by.

Talk and Travel; or, Two Strings to Your Bow. By Biceps. (London: D. Ogilvy.)—An English traveller, who hunts lions and wild boars, and amuses himself with philology and anthropology, has written a book and printed it under the above title. The "Travel" is in Northern Africa, and will serve as a guide to the sportsman and tourist in Algeria and Tunisia. It certainly gives no very enticing view of the country—wretched quarters, long and fatiguing marches, and little or no large game. The "Talk" is a warm protest against the theories and nomenclature which transform "Englishmen" into "Dutchmen," and "Britons" into "Teutons." He speaks up for the Normans. He thinks that the inhabitants of England at the Norman Conquest were an effete race, who would have come to nothing. Englishmen owe their eminence to their Norman blood. He estimates the accession to the 2,000,000 so-called Saxons to have been 500,000 French—in fact, one quarter, and by far the most intelligent and powerful of the whole population of England; and of the whole population of Great Britain and Ireland he puts the Teutonic element at one quarter only. The organization of church and state, the military spirit and power, the architecture, the literature—all are Norman. The language is mixed. As to the vocabulary, it seems there are 43,500 words in Johnson's Dictionary, and 29,000, more than two-thirds, of them are of Romance origin. As to grammar, the collocation of words, the formation of the plural, gender, comparison, and derivation are either French or half French. So he argues in an off-hand fashion, citing Schlegel, Grimm, Marsh, Thommerel, and a long, and good, and less familiar passage from Hardy's 'Descriptive Catalogue of Materials relating to Great Britain and Ireland.'

He garnishes his statistics and arguments with lively assaults on travelling Teutons who claim the English *"lankwitch as no pedder as progen Sherman,"* and on the "violent Germano-mania (or flunkeyism) of the last thirty years" in England, and especially Mr. Freeman and the *Saturday Review*, as its prominent representatives. Among other things, he gives a specimen vocabulary of the new language, the *lingua Freemannica*, which Englishmen of the old school will now be obliged to study, from which we pick the following: Charlemagne, *Karl the Gross;* A Briton, *A Dutchman;* nearly, *well-nigh;* Popular tradition, *Folk lore;* Anglo-Saxon, *O.E.;* Freeman, *infallible;* everything non-Freemannic, *misleading, confusing, blundering.*

At "well-nigh" the same time with this little book comes a number of the *Saturday Review*, with an article in it on the *Nation's* criticism of Dr. Morris's use of the phrase *Old England*, which is full of misapprehensions that we should like to set right. But what can be said to a reviewer who fathers views upon us which are just opposite to those we express; who applauds a classification of English authors which unites Chaucer with Beowulf, and separates him from Spenser; who thinks that the current word in America for *Englishman* is *"Britisher,"* and that "commencement orations" are speeches of the Pilgrim Fathers; and when the *Nation* says that we may still speak of both races of our ancestors (Saxons and Normans) under the names which have so long resounded in Fourth-of-July orations, takes it all gravely, and enlarges at learned length on the political reasons which lead us to ban the word *English* and praise *Anglo-Saxon;* who is not content with rebuking the *Nation* for using the words *Anglo-Saxon* just as all the rest of mankind do, and have done for generations, but ventures to suggest that we say *commencement* when we mean *beginning*—*e.g.*, Harvard commencements, for Harvard beginnings—and that we have the elements of the Anglo-Saxon question still to learn? Perhaps 'Talk and Travel' gives him all the answer he deserves. Perhaps it might do him good to read and digest the remarks in the last number of *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* to the effect that there is little study of Anglo-Saxon in England, and what little there is is unscientific, and that America affords a cheering contrast in both particulars. This is an authority surely which all "Germano-maniacs" are bound to respect. Let this be followed by a study of the parable in the Hitopadesá, or Hending, or elsewhere, which tells how a certain foreman of a jury made his complaint of the eleven obstinate jurymen who were standing out against him.

History of Lexington, Kentucky: Its Early Annals and Recent Progress. By George W. Ranck. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1872.)—It is a hundred and sixty years since Lexington, Mass., was set apart from Cambridge and incorporated under its present name. Five years ago its historian, Hudson, could reckon twenty-two counties, cities, and towns "scattered over every section of our wide, extended country, including the Pacific States," which had been called after it on account of its Revolutionary fame. Of these, Lexington, Kentucky, was the earliest; and it is the only one which has acquired national distinction, if we except the Missouri town whose capture by the Confederate General Price in 1861 was an event of some significance and great notoriety at the time. Except in name, however, there is no relationship between the Lexington of April 19, 1775, and the Blue Grass Lexington. The latter was essentially a Virginian settlement, and its true parentage was shown when the conflict of Puritan and "First Family" principles compelled it to take sides with one or the other. Its allegiance was divided between the Confederacy and the Union, and its citizens enlisted in both armies; but this was a Border State necessity, and we judge from Mr. Ranck's discreet allusions to the subject that its Confederate contingent was the darling one, and that it is still fashionable in Lexington to mourn over the "lost cause." We are not aware that the Massachusetts volunteers actually faced and fought their Kentucky namesakes on the field of battle, though this would doubtless have been peculiarly agreeable to the latter. Their opposition, however, was none the less real.

Mr. Ranck has adopted the plan of treating each year's events by themselves, skipping from one topic to another without warning or any mark of discrimination, and sometimes with very ludicrous effect. The biographies accordingly are scattered throughout the book, which thus loses what might have been a fairly imposing feature. For we have glimpses here of the Marshalls, the Todds, the Breckinridges, and the Clays; of the Gratzes and Gratz Browns; of Amos Kendall; of Jeff. Davis, who was educated at the Transylvania University; of good Bishop Asbury and Peter Cartwright; of James Wilkinson, once the General of the United States Army, to whose neglected grave in Mexico the Secretary of War has just called the attention of Congress; of Daniel Boone, Robert Patterson, and other pioneers—not to speak of a large number of eminent lawyers, politicians, and inventors such as any town historian might rejoice in. Next after the late Horace Greeley, Henry Clay had no worshippers more devoted than his neighbors, the people of Lexington. They carried their reverence so far that, in 1845, instead of mobbing his kinsman, Cassius M. (then editing an anti-slavery paper called the *True American*), gutting his home, tar-and-feathering him, and throwing his press and materials into the Elkhorn, they appointed a committee "to safely box up the articles and ship them to Cincinnati, after which Mr. Clay was notified of the address of the house to which they had been sent subject to his order, with all charges and expenses paid." They even cheerfully paid $2,500 additional to indemnify two of the committee, against whom Mr. Clay subsequently obtained judgment for their forbearing and courteous treatment of his property.

It would be easy to make interesting extracts from Mr. Ranck's ample store of anecdote and tradition, did space permit. In these days of Crédit Mobilier, however, we must make room for the following example of the delicacy which, according to Messrs. Oakes Ames, Bingham, Brooks, and Kelley, it is absurd in a public officer to profess:

"Commissioners were appointed [1792] by the House of Representatives to select a permanent seat of government, then a matter of great jealousy and contention between the people of the opposite sides of the Kentucky River. Five gentlemen were chosen, any three of whom might fix upon a location. Their names were Robert Todd, of Fayette; John Edwards and John Allen, of Bourbon; Henry Lee, of Mason; and Thos. Kenneday, of Madison. The commissioners met soon after their appointment, when it was found that two were in favor of Frankfort, and two for Lexington. The matter was decided by the vote of General Robert Todd for Frankfort.

Why General Todd decided against his own town has long been a mystery to many, but it is known that he regarded his position as a delicate one, inasmuch as he owned a large amount of land in this vicinity, and feared if he gave his vote for his own place of residence, it might be attributed to motives of personal interest" (p. 175).

Journalism in the United States from 1690 *to* 1872. By Frederic Hudson. (New York: Harpers, 1873.)—The subject of this book is so important that the book itself deserves attention, but we cannot say that Mr. Hudson has succeeded in accomplishing the task set before him. We have as the result of his labors a thick volume stuffed with every imaginable kind of newspaper history, gossip, and anecdote. In such a collection there is of course a large amount of valuable information, but it has been collected and put together in such a way as to leave the history of Journalism in the United States still unwritten. Some idea of Mr. Hudson's style may be gathered from his Introduction, in which he has brought together a number of quotations from various authors bearing directly or remotely on journalism. In this collection we find the quotation, "Give me the liberty to know, to alter (*sic*), and to argue, freely, according to conscience, above all liberties," attributed to "John Milton, the Cromwellian Editor." The lines

> "'Tis pleasant, sure, to see one's name in print;
> A book's a book, although there's nothing in't,"

have given them for an author "Byron after the newspaper critics." "That mine adversary had written a book" is quoted from "Newspaper critic after Job"; Puck is referred to as the "first telegraph operator," and we find that the verse

> "How doth the little busy bee," etc.,

is taken from "Isaac Watts's Eulogy on newspaper reporters." It is needless to say that Mr. Hudson's style was formed in the office of the *Herald*.

Mr. Hudson divides the history of journalism in this country into six periods. "First, the first American newspapers, 1690–1704; second, the Colonial Press, 1704–1755; third, the Revolutionary Press, 1755–1783; fourth, the Political Party Press, the Religious Press, the Agricultural Press, the Sporting Press, the Commercial Press, 1783–1833; fifth, the Transition Press, the Cheap Press, 1833–1835; sixth, the Independent Press, the Telegraph Press, 1835–1872." Any one can see for himself, however, that these divisions are of the loosest and most arbitrary kind. The Political Party Press did not come to an end in 1833; nor indeed did the Religious Press cease in that year to issue newspapers, nor the Agricultural Press, nor the Sporting Press, nor the Commercial Press; and we must suspect the "Transition Press" to have been invented for the purpose of bridging over the chasm between the fourth and sixth divisions, rather than because it defines any definite school of journalism. We doubt very much whether it is profitable to attempt such a classification at all; at any rate, it should be done from a more philosophical point of view than that indicated here. But Mr. Hudson does not pretend to be a philosopher. Inflated gossip of the "reportorial" sort is his vein, and both the inflation and the gossip are amusing.

Incidents in my Life. By D. D. Home. (New York: Holt & Williams. 1872).—We had a right to expect from Mr. Home at least an interesting book. From time to time we have heard so much of this gentleman's accomplishments, as shown, for instance, in his gift of physical self-elongation and of contraction at will, of floating in and out of fifth-story windows, and of sportively transcending the most uniform physical laws, that we looked with some confidence to this book, the second in the series of Mr. Home's confessions, for some hint respecting the nature of his miraculous gifts. The introduction assures us that Mr. Home "writes as a man thoroughly in earnest, and who has himself no doubts of the phenomena which attend him." It tells how these phenomena commenced in his childhood, how they have been with him ever since, except during a few brief intervals, and how, while bringing him public notice and some valuable friendships, they have been "in some respects an inconvenience and a misfortune, and betoken conditions that do not promise length of days." Of the inconveniences and misfortunes to which Mr. Home's experiences as a medium have subjected him, we have already heard a part at least in Mr. Browning's poem, called "Mr. Sludge the Medium." Mr. Home admits that he has "reason to believe that Mr. Browning did intend his fancy portrait of Mr. Sludge to represent me"; but he is "unable to discern what characteristic of poetry" these verses possess other than the fact "that they were *made* by Mr. Browning." With his admission that he was the original Mr. Sludge the interest of his criticism ceases. He gives us no arguments or data by which to refute the arraignment by Mr. Browning, so that we must conclude that, although "Mr. Sludge the Medium" may be a very poor poem, yet it is a damaging attack upon Mr. Home.

We approach the chapter upon "Elongation and Compression" in a mood of somewhat heated expectation. Mr. Home, however, does not tell us a single word respecting the way in which he was "elongated" and "compressed," but a witness who calls himself Mr. Jenkin says, that on one occasion "Mr. Home lengthened to about 6 ft. 9 in., and then he shortened down below his normal height to about 5 ft. He then asked me to hold his feet, which I did by planting my foot on his instep whilst Mr. —— held his head, his left hand being placed on his left shoulder. We carefully measured the extent of elongation against the wall—it showed 8 in." The rest of the book is hoplessly dull. Nearly two hundred pages are occupied with a depressing account of the chaucery suit which arose from Mrs. Jane Lyon's bequest to Mr. Home of "twenty-four thousand pounds cash," and £6,798 17s. 4d. three per cent. consolidated bank annuities, equivalent to the further sum of six thousand pounds cash." Our readers will remember the result of this litigation, but the present volume breaks off abruptly with Mr. Home's lawyer's blame of Mrs. Lyon for "stating that she did not love the defendant." In the "Third Series," which we are led to expect as a pendant to the present volume, we hope that we shall learn who got the thirty thousand pounds, and something about the way in which Mr. Home practises "elongation" and "compression."

Die Rhetorik der Griechen und Römer, in systematischer Uebersicht dargestellt. Von Dr. Richard Volkmann. (Berlin, 1872, pp. 505. New York: B. Westermann & Co.)—This is a welcome contribution to the history of a lost art. Not many scholars outside of Germany have leisure to read and digest for themselves the twelve good-sized volumes of rhetoricians in the collections of Walz and of Spengel, Cornificius, Cicero's rhetorical books, and Quintilian, all as an aid to more important studies. Ernesti's Lexicon is antiquated, and its lexical form does not admit a scientific and systematic exposition of the subject. The most that has been done since Ernesti's day lies scattered round in commentaries, if we except the 'Hermagoras, oder Elemente der Rhetorik,' by the same Dr. Volkmann, published in 1865. The new work is entirely rewritten. In commending the book we do not mean, of course, to imply that any text-book on rhetoric can ever make speakers. Even the new-fledged German orators must find their inspiration in the real issues of the day, and may not be sensibly guided by the rules of the ancient rhetoricians. But for an intelligent appreciation of the Greek orators, of Cicero, and of the literature of the Roman imperial age, when rhetoric was the groundwork of education and touched life and letters at so many points, an exhaustive work of reference is almost indispensable.

A Concordance to the Constitution of the United States of America. With a Classified Index, and Questions for Educational Purposes. By Charles W. Stearns, M.D. (New York: Mason, Baker & Pratt. 1872.)—The title of this work sufficiently indicates its scope, and we need only add that it contains the full text of the Constitution preceding the analysis of it in the classified index. The plan adopted seems to meet all the requirements of ready reference, and the mechanical execution of the book leaves nothing to be desired. Legislators of all grades, lawyers, editors, and school-teachers, will find it convenient and useful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
An Orphan of the Old Dominion	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Appleton's Hand-Book of Southern Travel	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Craven (Mme. A.), Fleurange	(Holt & Williams) $1 25
Dasent (G. W.), Lady Sweetapple, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 0 75
Dumas (A., fils), Man-Woman	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Erckmann-Chatrian (MM.), Lettre d'une Electeur, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Fittig (R.), Wöhler's Outlines of Organic Chemistry	(H. C. Lea)
Hillern (Wilhelmine von), A Twofold Life	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 75
Lawrence (W. B.), Commentaire sur les Eléments de Henry Wheaton, tome III., swd	(F. W. Christern)
Life of Rev. John Henry Hopkins	(F. J. Huntington & Co.) 5 00
Littell's Living Age, Vol. XXVII., Oct. and Dec., 1872	(Littell & Gay)
Riddle (A. G.), Law Students and Lawyers	(W. H. & O. H. Morrison)
Springer (Rebecca R.), Beechwood	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Stanley (H. M.), How I Found Livingstone	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 5 00
Stockton (F. R.), The Home	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Taine (H.), The Philosophy of Art, 2d ed	(Holt & Williams) 1 25
Taylor (Rev. W. M.), The Lost Found	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
The Cavalier and his Lady	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
The Greatest Plague of Life, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0 50
The True History of Joshua Davidson, Communist	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 0 40
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Watt (R.), Hinsides Atlanterhavet, I., swd	(F. W. Christern)
Wells (Mary G.), Marie Derville	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Wharton (C.), Treatment of the Horse	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Whitaker (J.), Almanack for 1873	(J. Whitaker)
Wright (E.), Savings Bank Life Insurance	(Boston)
Wright (W. B.), The Brook and Other Poems	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Yale Naughtical Almanac for 1873, swd	(C. C. Chatfield & Co.)
Yeager (G.), The Garden of Eden	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Yates (E.), The Yellow Flag	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 0 75
Zeitschrift für Erdkunde, No. 40, swd	(L. W. Schm'dt)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

February 10, 1873.

NO improvement has taken place, since our last report, in the condition of the money market, which has remained active at 7 per cent. to 7 per cent. and a commission of $\frac{1}{16}$ per diem added. A fair quotation for the week would be 7 per cent. gold to $\frac{1}{32}$ interest. Loans were made as low as 4 per cent., but they were exceptional and late in the day. Money is easy on call in Boston, where a large amount has been accumulating in preparation for the expected requirements of building purposes in the spring; but there is no disposition to loan much out on time at anything like the call rates. In New York "time money" is the cheapest, provided borrowers take it for 5 or 6 months—a great deal having recently been loaned at 7 per cent. and 7 per cent. gold for that time.

Owing to a scarcity of commercial paper, the market has been dull. A large amount was taken by buyers last month at the higher rates then prevailing, which pretty well cleared the market, and there has been, since then, very little making. Rates for first-class commission names are quoted 7½ to 8½ per cent., and for good names 9 to 12 per cent.

The condition of the European money markets has undergone no change. The Bank of England rate of discount remains at 3½ per cent., with money in the open market still lower. The Bank of England reports a gain of £379,000 in bullion, and the Bank of France a loss of 250,000 francs.

We regret to say that little progress is being made in the Legislature, apparently, towards the repeal of the usury law. A bill has been introduced in the Senate repealing the present misdemeanor clause, and providing that when more than 7 per cent. per annum is charged for the use of money the lender can be forced to forfeit all interest, but obtain payment of the principal. There is some probability that a law will be passed exempting bonds and mortgages from taxation; but it may only apply to the Counties of New York, Kings, and Westchester.

The bank statement is again unfavorable, showing, when compared with that of the previous week, a falling off of $271,200 in the reserve, and an increase of $3,150,300 in the liabilities. The banks now hold $2,188,150 in excess of the legal reserve, against $3,246,925 last week—a falling off of $1,058,775.

The following are the statements for the two weeks ending February 1 and February 8:

	Feb. 1.	Feb. 8.	Differences.
Loans	$286,879,600	$293,939,000	Inc. $7,059,400
Specie	18,612,200	19,035,400	Inc. 423,200
Circulation	27,501,000	27,520,600	Inc. 19,600
Deposits	217,168,500	220,299,200	Inc. 3,130,700
Legal tenders	45,802,100	45,107,700	Dec. 694,400

The following analysis of the above shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Feb. 1.	Feb. 8.	Differences.
Specie	$18,612,200	$19,035,400	Inc. $423,200
Legal tenders	45,802,100	45,107,700	Dec. 694,400
Total reserve	$64,414,300	$64,143,100	Dec. $271,200
Circulation	27,501,000	27,520,600	Inc. 19,600
Deposits	217,168,500	220,299,200	Inc. 3,130,700
Total liabilities	$244,669,500	$247,819,800	Inc. 3,150,300
25 per cent. reserve	61,167,375	61,954,950	
Excess over legal reserve	3,246,925	2,188,150	Dec. 1,058,775

The Stock market has been active. The predictions made by the newspapers and parties favorable to the success of the syndicates relative to the placing of the new 5 per cent. bonds, at the time of the opening of the subscription books, caused quite a buoyant feeling to be manifested on the Stock Exchange, and prices started up on Monday in the most encouraging manner for the "bulls." As the week wore on without any reliable information as to the success of the loan, there was a halt in the upward movement, and the market became weak and unsteady, finally closing on Saturday ½ to 3½ per cent. off from the highest quotations of the week.

The principal dealings have been carried on in Western Union Telegraph, the total transactions for the week footing up 458,000 shares. The opening price on Monday was 87½, from which point there was an advance to 94½. It is now pretty well ascertained that Commodore Vanderbilt has been a large purchaser with the view of obtaining the control of the Company. The following explanation of the movement in the stock, last week, is given in the New York *Times* of February 7:

"For some years past the policy of the administration of the Company has been to apply their net earnings to the purchase and withdrawal of their own stock; to reduce the capital of $40,000,000, which would be made to pay only a moderate dividend at the time on this sum, to (or below) $30,000,000. Pursuant to this conclusion, the stock to the amount of $10,500,000 has been gradually purchased and withdrawn. But it transpires that the profits of the concern justified the purchase of and payment for only about $8,000,000, or 80,000 shares of the stock, in cash, and that on 25,000 additional shares the Company were borrowers of about $1,000,000 cash (report says $950,000) on pledge of the stock. The loan was made through the Stock Exchange house of Mr. Horace F. Clark, and the stock was supposed to be tied up, or hypothecated for the loan. When the present *Bull* movement for control of the Company was made apparent on the street, it was not only *not* favored by the President of the Company, or by Messrs. H. F. Clark, Augustus Schell, and John Steward, but the suspicion was current that they were really hostile to the advance, having sold their own stock, if not *short* on the market. On Sunday last, Mr. Orton, the President, then at Chicago, seeing the price up to 88 *a* 89 per cent., telegraphed to his Vice-President to resell 15,000 shares of the stock, previously retired by the Company, through Clark's Stock Exchange brokers, Messrs. George B. Grinnell & Co. He had no authority to do so, as the stock was wholly under the control of the Executive Committee of the Company, Messrs. E. D. Morgan, Banker, A. B. Cornell, Clark, Schell, Steward, Palmer, Greenleaf, Wesley, and Durkee. The 15,000 shares were not withdrawn from the 25,000 hypothecated stock with Messrs. Grinnell & Co., but were issued directly from the office of the Company, and the proceeds (not needed in the current finances of the concern) were reloaned to Clark's firm on other stock collateral. When Mr. Vanderbilt and his friends discovered, yesterday evening, the surreptitious sale of the stock of the Company at 88½*a*87¾ per cent. on Tuesday, without the shadow of authority, and that heavy *short* sales had been made on 'private information' that 'the Company were selling,' they jumped to the not unreasonable conclusion that the same brokers who had advanced less than 40 per cent. on the other 25,000 shares belonging to the Company had possibly lent the stock out on the Street to parties hostile to the recent advance. The result was a rise, in a few hours, of 5*a*6 per cent. above the prices of Tuesday."

The Pacific Mail Steamship Company "has broken another shaft," but notwithstanding this additional calamity the stock suddenly improved about the time the news came in the Street and jumped from 72 to 75, continuing to advance till Friday, when the price reached 76⅞. Erie, next to Western Union, has been most actively dealt in. The fluctuations of the week in the active stocks have been as follows: N. Y. C. and H. R., 106¼ to 104⅝; Erie, 69¼ to 65¾; Lake Shore, 96½ to 94⅝; Rock Island, 114⅛ to 113⅛; B. H. and Erie, 10¼ to 8⅝; Ohio and Miss., 49⅜ to 48⅛; C. C. and I. C., 43¼ to 40¼; Western Union, 94½ to 87½; Pacific Mail, 76⅞ to 71¾.

The Treasury has given notice that $100,000,000 5-20's of the issue of 1862 will be redeemed, and interest will cease upon them on and after March 1. This is considered as evidence that the syndicates have succeeded in negotiating the sale of at least a like amount of new 5 per cents. The exact amount of subscriptions cannot be ascertained for some days, and in the meantime the members of the syndicates keep very quiet regarding the success of the loan. Considerable opposition has been met with from certain of the German bankers, who were "left out in the cold," by their operations in the foreign markets on bonds, and also in our gold market, which tended to discourage subscriptions on both sides of the Atlantic.

The State and railroad bond markets have been dull and free from any important movements beyond an advance in Central Pacific Railroad bonds to 104¼, which is, we believe, the highest price for any 6 per cent. railroad bond in this market, and is due to their popularity as an investment in Europe—principally in Germany. The earnings of the road show a handsome increase over those of last year. Tennessee bonds are lower.

The gold market is strong, the price having touched 114¼ on Saturday and closed at 114. The German bankers, before referred to, have been making desperate efforts to create the impression of a failure of the syndicates in their operations, and, in order to do so, have taken hold of the gold market and run up the price. The continued shipments, however, have something to do with the advance. The amount shipped last week was $1,642,370, making the total amount shipped since January 1, 1873, $9,045,104, against $1,022,353 for the same period in 1872, $4,310,675 in 1871, $3,674,417 in 1870, $5,130,172 in 1869, and $9,752,227 in 1868.

BANKING OFFICE OF FISK & HATCH,
No. 5 Nassau Street, New York, Feb. 5, 1873.

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We buy and sell, as usual, Government Bonds, receive deposits, on which we allow interest, make collections, and conduct a general banking business in all its branches.

FISK & HATCH.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 20, 1873.

The Week.

THE President has sent a message to Congress, calling for legislation to put the criminal procedure in Utah more completely in the control of the Federal courts and officials, so as to avoid the results of the selection of juries under the laws of the Territorial legislature, which a recent decision of the Supreme Court has declared to be the valid mode. He recommends that the preparation of the jury-lists be placed, if not in the hands of the United States Courts and their officers, at least in the hands of persons entirely independent of "those who are determined not to enforce any acts of Congress obnoxious to them"; and he also calls for some remedy for the interference of the Mormon Probate Courts with the administration of criminal justice by their issue of writs of habeas corpus. There ought not to be any difference of opinion as to the expediency of acting on these recommendations, but they will doubtless be prejudiced by the belief that there exists a desire on the part of large numbers of Christians to get hold of Mormon lands and mines, and that they have succeeded in bringing a strong Methodist influence to bear on the President on the subject of Mormon enormities, and are warmly in favor of the root-and-branch method of dealing with the polygamists, and have done something towards that conversion of the United States Court into a missionary organization of the Mohammedan or Jewish type on which we commented last year. Some of the very best observers of Mormonism are, however, strongly of opinion that the sword of the Lord and of Gideon, and especially the sword of Gideon, had better, just at present, be kept in the sheath; that all the forces of civilization are working against Mormonism much more effectually than legislation could ever do; that the case is a very peculiar one, which requires considerable patience and self-restraint on our part; and that noble a thing as a crusade on behalf of chastity and monogamy might be, crusaders, in our day, are so apt to be lewd rascals that the longer they are kept at home in some dull, honest calling, the better, even if in the meantime the heathen indulge in a little exultation.

The Butler bill regulating the award of the *Alabama* damages has passed the House, but it differs from the Senate bill in remitting the work of distribution to the courts instead of a commission. There will, therefore, be a conference, with what prospect of agreement we do not know. A letter was read in the course of the debate from Mr. Fish to the American Counsel at Geneva, warning them not to pledge the Government to any particular mode or principle of distribution, and this was evidently considered in the House as settling the question of the absolute power of the Government over the fund. In reality, it affects the question in no degree whatever. The relation of the Government to the award is regulated not by what Mr. Fish said to the Counsel, but by the reasons the Counsel gave the Tribunal, in their evidence and pleadings, for asking for the money, and the reasons the Tribunal gave for awarding it. All attempts to govern it by other considerations are simply quibbling of a not very reputable sort. The claims of the insurance companies were submitted to the Tribunal in virtue of those principles of general commercial law which it is now proposed to repudiate, and a new rule of distribution, of which nobody ever heard before, is introduced, which acknowledges the right of insurance companies which have voluntarily undertaken war risks in the regular course of their business, to compensation out of the Government treasury if their ventures have not turned out well. Congress ought now in decency to impose this rule on the courts, and abolish the doctrine of subrogation, and make the companies' claim to salvage depend upon the result of the year's business.

As we go to press, the Crédit Mobilier affair is in the hands of no less than three committees. First, the Poland Committee, charged with the duty of investigating the accusations against individual members of the House; second, the Wilson Committee, having in hand the investigation of the entire Pacific Railroad business; and third, the Senate Committee, to whom the cases of Senators Harlan, Patterson, and Wilson have been referred. Harlan's reputation was damaged in this way: from the undisputed testimony of Durant, it appeared that two checks for $5,000 each, payable to Harlan's order, were sent to him when he was engaged in getting himself elected to the Senate from Iowa, for the good of the cause, or, as Durant says, because he wanted to see good men in the Senate. Harlan has not found himself able to give any definite account of this money (which, it is worth observing, came in reality from the United States, through the hands of Durant acting for the Union Pacific); but he has given a very amusing picture of a Western Senatorial election, in his endeavor to explain why so much money was necessary. According to his account, the interest taken by the people when a Senatorial election comes off in Iowa is so intense that they throng together from all parts of the United States to the State Capitol. They come in such haste that they forget to bring money with them for their current expenses, and, when the contest is over, there are several hundreds of prominent lawyers, judges, generals, railroad men, and citizens of all grades, absolutely unable to get home again, unless somebody pays their hotel, and carriage, and washing bills. The victorious Senator settles these, and any one can see that there is no bribery or corruption about such little offices of Christian kindness as this. In this way, Mr. Harlan spent $10,000, or, as he thinks, rather more.

Oakes Ames has produced his memorandum-book, and corroborated his statements about the implicated members by the exhibition of the original entries, made at or about the time of the transactions with them. This evidence, which no attempt has been made to impeach, is of a very high order, and makes it pretty clear that Ames's first story was a tissue of prevarications, and that, when he was brought "to bay," his statements were true. Mr. Colfax has made a desperate effort to explain the check payable to "S. C.", dated June 20, 1868, and his deposit of $1,200, made June 22, 1868; but without much success. He has proved (to give him the full benefit of his own evidence) that he received $1,200 some time in June, 1868, in two amounts of $200 from his father-in-law, Mr. Matthews, and $1,000 from one Nesbitt, of New York, who sent it in a thousand-dollar bill as a contribution to the political expenses of the campaign of that year, imploring Mr. Colfax to say nothing about it. There are no dates or vouchers for this; but the most singular thing of all is that the whole matter should have been entirely forgotten by Mr. Colfax when it was most necessary for him to recollect it, that is to say, when his bank account first came to light, although he now says that the receipt of this money affected his mind at the time as a remarkable and astonishing fact.

Senator Patterson's case is a pretty clear one; he does not deny that his signature to the receipts for Crédit Mobilier dividends is genuine, but he says his confidence in Oakes Ames was so entire that he probably signed without reading them, supposing all the time that his money had been invested in Union Pacific securities—a likely story, which has been rendered still more probable by the discovery of Mr. Patterson's certificates of stock endorsed to him by Oakes Ames in the safe of Morton, Bliss & Co. of this city. Mr. Morton has testified that the certificates were left with his firm for safekeeping (apparently in 1871), in an envelope, and put away without his knowing or thinking anything more about it, he having no account with Senator Patterson in Crédit Mobilier. He has an impression they were left there by Oakes Ames. Oakes Ames

swears that he did not leave them; but all this is child's play, except so far as it serves to clear Mr. Morton of complicity in these transactions. Mr. Morton had formerly stated that he had no shares in Crédit Mobilier for Mr. Patterson; the fact being that he did not at the time know of this envelope in his safe.

Perhaps the most extraordinary, most shameful, and most depressing of all the incidents of the "exposures" of the last three years has been the appearance of a United States judge as a common "striker" and lobbyist, in the person of Mr. C. T. Sherman, the brother of the Senator and of the General of that name, and Judge of the District Court of Northern Ohio. It appears that hearing that the New York Stock Exchange wished to procure the repeal of the tax on borrowed capital, he made an arrangement with one of its principal members, Mr. Lockwood, since dead, to aid in bringing about the repeal; and, after the repeal had been effected, demanded $10,000 for his services, saying that "he had gone to work, and had an interview with John Sherman, Chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, with Mr. Garfield, and other prominent members of Congress, and the result was that it became the policy of the Administration to repeal not only the tax in question, but the stamp and other taxes, and that he thought this result was brought about by discussions raised and influences used by him." Being brought before the Committee of Ways and Means, however, he denied point-blank that he had had any interviews with the gentlemen named, or had "raised discussions," or "used influences," or had anything to do with the repeal of the tax, and that he wanted the money for Judge Bartley, his brother-in-law, and Mr. R. C. Parsons, the Marshal of the Supreme Court, to whom he had handed over the job in question, and who did it. It appears plain, therefore, that the Judge has been guilty, on his own statements, either of corruption or of lying and obtaining money under false pretences. If the sense of honor and sense of shame be dead among men in public life, there is nothing for it but to strike terror by some means, and the obvious and imperative course to be pursued with Judge Sherman is to impeach him without delay for one of the two offences; he might even be allowed to elect on which he would go to trial.

One of the most extraordinary of Mr. Boutwell's assertions was one he recently made before the Committee of Ways and Means in Washington, that "our credit is better than that of any other government in the markets generally, better than that of England"; that "the price of consols is not due to the value of English credit, for they do not sell on the Continent at all"; and that "English consols do not sell out of Great Britain." The London *Economist* has taken the matter up, however, and shows that the India Four and Five per cents, and the Canada and New South Wales and South Australia Fives, sell in London at 102, 110, 102, 106, 106, respectively, and the English Three per cents. bring 92, while the American Fives only bring 100. The *Economist* further adds, that Mr. Boutwell's notion that the price of consols is kept up by forced investments of "trust funds" is "a delusion," and that if he meant, as we think he did, that consols do not sell out of Great Britain "because foreigners have some misgivings about the quality of the security itself," it (the *Economist*) cannot but pity the state of mind into which Mr. Boutwell has fallen, and still more deeply pities the country which has such a man for its finance minister! The main reason why consols are not dealt in on the Continent is, that they are not transferable by delivery, a fact of which Mr. Boutwell is probably ignorant, but then why should he have ever burdened himself with the knowledge? He has certainly never found himself at any step of his career hindered by the want of it.

The New York charter has at last been reported to the Legislature, substantially as the Republican Committee drafted it. There is a Mayor and Board of Aldermen, all elected by the city at large, the Board renewable by thirds, which is a great advance on the old system and is a serious blow to "ward politics." The Mayor nominates heads of departments, and the Aldermen confirm if they please; if they cannot agree, he and they go into "joint convention," in which he has only one vote. The various departments are all independent of each other, though their organization is generally approved of. The elections are to be held in the fall along with the others. In fact the whole instrument is as good as is consistent with the grand plan of giving the Republican party the control of the city offices. A majority of reformers voted for Mr. Havemeyer last fall, in the belief, which was strongly preached by the *Times*, that he was a rare man, of long experience and the highest character, whose name more than covered the weakness of the Republican politicians who adopted him as their candidate. We are now informed by the same authority that he is a very weak sort of body, tells lies, is full of treachery, and is far more anxious about the revival of the Democratic party than about the good of the city. Such is the uncertainty of this life. We also learn from the same source that Mr. Tilden, who was popularly supposed in 1871 to be the principal actor in the reform movement, is also a liar, and very cowardly and tricky, and had nothing or next to nothing to do with the reform movement.

The arguments by which the refusal to the Mayor of the appointing power is defended show that we are still very far from any radical reform. In one breath we are told to "trust the people," that they will set things to rights, but in the next we are warned that if the Mayor be allowed to make the appointments, he will be able to re-elect himself and do various other bad things as much as he pleases; or, in other words, will completely bamboozle "the people" and set them at defiance. Then we are told that the Board of Aldermen must share the appointing power, because the United States Senate shares it with the President, as if the mode of appointing subordinate ministerial officers was something fixed by absolute principle, and did not depend on time and place and circumstances. It may be proper to restrain a king or president by a council chamber, but very ridiculous to shackle a mayor or bank president in the same way. All our efforts are, or ought to be, directed just now to the extirpating of the notion which has worked all our woes that the city is a political community, and obtaining recognition of the fact that it is a commercial corporation. The best model for its government is, therefore, that of a bank or a factory, and not either that of the German Empire or the American Republic or the British Monarchy, or any other great state of ancient or modern times. If the Mayor should, through the appointing power, seat himself so firmly in the executive chair that he could not be got out by "the people" at the end of his term by a regular vote, why, we should appeal to arms. The custom-house tocsin would ring out wild and clear, and we should rally under Murphy and Gardiner and Bliss and Davenport, and overthrow the tyrant in the City Hall, and cut off his wicked old head.

The surveyorship of this port was left vacant by the election of Mr. Cornell to the State Legislature. The case was clearly one for the application of the civil-service rules, so clearly indeed that the friends of the reform felt that it would prove a crucial case, coming as it did after "the suspension of the rules" in the case of the Chicago and Princeton postmasterships, and were greatly troubled when they found the President hesitating about the course he should pursue. Mr. Curtis, we understand, went to Washington, and labored with him successfully to overcome the influence of the "Republican Ring," for such is the name given to the little clique of four men who have succeeded Tweed, Sweeny, Hall, and Connolly in the government of the city and State. The result was that Mr. Benedict, the Deputy Surveyor, was nominated under the rules to the vacant place, and there was considerable rejoicing in the reform camp over this happy result. More than a fortnight ago, however, the members of the Ring who were violently opposed to the rules began to brag openly that they had the President's promise that the name should be withdrawn. It now turns out that they were right; the name has been withdrawn, but the reform is never-

theless to work, for the new nominee is to be selected by examination from the present Custom-house employees.

There is a large body of people, and they are usually present in great force in political conventions and in legislatures, who are never easy unless they are "hailing" somebody or something with "delight" or "joy" or "pride" or "satisfaction." Indeed, some of them pass half their time looking for something to "hail." The Spaniards, who have shown themselves thus far the most ungovernable people in Europe, except the French, and are inferior to the French in other ways, have just set up a republic, owing to their king, poor fellow, having run away in disgust. If they do not succeed any better with a republic than with a monarchy, they have a sorry future before them; but, at all events, their best friends must admit that the experiment is dubious, because nothing is surer than that a people which cannot work one kind of government is apt not to be able to work another. Therefore, we may venture to remind the Massachusetts Legislature, which has a "hailing" resolution under consideration, that the time to congratulate the Spaniards will be five years hence, when they have shown that they can make a republic work by preserving order and paying their debts and making roads.

Prince Bismarck made in the Reichstag, on the 25th, an explanation of the late ministerial crisis, which has been reprinted, as the official version of the transaction, in the *Correspondance de Berlin*, by which the German Government keeps its diplomatic agents informed of what is going on in home politics. He said, in reply to questions, that the reason of his retirement was a great deal more simple than it seemed; that the truth was that the Department of Foreign Affairs, the Chancellorship of the Empire, and the Presidency of the Prussian Council were too much for him; that as years rolled on, and his nervous force declined, he felt that he must cut down his work on one side or the other, and that he found that the Prussian Presidency was what made the heaviest demands on his strength and involved most responsibility; that it was this he could lay aside with the least loss of influence, and influence was a thing he could not surrender; that no differences of opinion in the Ministry had led to his retirement; that in all recent discussions in the Ministry he had always voted with the majority. He discussed in a very interesting way the differences between the English and Prussian Constitution, as regards the composition and responsibility of the Ministry, but pronounced strongly against the applicability of the English theory or practice to Prussian politics, and maintained that responsibility to the King and not to Parliament, and government through the men of his choice, and not through persons thrown to the head of affairs by a parliamentary majority, was the form best suited to the present stage of political development in Germany.

If the Ministry as now constituted perfects those reforms in church and state which the Liberal programme calls for, the result will go far to justify the Prussian system of a collegiate ministry, responsible to a personal sovereign, in preference to a prime minister who is amenable nominally to parliament, but really to a party majority. It is this system which is now on trial—a system which combines all shades of politics in the actual government, gives to minorities their share of influence, and secures to the king his personal co-operative activity in the affairs of state. If it shall bear the test of a change of leadership in face of the country and of Europe, with no perceptible shock to public interests, it may succeed in combining moderation with progress and in making of government, the representative of the whole nation, instead of the tool of a party. This is the ground which Count von Roon himself took in his parrying speech of January 9th in the Chamber of Deputies. He likened the ministry to an orchestra executing a symphony, in which each member played his own part, and the momentary discords only made the final harmony the more enjoyable. Besides, the degree of apparent harmony might depend very much upon the ear or the mood of the listener. Old parties, he said, were vanishing, issues were changing, and he would promise nothing more than fidelity to the constitution and the king, with constant deference to the wishes of that great party, "the honored people." Though the new President gave no hint of his policy for the future, he demanded that the Government should be sustained by confidence, and not restrained by distrust.

The measures for the control of the Catholic clergy by the state, introduced into the Prussian Parliament, to which we referred last week, though they look toward the cultivation of manliness, independence, and patriotism in the clergy, and the protection of Catholic subjects in their civil rights, are in some points so arbitrary as to raise doubts of their constitutional validity. Accordingly, the commission to which the bill was referred have thought it advisable to propose certain changes in the Constitution, which shall qualify all rights and privileges conceded to the church by an explicit declaration of the paramount authority of the state, and its right to supervise the education and the discipline of the church. These changes must be agreed upon by a majority of both Houses, by two distinct votes of each, with an interval of twenty-one days between the first and second approval. The amendments, however, are likely to prove only another juggle of words, by which, in the event of the separation of church and state, both parties would be seriously embarrassed in defining their liberties and rights.

The love for "investigation" has made its way into Prussia, but it does not there, as here, bring a torrent of dirty abuse on the head of anybody who proposes it. The Prussian Government owns some of the existing railroads, and constructs most of the new ones out of the treasury, and this of course affords opportunities of jobbery, which, it is now said, have in some cases been improved. Herr Lasker recently declared in his place in Parliament that for several years the contracts for the state railroads had been corruptly awarded, and accused the Minister of Commerce, Count Itzenflitz, of having bestowed them on a certain Herr Wagner, a privy councillor, who in his turn sublet them at a handsome profit, and demanded a committee of investigation. The Minister had not much to say in reply, but the Government, instead of setting its champions to call Lasker a "liar," and "adventurer," and a "dog," or fence off enquiry, has promptly appointed a commission of its own to examine the whole matter. We venture to predict, too, that the commission will try to find things out, and not to accumulate materials for whitewash.

The question of the great increase of emigration from Germany, which it was thought some time ago the Government would take some active means of checking, has been brought up in the German Parliament, and with very satisfactory results. Count Eulenberg, the Minister of the Interior, acknowledged the fact, and deplored it, but declared there was no help for it, and attributed it freely to the war, in spite of all that the war has done for the glorification of Fatherland. In the first place, the enormous rise of prices has, as is usual, not been followed by a corresponding increase of wages, and the laboring classes are suffering severely, although the Treasury is bursting with gold. In the next place, the small capitalists, who, it appears, are the class which is contributing most largely to the tide of emigration, have been seriously alarmed by the loss of life in the French war, and by the great uncertainty about the political future created by the new rôle which Germany has undertaken on the Continent, and which makes another tremendous conflict one of the everyday contingencies. They are, therefore, afraid to embark or continue in business, and are hurrying off with their little all to the only country in which the field of enterprise is not troubled by wars or rumors of wars, and where the worst enemies the industrious man has to fear are the "workers" and "operators." As a remedy for the growing scarcity of agricultural labor, the Minister recommends the increased use of machinery.

HUMAN SACRIFICES IN THE REPUBLICAN PARTY.

WE have probably got to the end of the "Crédit Mobilier" scandal. Oakes Ames has come back with his "memorandum book," and has revealed nothing new; one of the Committees has closed its labors, and the other will shortly do so, but nobody looks to their reports with much interest or anxiety, or waits for them in order to make up his own mind. Congressional Committees of Investigation have long ceased to have anything judicial about them, and are usually employed simply to put a good face on matters which seem likely to damage "the party" in the eyes of the public. It is the evidence they take which interests people out-of-doors, and from this evidence in the Crédit Mobilier matter the country has reached certain conclusions which the report of the Committees will do nothing to modify. One thing is perfectly clear, and that is that a number of men, of high standing in the Republican party, deliberately got up last summer, during the Presidential canvass, and made statements which contained suppressions of the truth, or suggestions of falsehood, mixed in various proportions, and the object of which was to spread the belief that they had had no connection of any kind whatsoever with the Crédit Mobilier, and that the story told by McComb was a pure fiction, used by the Liberal Republicans for campaign purposes. About this there is, unhappily, no doubt. Not one of those charged, except Mr. Blaine, has succeeded in clearing himself at least of the offence of disingenuousness, which, on such a matter, is a serious offence. Now why did they commit it? Certainly not because there was anything in their eyes particularly wrong in owning Crédit Mobilier stock, or in taking it from Oakes Ames. Mr. Ames was a man of excellent standing in the commercial world, at the time these transactions took place; and according to the code which has of late years obtained among politicians, the right to deal in all sorts of commodities, and take commissions to help other people's dealings, is among the "inalienable rights" of every American citizen, which he carries with him into every position. This doctrine was broadly laid down by even so eminent an authority as the late Horace Greeley, when the matter of General Schenck's connection with the Emma Mine was under discussion. According to it, the American man is above all things a trader, or a commission agent, and remains such under all circumstances, and ought not to be asked to divest himself of that character for any purpose whatever. Nobody has ever objected to a Congressman taking stock in iron-works or in a cotton-mill, and then voting for an increase of customs duty that would add enormously to his own dividends. We doubt very much, therefore, whether public sentiment was in such a condition last summer as to make the charge of holding Crédit Mobilier stock a very serious one, unless it could be shown to have directly affected legislation. What made it a serious charge, and therefore led to the flat denials of it or evasive answers to it, was the time at which it was made; that, coming out in the midst of the canvass, it of course suggested bribery in connection with the Union Pacific, and this influence it would have been impossible to upset in time for the election; and the standing of the persons against whom the charge was made was such that "the party" must have seriously suffered at a critical moment from their silence or confession. So to save the party, rather perhaps than to save themselves, they rose one by one, and calmly assured the country that the whole thing was "a Greeley lie." In every one of these statements, it is true, a sharp casuist could, by careful reading, detect a little hole, through which a gentleman in danger of conviction for falsehood could wriggle out; but then the public is not in a casuistical frame of mind during the presidential campaign, and the denials did excellent service as "complete refutations." The party moralists took them as the text of essays on the value of "character," and when all was over, Mr. Colfax used them to point the moral of some reflections contributed by himself to the *Independent* on the question, "Does Calumny Pay?"

In this sacrifice of themselves to the party by individuals there is nothing very new or remarkable. The Republican Congressmen and the Vice-President have only done on a greater scale and with considerable aggravation what the wretched Voorhees of Indiana did after the Greeley nomination at Baltimore. He at once repudiated the convictions solemnly avowed two short months previously, and began to utter a whole string of falsehoods, and to confess himself a cheat, without honor or self-respect, or even common intelligence, simply to help the party in persuading the country that the nominating convention had not done a foolish thing. It must be admitted, too, that a process of "natural selection," or "survival of the fittest," has long been going on in politics, and preparing us for the Crédit Mobilier and similar scandals. Men of independence of character, of high sense of honor, and of strong self-respect, which make them prefer their own opinions to other people's, who will dare to say what they think, and will not do dirty jobs, have for years past found themselves being gradually and carefully removed from public life as impracticable and "antiquated," and have seen the pliable, shallow, adroit, "genial," or unscrupulous tricksters or rhetoricians working into their places, and taking possession of public affairs. Nothing for a long while past has been punished with such sternness as want of fidelity to the party or want of amenability to its discipline—witness the treatment of Trumbull and Grimes and Fessenden during the impeachment trial, and that of Schurz and Trumbull when they voted for investigation last spring. The party has been, in fact, long preparing for itself a rich harvest of shame. Far from execrating the Crédit Mobilier victims, it ought to sit down by them, like Mrs. Bulstrode with her husband in 'Middlemarch,' and weep with them over the common disgrace. If we want to have men in public life who will not have Oakes Ameses hanging about them and offering them little pecuniary favors, and who when charged with cutting down our cherry-tree will stand up and own it, we must put them into public life, and when they are in it keep them in it.

There is one feature more in this miserable business on which a word must be said before passing away from it, we hope finally, and that is the amount of cant and hypocrisy it has brought out on the part of some of the party organs. Last spring they made savage attacks on Mr. Schurz, because he had taken open payment for honest work rendered to the Republican party as a campaign orator, and accused him of shameless greed; they ransacked his accounts at the State Department to try to prove that he had overdrawn his account while in Spain. They then turned on poor Doolittle, and followed him for doing, or appearing to do, a perfectly legitimate thing, in obtaining a cotton permit for a friend during the war, and writing a ridiculous letter in support of his own claim to a share in the profits. But in the Crédit Mobilier revelations they can hardly see any impropriety, and look on at them for the most part in mournful silence, and at last one of them actually avows itself "shocked" by the eagerness with which the public gloats over these painful stories.

Mr. Colfax's defence as that of the Vice-President of the United States, and of the most resolute and sweeping of the deniers of last summer, deserves a word of separate mention. That it could be completely successful, after the discovery that he had prevaricated in his speech at South Bend, he himself can hardly have ventured to hope. The rule of "falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus," if not absolutely fair or correct, is one which is sure to influence people in weighing testimony. He accordingly was at a considerable disadvantage, even in a simple "conflict of veracity" with Oakes Ames, but he was all but completely overwhelmed when the deposit of $1,200 was discovered in his bank account. Now it must be admitted that he did not meet this formidable addition to the proofs against him like a man conscious of his innocence. The emergency was one which a man of honor would have faced with real ardor, in which he would have refused all delays, and discarded all pleas in abatement, and rejected all technical aids. Instead of doing this, however, or anything like this, Mr. Colfax at once became cautious and dilatory. He went before the Senate and asked for a Committee to investigate a simple matter of fact on which another Committee was awaiting his explanation; which he can hardly have

expected the Senate to grant. He employed a lawyer, too, and then went off to attend religious and moral meetings, *apparently* in the hope of weakening the case against him by drawing demonstrations of sympathy from his supporters. Worse than this, he remained silent for ten days; and worse still, he refused to put in his answer till Oakes Ames had come back, and it had been ascertained by cross-examination that he was not likely to submit any previously unsuspected proof. All this strengthened the prejudice against Mr. Colfax, and weakened, what was in itself weak, the testimony of his own family, that, some time in June, he received through the mails a $1,000 bill from a man now dead, and who has left no trace of the donation, from which Mr. Colfax wished to have the inference drawn that this was part of his deposit on the 22d, although he made another deposit of over $1,500 a fortnight later. The other $200 his father-in-law swears he paid him on the 15th of June, or thereabouts, drawing his salary from a government office for the purpose. The strongest piece of evidence in Mr. Colfax's favor is his sending, on the day following his deposit, a draft for political purposes to the West. But then it is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to get people to believe that Oakes Ames began as long as five years ago, to prepare checks and memoranda for the purpose of ruining the leading men in the Republican party, and it has to be borne in mind that, since he began his accusations, his documentary evidence has for the most part borne out his assertions. On the whole, as far as Mr. Colfax is concerned, the affair wears a very hopeless outlook. He has killed himself for "the party," and we hope his fate will be a warning to others.

THE SPANISH REVOLUTION.

THE birth of the Spanish Republic is one of those incidents which any people which had not drunk deep of the cup of degradation would find very humiliating. The Republic exists in Spain because the king, though a courageous and well-meaning man, who came on the invitation of Spanish notables, was so sick of the business of governing the nation that he ran away. He has not been annoyed by opposition to the exercise of arbitrary power, for he has not attempted to exercise it, and, in fact, has suffered from none of the usual mishaps of ambitious monarchs. He has simply found that the turbulence, disorder, want of coherence, and want of loyalty, not to him only, but to any man, principle, or system whatever, were too much for him, and having found it, like a sensible person, he took his departure, leaving, however, the Carlist troops almost in sight of the capital. His disappearance, moreover, has made only two changes in Spain. Justice will now be administered "in the name of the people," and not in the name of the king, and the Spanish state will be called a "Republic." The men who will compose the Cortes will be just the same sort of men as before; the people who elect them will be the same too; the army will probably be a little worse. The amount of virtue, and political sense, and self-restraint in the country has not, perhaps, been diminished by the revolution, but it has not been increased. The good elements in Spanish society were certainly not kept down by a monarch who, it appears, could not even prevent a promotion in the army. Now, it is natural enough that rhetoricians like Señor Castelar should flatter themselves and try to persuade others that a new era has dawned in Spain. He is one of a large band of Latin politicians, upon whom the sound of their own phrases seems to act as a kind of laughing-gas. As the words "people," "justice," "fraternity," "liberty," "humanity," "eternity," "solidarity," "universe," "Man," "Woman," "equality," "development," roll from their lips, a vision of unsurpassed national happiness and splendor opens before their eyes; they see industry flourishing, the law supreme, the taxes rolling in, and the surrounding states crazy with envy. All the mists of tradition and superstition disappear, and the golden sunlight of truth bathes the whole landscape, and the air resounds with patriotic poems and orations, and the applause of vast audiences. Any one, indeed, who read the telegrams, and letters, and speeches which now come in every hour from Spain would imagine that Amadeus had been a bloodstained despot, who had been holding the nation in bondage. Señor Castelar and his friends doubtless do not think so, but they are all possessed with the idea which has had for so many years so powerful an influence on French politics, that there is something malefic in the word "monarchy," and something beneficial and transforming in the word "republic." It is this idea which always makes the removal of the royal insignia from public buildings, and the erasure of the royal name from streets, the earliest work of French revolutions—something to which everything else has to be postponed—and which diffused, even among soberminded Frenchmen, the curious belief, in 1870, that the proclamation of the Republic would change the fortunes of the campaign and drive the Prussians over the frontier; and it is at the bottom of the Spanish rejoicings and excitement over the abdication of Amadeus.

It would be very unfortunate if anything which came from this side of the water, from those who really know what a republic means, and what it needs, should help to strengthen this delusion. Encouragement the Spaniards need, heaven knows, for they are in a very sorry plight, but there ought not to be anything in the form of our encouragement to lead them to believe that when a people calls itself a republic, it has done anything very hopeful or remarkable. When a man who has failed half a dozen times in business, and has spent a large portion of his substance in riotous living, announces his intention to keep a hotel, and takes a house for that purpose, his friends may feel gratified, but they do not fling their caps in the air and surround him with shouts of felicitation. They wait awhile to see how he gets along, and take good care not to assure him that when he puts up a sign is the same thing as making his fortune. As Dickens has well said—"coming out" is nothing very great after all; it is by staying out that a man shows his ability. Any band of knaves and madcaps, as we well know, is competent to set up a republic; it takes statesmen and sober, industrious, self-restrained, and far-seeing people behind them to make a republic last, and any congratulation or uproar which leads men to forget this are mischievous. It may be laid down as a general rule, that any people in the world which is now capable of carrying on a constitutional monarchy is capable of carrying on a republic, and could any day start a republic with a certainty of success. We have no doubt that Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, England, and even Italy, might be converted into republics tomorrow without serious tremor or convulsion, and without seriously interfering with the course of their calm and orderly progress; and we believe also that one great reason why there is in none of these countries any strong desire for a republic, is the confidence of the people that they might establish one if they pleased. In other words, the growth of the capacity for self-government has in all of them reduced monarchy to a form which causes little or no real inconvenience, while it furnishes a link, oftentimes useful, with the past.

The desire for a republic, on the other hand, and the blind confidence that it will supply a general remedy, is usually found strongest in those countries which have shown themselves most incompetent to administer any government whatever. Indeed, it is strikingly analogous to that craving for "gratuitous credit," as they call it, among that school of socialists who think the state ought to lend every man money without interest, and which is always strongest among persons who have least ability or desire to create capital in the ordinary way of producing and saving. There are no countries in Europe in which the seeds of anarchy and social desolation are so deeply sown as Spain and France, none in which the work of government is beset by such awful difficulties, and it is accordingly in these two countries that the rampant and furious republicans most abound.

To both these countries the great value of the republic lies in the fact that it brings them down, to use the mining phrase, to "hard pan." It brings them into actual and unmistak-

able contact with their own weakness, or, in other words, furnishes them with undeniable experience of their own qualities. As long as they have a monarchy, there is always somebody on whom the blame of public disorder can be safely thrown, always somebody who is hindering the new day from dawning, and keeping the poor man from growing rich and the plain girls from finding husbands. The king or the emperor driven away, the hard facts of the situation come out in a clearer light, though not always in a perfectly clear one. Satan by no means quits the scene along with the frivolous and profligate courtiers. In France, the "Right" is still keeping the Left from introducing perfect happiness, and we have no doubt the Carlists, or it may be the army, will retard the millennium for some time to come in Spain. Few persons ever yet failed in life—according to their own story—owing to any defect in themselves. There is usually some unscrupulous though utterly paltry B. who gets the situation, or wins the prize, or secures the business, which Eternal Justice intended for A.; and in all nations which have not yet acquired the virtues in which the foundations of greatness and prosperity are laid, there is sure to be a knot of bad men hindering the right from triumphing. But, nevertheless, in a republic less of this self-deception is possible than under any other system, and Spain will gain much in education, if she gains at first in no other way, from trying the experiment.

INTERCOLLEGIATE EMULATION.

MR. T. W. HIGGINSON'S proposition touching "Intercollegiate Scholarships," in the January number of *Scribner's Monthly*, is perhaps worth a few more words than we spent upon it in reviewing the magazines of the month. The essential part of his plan is as follows: that funds be provided for the encouragement and support of scholars during a definite period of their education, without limitation either as to the institution at which their preparation shall have been made, or as to where they shall continue their study; it being thrown open to the students of all colleges to compete for the benefit of the foundation, and the successful competitors being allowed to get their further instruction where they please, in this country or abroad. So far as this goes, we are in hearty sympathy with the scheme. Liberally endowed and carefully administered scholarships are, as no one will doubt, among the most efficient attainable means for the advancement of the higher education in our land; if we want thoroughly educated and profoundly learned men, we must help those who have the capacity and the disposition to make themselves such; and if wealthy patrons of sound learning can be discovered, with wide enough views to be willing to offer such aid to the deserving, whatever their antecedents, and if organizations can be found to administer the trust properly (a practical difficulty of no small consequence, which Mr. Higginson's suggestions do not go far toward solving), the friends of American education will have reason greatly to rejoice.

But Mr. Higginson has brought forward this unexceptionable scheme in a form and connection which seem to us open to serious animadversion. The grand result, to his mind, will be the intellectual rivalry, the contest in competitive examination, of the different colleges. The leading motive with the applicants is to be the credit which they shall bring to their own nursing-mothers, by whom they are to be specially trained and fitted, in preparation for their measuring themselves against rivals from other quarters. Something like a grand national forcing-system is to be inaugurated; competition is to have its sphere raised and extended, and its inciting influence enhanced. The proposer is "satisfied that no academical emulation now known among us equals that which a system of Intercollegiate Scholarships would create." The "first scholars" in classes, who, having left their competitors behind, are now "lonely beings," would then still have some one to fight against, and their distressing sense of solitude would be relieved. We are referred to the English universities as examples of what can be accomplished in this direction. They are far ahead of our institutions in the organization of intellectual as well as athletic rivalry. In the latter, it is true, we have made a good beginning. Our general regattas are a gratifying exhibition of how college can be pitted against college, to the glory of one above the rest; we have only to utilize the same principle in a grand contest of emulative learning, and the rapid improvement of our education is assured.

In all this, we regret to find ourselves quite at variance with the proposer of the scheme. What he regards as its prominent recommendation is to us its chief drawback. We fear that, if it is carried out, there will be too much disposition to regard its prizes as means of distinction, as insignia of victory. The principle of emulation, which he would fain organize and render effective in the highest education, we look upon with distrust, almost with dislike, and would rather see it restrained and depressed to a yet lower place than it now occupies. True scholarship may be initiated, but can never be carried through, by such means. Among children and half-grown youths, emulation is doubtless a useful auxiliary, and its influence not to be rejected. But it belongs essentially in one category with the birch and the ferule, and all education is of a boyish cast until it is got rid of. Even before the end of the ordinary college course, it needs to be outgrown. Studying for a place at the head, for marks, in order to beat some one else, is an acknowledged bane of our higher institutions; to cast it out, and put in its place study for the true objects of study—the love of knowledge, the desire of self-culture, the ambition to find out and do something for the benefit of mankind—is the eager wish of every enlightened educator. We repudiate the example in this regard of the English universities. They are in far too great a degree places where, under the false stimulus of emulation, men are drilled in narrow lines of study to a tactical perfection which finds its chief reward, first in a place on a comparative list, and in personal and collegiate credit thence accruing, and then in an idle scholarship, held for personal benefit. Hence, in great measure, their barrenness as fields for the increase of knowledge, their great inferiority to the German institutions as concerns the amount of work done in them and the number of great scholars produced. Let us by all means avoid their evil example in the conduct of our education. By the time our students leave college, if not before, let us cease to foster in them a disposition to glory-seeking, either for themselves or for others. There is a legitimate satisfaction in well-earned fame, and in the reflection of that fame upon one's surroundings; but it has its roots in the lower part of our nature, and is only legitimate when thoroughly kept down in a subordinate place; in the weakness of humanity, it tends always to rise above what is better, and our organized effort needs to be directed to its repression rather than its encouragement.

What is least to our mind, however, in Mr. Higginson's paper, is the way in which he glorifies the competitive athletic interest, and its most conspicuous result, the intercollegiate regatta. Surely he greatly overstates and misstates the case when, speaking of the contest of last July, he says that "at night, when the news came that Amherst had won, the name of this modest institution was uttered from a thousand lips with more flattering emphasis than if it had been announced as having given birth to a new Shakespeare"; and again, "The man who pulls his oar or trains his crew with such success as to send the name of his college flashing over the wires, so that the poorest schoolmaster in a Western log-hut may look up with pride and say, '*Et ego in Arcadiâ*,—I also am a son of Amherst'—he is and must be the hero of his little world, while human nature holds its own." Here is almost ludicrous exaggeration. If the effect of Amherst's training is such that this is true of her alumni, she is not at all entitled to the name of "modest," since modesty implies a certain foundation of merit. A schoolmaster of the kind here contemplated would indeed be of the poorest, with little chance of ever emerging from his log-hut. There are doubtless those to whom a successful athlete is more than a second Shakespeare; but, in discussing educational questions, we ordinarily leave the opinions of that class entirely out of the account. An international prize-fight, in like manner, attracts a wonderful amount of interest, and is more flashed over the wires than any purely intellectual contest would be; thousands are willing to risk their money on its result, and perhaps even the best of us, much as he may be ashamed of himself for it, feels a wish that our champion may win, and is mortified if he is beaten. Now we do not at all mean to put boating-matches on a par with prize-fights; and yet there is an undeniable analogy between them. The low-minded and brutal are those who watch the latter with the keenest eagerness, and the interest in the other is likely to be inversely as an appreciation of the true objects of college life. A college is something better than a training-place for athletes; it needs, indeed, a good hearty and healthy physical training to accompany and aid its intellectual work, and should take all due measures to encourage such; but whether the intercollegiate regatta is a desirable means to this good end is not a little doubtful, and the college authorities may yet be obliged to suppress it, out of regard to higher interests. It may prove such an unnatural and harmful outgrowth of the manly art of boating, as is the prize-fight of the equally manly art of self-defence, or the race-course of the efforts to improve the breed of horses. The three are alike in the incidents of wild excitement, unruly conduct, and desperate betting; and they are alike in their essential tendency to produce a breed of highly trained animals, whose whole education is to culminate in the execution of a tremendous effort of strength and skill during a few minutes. Every considerable college has within its own limits the means of sufficient emulation to keep up its boating system to the desirable point of efficiency; and the more this is varied and spread through all grades of all classes, the better.

If the regatta crews could be drawn by lot from the body of undergraduates, so that the chance of selection would call out a general physical education, the whole aspect of the case would be very different. As it is, the accidents of available material and a successful professional training are most likely to determine the result of any trial, with all its consequences. The excitement and strain which, if divided up among a whole college community, would be healthy and animating, is concentrated in a limited number of individuals, to their detriment. At a meeting of the Yale Alumni Club in Philadelphia, a few years ago, a representative of the boating interest was alleging on its behalf that it did not interfere with study, instancing as a proof the respectable-standing of even the university crews in their classes; when Professor Hadley, who was present, remarked in his quiet way that he acknowledged the fact, and had always thought it the reason why Yale was so often beaten. There can be no question that the true interests of education often suffer in our colleges, as they most conspicuously do at Oxford and Cambridge and the great public schools of England, by an exaggeration of the interest in physical training.

Mr. Higginson does not formally take sides with the worshippers of athletic skill, preferring to "waive the question [as if it were a question!] whether the precedence given to the boatmen over the bookmen be a good or an evil." But the influence of his paper is cast strongly with the athletic interest; he would not check the intensity of muscular competition, but only put beside it a mental competition which should outbid it. By thus, as it were, tolerating the turning of the underside of college life uppermost, and proposing to mend the matter only by bringing the lowest motives of intellectual exertion to the top, he is in danger, as it appears to us, of doing more harm than good. If we are to have our system of Intercollegiate Scholarships, let them be instituted under the government of sounder and purer motives.

THE NEGRO PROBLEM IN VIRGINIA.

HAMPTON, VIRGINIA, Jan. 29.

THIS little town, which is now half-buried in dirt and débris, and haunted by the very spirit of desolation, was once, in the distant days "before the war," a fashionable Virginian watering-place, and by virtue of its charming sea surroundings and its near neighborhood to Fortress Monroe was a favored resort of the First Families, of whose roomy, out-at-elbows, unthrifty houses one or two have outlived the peril of fire and shot. Its claim to antiquity of origin dates, however, from a time when First Families were not, for from its position it became the headquarters of the colonists who landed here after their weary Atlantic voyages, and made it the base of operations for their expeditions up the various rivers which empty into the Chesapeake Bay. The present St. John's Church of Hampton was built between 1660 and 1667, and the records of the court, which date from 1635, furnish evidence of a still earlier church, in whose graveyard the scions of many an old English house found refuge from hardships too great for even British hearts of oak to endure. The town was sacked in the war of 1812, and had scarcely forgotten the wounds then inflicted on it when the rebellion was declared, and the two contending armies settled their parti-colored swarms upon this ill-fated corner of the sacred soil. Along the eastern shore of Hampton Creek the Union lines were entrenched all through the long years of the war, and here was issued the world-famed order of General Butler, which declared black fugitives to be "contraband of war," and covered every inch of the soil protected by the guns of Fortress Monroe with the hastily erected cabins of escaped slaves. The largest number collected at any time in this district was 10,000, and as only a small proportion could be employed by the Government, the suffering among them was so great as to create a demand upon the philanthropic energy of the nation at large, which was first answered in an organized form by the American Missionary Association, whose missionary, Mr. Lockwood, came into the contraband camps in 1861, and, under the favorable régime of General Butler, succeeded in establishing primary schools of the simplest description in the midst of the almost hopeless ignorance of the ex-slaves.

The result of this first incomplete educational effort bids fair, at the present time, to make Hampton the scene of an experiment of national importance. It required no keen eye to see, five years ago, that one-half of the Southern problem would be solved when a class of skilled laborers should be created, to whose hands the material wealth of the country could be entrusted, and, further than this, to perceive that for the present such a class could be drawn, in the nature of things, only from the superabundant colored population. It was these considerations which led, in the years directly following the war, to the establishment among the freedmen in the neighborhood of Fortress Monroe of a school on a larger scale than anything then in existence, which was incorporated in 1870, by the General Assembly of Virginia, under the name of the "Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute," and put under the direction of a body of trustees fairly representing both Northern and Southern sentiment. One hundred and twenty-five acres of good farming land were bought, buildings put up, and a remarkably complete manual-labor system adopted, in which has been embodied the best experience of our own and of other nations, with certain adaptations to the peculiar exigencies of the position which speak well for its originators. The success of the school, which is now beyond a doubt, has been marked by three distinctive features, all of which are significant of a hopeful future, and encourage the belief that the education of the negro is entirely practicable, if undertaken upon a reasonable basis. The first noticeable fact in the history of this experiment has been the eagerness of the blacks themselves to take advantage of the opportunity offered them, and their appreciation of the value of education, for the sake of which they are willing to make real and great sacrifices; while as a result in part of this has grown up the second special advantage of the system, viz., that the broadly inclusive training that is provided manufactures from the raw material of the students a class of graduates which exactly meets the demand of the Southern market. This demand is at present principally for primary colored-school teachers, who, without having passed through any extensive academical course, are still well-grounded in the ordinary branches of English education, who can support themselves in vacations, etc., by the labor of their hands, and can supply general practical information to their pupils and the people among whom they live. The Hampton graduates, of whom a large number are already in the field, so nearly fulfil these requirements that the testimony of the Virginia school superintendents (all of whom, of course, are Southern men) is almost unvarying as to the ability which they gain from their three years' experience of a carefully applied manual-labor system. It must be remembered, also, in estimating the value of this school as an educational centre, that it is the principal source from which several State governments can draw this class of employees, and the ratio of illiteracy throughout Virginia and North Carolina is directly in proportion to the educational facilities which Hampton is enabled to offer. The third fact which substantiates the correctness of the theory upon trial is, that it looks so manifestly towards the development of Southern resources that already any fear of political opposition is done away with, and all intelligent Southerners who know anything of the school are more than favorably inclined towards it. The State itself has given to Hampton, in its character of an agricultural college, one-third of the land scrip, amounting to about $95,000, and the present Legislature will probably make a handsome appropriation for the immediate emergency.

The special meeting of the trustees which took place a few days ago, gave a striking illustration of the possibility of the better class of Northern and Southern politicians and philanthropists meeting upon common ground for common work. There were present on that occasion ten trustees and five curators (two of whom are colored men) representing a wide diversity of opinion, and ranging from the members of the American Missionary Association to Col. Robert W. Hughes, a fire-eating rebel, and whilom editor of the Richmond *Enquirer*, whose courteous manner and high place in the records of Southern chivalry fairly qualify him to represent the old school of Virginia gentlemen. The first speech of the day was made by Dr. W. H. Ruffner, State Department of Education, who is doing good service by his devotion to the cause and the liberality of his views in respect to the common-school system of the State. This expression of opinion was remarkable as coming from a Virginian, addressing upon Virginia soil an audience four-fifths of whom were negroes, while one-half of the remainder were Northern men and women. The spirit of it was most encouraging to the students who listened to him, for he not only wiped away much of the obloquy of their past, but held out to them the promise that here, in their own home and among their own people, work was waiting for them which would make their citizenship a reality and an honor. Gen. Howard followed Dr. Ruffner in a characteristic speech, and, before the close of the meeting, a resolution was carried, in view of the marked success and rapid growth of the school, appointing a committee of gentlemen to proceed at once in the erection of a system of college buildings that shall cost not less than $130,000, and altogether surpass anything of the kind yet attempted south of Washington. The public men of Virginia are showing a grasp of the points at issue, and an amount of common sense in dealing with them, which place their State in advance of most of its sisters, and are really admirable and deserving of recognition. The feeling here is that nothing would go so far towards propitiating the South, or producing the gradual political reconciliation which is so much to be desired, as the bestowal of a Cabinet position upon Virginia, and there are certainly men within the borders of the State who could accept such rank with the intention and capacity to do loyal service. In any case, the endeavor of the State government to initiate certain practical reforms, among which the popular-

ization of education stands foremost, is worthy of note, and while it is evident that, for some time to come, much must be done by Northern men and Northern money, yet the inclination of the Virginian people to receive such assistance and to do their share towards its permanent utilization is most satisfactory. That such an institution as Hampton should have taken root and flourished on Virginia soil does credit to its founders and to the State, and an examination of the theory which practice has proved to be so successful may go far towards elucidating some of the more serious problems of Southern politics and society. M. F. A.

DUMAS'S FEMME DE CLAUDE.

PARIS, Jan. 30, 1873.

THERE is a small village near Dieppe, called Puys, where only a few fishermen live in winter. The Marquis of Salisbury has found its situation so charming, that he has built a large house on the cliff which overlooks the sea, where he lives in complete retirement, with his children, in the warm season. The place was, however, not *discovered* by him, and not far from his beautiful country place is a small house which Alexander Dumas *fils* built, many years ago. The name of Alexander Dumas is just now in every mouth, since the appearance of his new piece, "La Femme de Claude," and I may, perhaps, be permitted to apply to him the method of Sainte-Beuve, which consists in studying the man before the author. It is no libel to say, what everybody knows, that Alexander Dumas the father lived all his life, to his very last day, outside of the rules and conventions of the world. His son is not legitimate; from his early years, he was accustomed to see his father surrounded with men and women of pleasure, spending money as fast as he made it. Alexander Dumas the father had all the charms and all the defects of the race to which he belonged; he was gay, thoughtless, generous, fond of all the luxuries of life, a child in character, a materialist in philosophy. His son did not inherit his character; the sight of disorder made him very orderly; the extravagance of his father taught him the value of capital. He became soon the protector, the banker of the famous novelist; he has carefully acquired for himself a good fortune. He is almost melancholy in his disposition, with a decided tinge of bitterness which is found in most natural children. Notwithstanding his name, he had great difficulty in making his way in the literary world; he has not the easy manner of his father; he works slowly, with difficulty. His first books were hardly noticed, and they certainly were vastly inferior to his later ones. He has been constantly working, improving his style, enlarging his ideas. But the most curious trait of his character is this: born and educated, as it were, out of the pale of religion and of morality, he has gradually constructed for himself a system of morality. He considers himself, and he is, to a certain extent, an inventor. Just as the once famous Caussidière said that he had, during a revolution, made order out of disorder, Dumas has extracted virtue out of vice. His merit, in this respect, can only be well understood by those who have had some insight into the famous *demi-monde*, which he has attempted to paint, and in which he has spent the greater part of his life, with the extraordinary society so well depicted already by Balzac, which combines adventurers, journalists, literary men, modern Aspasias, rich bankers, demoralized foreigners of every race. The *Rastignacs*, the *Bixious*, the *Mesdames Marnesse*, of Balzac, have multiplied tenfold during the Empire; they form a dangerous freemasonry of wit, of beauty, of elegance, of scepticism. The younger Dumas's genius has drunk all the poisons of the Parisian hot-house, and, by a curious law of contrast, these poisons have finally produced in his mind a mania for preaching and moralizing; only he preaches on the stage. He has not the austerity of an apostle, neither does he wish to render vice attractive, but he knows that vice is often attractive.

His conversion has been a slow one, and it has been long unconscious. There is a curious development from the "Dame aux Camélias," where his heroine is still made interesting and lovable, to the "Femme de Claude," who is an incarnate devil, black with every crime. How was this conversion operated? Not by religion. Dumas has not been influenced by the lessons of the church; he has only learned the hard lessons of life; but this would not have been enough. He has been converted to virtue by science, and the originality of his morality lies especially in this fact that it is scientific. I must explain this expression: Dumas, like Sainte-Beuve, like Taine, like Renan, has been very attentive to the discoveries of science. The doctrine of development, the theories of Darwin, have a deep connection with social questions. Darwinism, which has assumed in England a strictly scientific character, has been applied in France to the development of races, of the human mind, finally of human societies. If there is any truth in a theory which has found anatomical links between mankind and the simian tribe, there must surely be also relations which are not of a physical order. In a word, it may be said that there is still an animal in man, that in every one of us there is the simian department of instinct and the human department of intelligence, of will, and of morality. The analysis of the passions has been undertaken from this new point of view, and it has been carried very far by physiologists as well as by philosophers. I may perhaps be allowed to cite, in connection with this subject, a few lines from the preface of the second edition of 'Les Problèmes,' which has just appeared:

"Darwin has shown how the smallest advantage assures the supremacy of an animal variety. But where is the animal which can himself conquer any instrument of supremacy? Man only can do it; he can modify his body by hygiene, by medicine, by exercise, by dress, by architecture; but he can conquer other advantages than strength, stature, health, fecundity; he has an all-powerful arm, intellect, which he can sharpen. . . . There is a natural selection of man, but human liberty is one of the forces which rule this selection; and the more civilization advances, the more this force predominates. . . . Science shows man, peoples, races, that existence is a perpetual struggle; it does not invite them to laziness, but to work; its teachings are the same as those of morality, which orders self-command, sacrifice, order, moderation, stoicism."

From an Epicurean, Dumas, under the influences of science, has become finally a moralist; he has learnt that in the passion of love, which chiefly concerns the novel-writer and the dramatist, there is something vile and simian mixed up with something which may be called divine. There are various stages of this passion, as well as of any other, which at a given time get personified and embodied not only in individuals but in nations and in races. In his last curious book, called 'L'Homme-Femme,' he classifies women thus: Women of the temple, women of the fireside (the home), women of the streets—saints, matrons, and sinners. Now, all his dramatic theory is founded on the belief that these three classes, which are convertible by the slow action of selection, are totally inconvertible at a given time. He goes even farther; just as Agassiz has called prophetic types those types which in the palæontological succession appear, so to speak, before their time, Dumas believes that there are always types of the simian age, even in the most cultured and moral societies. The "femme de Claude" is one of those types. She is the mere slave of instinct; she follows her career of adultery, of crime, of vice, without any remorse, without any doubt; she cannot be converted. This Calvinistic doctrine of total depravity has somewhat horrified the French public. It goes directly against those pleasant milk-and-water theories of sin and repentance. Your guilty wife, your bad mother, your "femme de Claude," who robs the scientific secret of her husband in order to sell it herself, is fallen from grace; kill her! And he does kill her at the end of the fifth act; her husband becomes her judge and her executioner.

This dénouement asserts, however, the dangerous doctrine of the right of individual justice. I doubt if Dumas himself would seriously advise any of his friends to behave like his Claude. His piece is really a plea for divorce; but if he cannot get the right of divorce for an outraged husband or an outraged wife, he falls back on the natural rights of self-defence.

The public of the first representations in the Parisian theatres is not so much distinguished for its severity in morals as for its cleverness; the new piece of Dumas was not very well received by it. The frivolous judges of both sexes were shocked by the brutality of the husband, by his insensibility to all the blandishments of his treacherous wife, by the horrible logic which showed so many sins following each other in a fatal succession, and seeming to indicate that maternal cruelty, murder, and theft are the natural children of adultery. But the new piece has been better received by the French bourgeoisie, which is, on the whole, very moral. It is certainly a painful fact that adultery should play such a part in modern pieces; yet it is no longer treated like a mere farce but as a heinous crime. There is an evident desire in Dumas's piece to build up a better code of marriage, and I cannot find fault with his desire to introduce divorce rather than adultery as the remedy for unhappy unions.

I have read with much pleasure an article of one of your travelling correspondents on the French stage. He has done full justice to our admirable school of actors, and among others to Mademoiselle Desclée, who plays the painful and difficult part of "la femme de Claude." When I was at Florence a few years ago, she belonged to a small French troupe which was giving representations in Italy. She was then quite unknown in France. Private theatrical representations were then the fashion in Florence, and Mlle. Desclée had the good fortune to be admitted to several houses, where she acted as a theatrical adviser, and I have no doubt that she acquired there that admirable ease, the manner of a woman of the world, for which she is now so much admired. She is not an actress, she lives her part, as it were. She is the very type of the modern woman, who is all nerve, and vibrates, as it were, with every new sensation and emotion. How different from Rachel, who was so *statuesque*, so calm and melodious even in her passion; but how admirable in her way. She is now, with Madame Pasca, who is in St. Petersburg, the most perfect actor of the modern drama and of character.

She is not handsome, but her face is like a mirror of intelligence and passion; and she seems, if I might say so, more real than if she was very handsome. She personifies the anxious character, the complicated features of our modern civilization, the predominance of the nervous over the vascular system. Dumas may consider himself very happy to have found such an interpreter for his bold character. Your correspondent has justly praised the school of actors of the Théâtre Français; the Gymnase now ranks second on the list, though it receives no subvention from the state. But I have often noticed that even at the most inferior theatres there are very remarkable actors. Ought we to consider this perfection of the French stage as a mark of superiority? or is there something of the simian instinct in this perfect faculty of imitation? I leave this to the philosophers to decide.

Notes.

WE have received what purports to be on its titlepage a "new edition revised and corrected" of Mr. Richard Grant White's 'Words and their Uses' (New York: Sheldon & Co. 1872). In a circular which accompanies it the publishers also speak of it as a "new and improved edition," and "carefully revised and enlarged." This appears, however, to have been true in 1870, when the present plates were made, rather than now, as we are unable to detect any alterations or additions. Time has certainly not brought wisdom to Mr. White on the subject of his eleventh chapter, "is being done," and thirty of the weakest pages in the book are retained in spite of the frequent exposures of his fallacy concerning "exists existing." He has, by the way, as we expected he would in due time, fallen foul of the perfectly well-established phrase "had rather," which he tears to pieces in the January *Galaxy*. A writer in the *American Educational Monthly* for February has had no difficulty in confuting him on this topic also.——In our review of the magazines for February (No. 393), when speaking, on p. 100, of the notorious Spanish Jesuits Escobar and the rest, we allowed our pen and the types to say that none of them had ever set foot in *Spain*. Most of our readers, we dare say, made the proper correction of "France." Another error in the same number was less obvious, but quite as complete. The author of the *North American Review* article on the "Rise of Napoleonism in France" is Professor C. K. *Adams*, not *Kendall*.——Mr. Froude, it is announced, will contribute a series of historical articles to *Scribner's Monthly*.——The Boston Public Library has at last been opened on Sunday, but only as yet in the afternoon and evening, and with access only to periodicals and books of reference. The attendance has been large, orderly, and respectable, and the selection of reading (as it could hardly fail to be) eminently proper and edifying.——We were more than usually forgetful in omitting to mention last week, among the sources of information on the Creole dialects, Mr. Addison Van Name's comprehensive paper on the subject, published in the Transactions of the American Philological Association for 1870.——J. R. Osgood & Co. have become the American publishers of the *Practical Magazine*, of which the first number (for January) has reached this country. It would be a long story to enumerate its contents, and we had best borrow its own account of itself as "an illustrated cyclopædia of industrial news, inventions and improvements, collected from foreign and British sources, for the use of those concerned in raw materials, machinery, manufactures, building, and decoration." This broadly includes all mankind, but the magazine is not exactly designed for general reading, nor for uneducated producers, workers, or carriers. Professional men and the heads of great industrial or commercial houses will find in it plenty of suggestion and information. The magazine is handsomely printed and illustrated. The opening article is a history of the Rothschilds, with numerous portraits and other woodcuts.

—A correspondent writes us as follows: When one's friend has been for years indulging a fond belief in his ownership of some rare and choice volume—if not unique yet in all possibility "the only copy in this country"—it seems a pity to disturb his happiness; but when one boasts publicly of possessing such a treasure it is perhaps worth while to be a little more critical. Referring then to your comments upon a "A Literary Curiosity" in the February *Atlantic*, I can state that there is one copy of "Goethe's Correspondence with a Child: For his Monument" in the Mercantile Library of Brooklyn, and I am confident of having seen one or more copies mentioned in foreign booksellers' catalogues. The writer of "A Literary Curiosity" may, however, have been nearer right in his conjecture than the authors of most of the paragraphs one sees going the rounds of the press with reference to "book rarities." Many persons, especially in the rural districts, count themselves the possessors of something rich and rare if they discover some old printed heirloom one hundred and fifty or two hundred years old, whereas the article may be of no earthly account. These "heirlooms" are sometimes queer things. Mr. Quaritch, the eminent London bookseller, states that he has more than once been offered a copy of one of the original Shakespearean folios, which the very respectable families who had doubtlessly very unwittingly concluded to part with it, assured him had been in their possession for more than one hundred years, but which upon examination proved to be the *reprint* of the first edition, worth as many dollars as the original is worth hundreds of dollars. Experienced book-buyers do not need to be told that a book is not necessarily valuable for having been printed in the sixteenth century, and as for "incunabula" they are much more numerous in this country than the average newspaper paragraphist has any idea of.

— The report of the proceedings at the farewell dinner given to Professor Tyndall in this city is in course of preparation, and will, we believe, be shortly issued by the Messrs. Appleton. It will contain also a letter of considerable length from Professor Henry, who was expected to preside, but was obliged to decline at the last moment. The dinner was perhaps one of the most interesting social collisions—if we may use the expression—between natural science and theology which has yet taken place, and was marked by perfect good temper and good feeling on both sides. Professor Tyndall's speech was especially interesting, being neither more nor less than a long sermon, seasoned by the experience of a most laborious and successful life, and it appropriately closed a visit which has left, we believe, most delightful memories in his mind, as well as in those of the thousands who listened to him here and learned to love him. He proved one of the luckiest as well as most deserving of lecturers.

—A bill passed the House on Tuesday week, lowering letter postage to two cents—a change which we deem uncalled-for, if not unwise and wasteful—and making newspaper postage payable in advance at the post-office of the place of publication—to which we see no objection. The mode in which this prepayment is to be made (after July 1) is left to the Postmaster-General; but from the language of the bill (which speaks of "collection"), we infer that the use of stamps is not contemplated. The embarrassment which this would cause, especially to the daily press, would be incalculable. We hope, also, that the department itself will not be expected to stamp "prepaid," as now, upon newspapers brought directly from the publishing office. Unstamped papers from any other source ought not to be received at the post-office; all unstamped papers *so* received ought to be forwarded as quickly as they can be assorted. To mark them "prepaid" would be entirely superfluous. Even now, for the small proportion of matter thus marked, the delays occasioned are most vexatious. What would they be if the daily and weekly metropolitan issues had to be separately handled and stamped! We take it, therefore, that the post-office will deal hereafter, as heretofore, with the newspaper subscription-mail in the gross—in bags and parcels—and not in detail. It remains for the Postmaster-General to establish regulations which shall protect the Government against fraud. In place of the present shiftlessness of the newspaper service, we should expect a methodical book-keeping that would require of every newspaper a frequent statement of its mail circulation—averaged, of course, and certified in some formal manner—and prompt settlements; of the post-office, exact accounts. Then let us see whether the delivery of papers cannot be made to vie with that of letters, even for the most distant points.

—A word more on the inequitable provision, which we trust the Senate may strike out, by which weekly papers will continue to circulate free in the county in which they are printed. Let us treat this whole matter from a business point of view, or let us take for *all* papers the sentimental ground which now accrues to the benefit of country weeklies alone. It is notorious that the law is so construed by the department that the delivery of weekly papers in large cities has to be prepaid even when the city and county limits are identical, as in New York.

—Mr. Charles Reade's latest novel, or rather tale, 'The Wandering Heir,' contains a rather graphic bit of description of love, card-playing, low-life-above-stairs society in Ireland in the last century, which it seems is, for the most part, a paraphrase of some of Swift's 'Journal of a Modern Lady.' For instance, Swift says:

> "The modern dame is wak'd by noon.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> She stretches, gapes, unglues her eyes,
> And asks if it be time to rise;
> Of headache and the spleen complains;
> And then to cool her brains,
> Her night-gown and her slippers brought her,
> Takes a large dram of citron-water.
> Then to her glass; and, 'Betty, pray
> Don't I look frightfully to-day?
> But, was it not confounded hard?
> Well, if I ever touch a card!
> Four matadores and lose codille!'"

while Mr. Reade says:

"At 12 next day Miss Gregory was prematurely disturbed by her lap-dog, barking like a demon for his breakfast. She stretched, gaped, unglued her eyes, and rang for Betty. . . . 'Here child. Let in some light. Nay not so much: wouldst blind me? I'm dead of the vapors. Get me a dram of citron-water. So. Now bring me a looking-glass. I will lie abed. Alack! I look frightfully to-day. If ever I touch a card again. Didst ever see such luck as mine? Four Matadores, and lose Codille!'"

These similarities, and others quite as striking, having been pointed out in the *Athenæum* of January 4, by a writer under the signature of "C. F.," Mr. Reade retorts that the 'Wandering Heir' is one of the best books that he, Charles Reade, ever wrote; that as for plagiarism, if you adopt such a test as "C. F." proposes, Shakespeare was a plagiarist; and further that "C. F." is a "pseudonymuncule" (petty writer, using a pseudonym), and a "skunk." "C. F." has now written again to explain that "C. F." are her real initials, that she is a lady living a retired life in a quiet English village, having no interest, except a literary one, in the matter, and reminds Mr. Reade, in a very modest way, that it is never too late to mend.

—"But, whiles he thought to steal the single ten,
The king was slyly finger'd from the *deck*."
Third pt. K. Henry VI., act 5, sc. i.

Johnson gives, as one definition of "deck," "Pack of cards piled regularly on each other." This definition has come down to the last revised edition of Webster, in which it appears on the authority of "Hoyle"; and yet nothing is more evident than that the being "piled regularly on each other" is no part of the original denotation of "deck." To deck—A. S. *decan*, Germ. *decken*—is "to cover," "to conceal"; and, as a heap is what is heaped, a pile what is piled, a store what is stored, a deck is what is *decked, i.e.*, covered, hid. Applied to a pack of cards, it denotes primarily the *hidden store* from which each player receives his portion; the cards before they are *faced* or shown to the players. Massinger, in 'The Guardian' (iii. 3), writes:

"And for a song I have
A paper-blurrer, who on all occasions,
For all times, and all seasons, hath such trinkets
Ready *in the deck*";

meaning, notes Gifford, in "the *heap*, or, technically speaking, the *gross*"; and quotes from 'Selimus, Emperour of the Turks' (1594):

"Well, if I chance but once to get the *deck*,
To deal about and shuffle as I would," etc.

In the former passage "a heap or pile of ballads is so called"—not, as Nares thought it to be, "in allusion to a pack of *cards*," but in the sense in which the word was commonly used in Massinger's time—a reserved or hidden store. Two or three instances of this use of the word by writers who certainly did not borrow a figure from a pack of cards may be given here. They have apparently escaped the notice of all the commentators. Thomas Cartwright, the Puritan—Shakespeare's senior by thirty years—in 'A Confutation of the Rhemists Translation' (first printed in 1618), commenting on the parable of the good Samaritan, speaks of the two pence given to the host, as to be "reserved *in the Decke* untill circumstances draw it forth" (p. 180). The Rev. Thomas Hooker, of Chelmsford, Essex, and afterwards of Hartford, Connecticut, in a treatise on 'The Application of Redemption,' printed in 1659, wrote:

"If a man's confession be of the right make, not counterfeit, but currant, he shal not only have mercy reserved for him *in the Deck*, but he shal have the use of it, find the sweet of it, he shal find mercy pardoning," etc. (p. 626).

"—of this rauk [those who strive to hide their sins] are these, when the stals of Conscience and the pressure of their spirits constrain them to confess, and seek for ease, their complaints are like lapwings' cryes, farthest from their nest or their bosom-distempers which lye *in the deck*, . . . and therefore they conceive that they are under a safe cover, little shame will fall to their share," etc. (p. 654).

Mr. Richard Grant White, in a note on Shakespeare's "from the deck," regards the derivation "from A. S. *decan*, to cover, because one card covers another," as a fanciful and unsatisfactory etymology. It might be such if no better reason could be found for it than "because one card covers another," or, as Johnson has it, because the cards are "piled regularly." The cards in a pack, before they are dealt to the players, are "decked," *i.e.*, covered, *unseen;* like the songs of Massinger's paper-blurrer, they are "ready in the deck."

—The new Latin Pronunciation, or the Old Latin Pronunciation—just as one chooses to call it—has at last received an official or semi-official sanction in England. At the request of the Headmasters of Schools, a 'Syllabus of Latin Pronunciation' has been prepared by Professors Edwin Palmer and H. A. J. Munro. The Syllabus itself is of no special interest, the pronunciation recommended differing only in a few unimportant particulars from that laid down in the little pamphlet of Professor Lane. But as the advocates of the "lost cause" in this country appeal to English usage as an unanswerable argument for retaining the English sounds in Latin, we cannot forbear quoting the introductory words of the English "Syllabus":

"The Headmasters of Schools, at their conference held in 1871, declared the system of Latin pronunciation prevalent in England to be unsatisfactory, and agreed to ask the Latin professors of Oxford and Cambridge 'to draw up and issue a joint paper to secure uniformity in any change contemplated.' This request they repeated at their meeting of 1872. As we are ourselves agreed in all essential points, and find that there is a considerable body of opinion in the universities and elsewhere in harmony with our views, we beg to offer the following brief suggestions, etc., etc."

—We take from the *Perseveranza* the following figures, showing the population of the four countries named, the number of troops in arms (exclusive of officials and gendarmes), and the ordinary war-budget for 1873, as voted by the respective parliaments:

	Population.	Standing Army.	War-budget.
Italy	26,801,154	173,413	148,356,585
France	36,102,000	425,000	430,973,300
Germany	41,058,196	401,659	337,659,365
Austria-Hungary	35,904,435	245,090	222,733,893

From this it is easy to calculate that there is in Italy one soldier for every 154 inhabitants; in France, one for every 85; in Germany, one for every 102; in Austria-Hungary, one for every 146. The cost of this soldier is in Italy 855 francs; in France, 1,014; in Germany, 840; in Austria, 909. The most efficient and most thoroughly equipped service in Europe thus appears to be also the most economical; and further, it is clear that whatever sense of security or insecurity Italy may have, the peace of the Continent is least menaced by her, while France exhibits, as of old, a disproportionate and unnecessary armament, maintained at an expense which ought (taking Germany as a standard) to ensure her 14 defenders per 1,000 inhabitants, instead of about 12.

CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH ART.*

WHAT might have been the use of criticism to art is a problem of which we yet possess no element of solution, as published criticism has been retrospective to such a degree that there is no instance on record of any, even partial, influence of literary work in making a genuine school of art, or even of such influence preserving a school from that apparently inevitable decadence which waits on perfect fulfilment. A naturalistic school of *painting* might respond to purely intellectual demands, but one of genuine art has not as yet done so, in spite of the intimate relations which are kept up between the arts in our own day.

And of the criticism of the two nations which now show most markedly the presence of genuine artistic genius (in the art of design be it understood), the French and English, the influence of criticism is equally idle, or, at best, retrospective and laic. The sources of art inspiration are no more in one than the other opened by logical or scientific investigation, but rather choked, and art forms, instead of being perfected by the knowledge of laws and canons, are simply petrified. The French, by dint of schools of fine arts of the academic type, succeed in making many good draughtsmen and mechanists. The English flounder on in greater technical ignorance, but in no more complete ineffectiveness, and what the Royal Academy does not do in depraving art by its shopkeeping exclusiveness, the school at South Kensington does by its finical and mole-eyed fan-and-furniture abominations of designing.

Yet there is as wide a difference between the schools of criticism as of those of art—the English, chaotic, contradictory, now unintelligent to a degree almost incredible, now sympathetic and erudite, but always the expression of individual tastes and preferences, only with no more reason for its liking than the art it studies has for existing; the French with a tone and character, a rational tendency and scholastic coherence which no other art-literature possesses, and as faithfully paralleling the art; and in one as in the other, the criticism is always child of the art and not its instructor.

But as between the two schools of criticism, there is this to be said for the Gallic, that one rarely gets from it opinions without knowledge or formed without reference to some cardinal principles of criticism. There is a certain coincidence even in its differences, and whatever may be the views of the critic as to the sects of painters, one does not meet with such blind deference to unintelligent and uneducated public opinion, or such ignorant admiration of the bizarre and vulgar in painting, as one meets constantly in the journalistic criticisms of art in England. Low as is English art, in the large majority of its manifestations, English criticism is still lower in its laudation of those manifestations.

'English Artists of the Present Day' is a fair sample of book-making, and contains more than average examples of English art criticism, the most interesting articles being on Millais and Holman Hunt, respectively by Sidney Colvin and F. G. Stephens, perhaps the most thoroughly philosophical being that on Cave Thomas, by J. L. Tupper. The book as a whole is, to

* 'English Artists of the Present Day. Essays by Bearington Atkinson, Sidney Colvin, F. G. Stephens, Tom Taylor, and J. L. Tupper, with 13 photographs.' London: Sealey, Jackson & Halliday.

outsiders, marred by the primary necessity, for a book addressed to the English public, of showing that the English painters of the day in reality are great artists—on the whole quite fit to be paged with Titian and Michael Angelo. As this does no harm to the world at large, there can be no special reason shown for its not being done; and so the public is fully persuaded that Landseer is the greatest of animal painters, and Millais another Velasquez, with an added nineteenth century polish. As Mr. Colvin well and fairly puts it: "For the Academy public, now and for some years past, it may be said that this artist (Millais) has passed as being above criticism, and that which he has done as beyond demur." The truth is, however, that Millais's great virtue consists in his power in wielding his brush and his execution of details, and in this the main reason of his facility is that he is embarrassed by no larger aims and diverted by no prior necessity either to obey any ideal or consult the greater unities. Millais's triumphs in rendering what he sees are all the more surprising as well as complete from his seeing only the surface—as the eloquence of some orators is surprising until we come to consider what they have said. A single sentence in what Mr. Colvin says, speaking of Millais's connection with pre-Raphaelitism, will show what is the weakness of modern English art: "The common effort of the brotherhood (in so far as they formulated it to themselves) was to set aside the traditions of the schools (by which painting was taught to copy other painting), and to break for the art a new path, just as the first Italian painters had done by self-teaching and the copying of what they saw."

It is impossible to say that the "brotherhood," if that was their aim, were wrong, for so far as Millais and Holman Hunt are concerned, their aims and talents are far more naturalistic than artistic; and what they or their followers might do was of no great importance *as* art, whatever it might be in imitation of nature, in which direction they have unquestionably given a strong lead. But to talk of setting aside the traditions of art in favor of imitation of nature, is like going back from Beethoven and Mozart to bird-songs and nature music. Art is (and this the modern English school does not seem to be able to comprehend) not an imitation of nature, but systematic and harmonious expression of the emotions which rise in the human mind, be nature the cause of the emotion or not. The Italian painters did but continue, not break, the earlier traditions in lovelier forms, and with a new zest, but there is no break, save advance, in all the progress of true art. What it was with the Greek it was with the earlier Byzantine, and when the Byzantine had become stereotyped from excess of reverence, the Italians did but adapt the old themes to new liberty of thought, and by slow enlargement widened the range of harmonies and multiplied the themes. It remains hardly a question for doubt if nature ever did inspire a true art. Where religious emotion is not its well-spring, art for art's sake is its minor source, for art has always been the same in every essential, from the Archaic Greek to the great Venetians; and, in it all, the law is nature for art's sake, and art is the vehicle of the expression of all those emotions of which the human heart is possessed, by access of eye, ear, or sympathy. So when men turn their backs on the traditions of art, and go to nature to construct new ones, they are like those who should say, "Go to! let us make a new religion," which, when made, is good by just as much as it holds of the vitality of the old one. Art is kept in its traditions and its masters, as the religion in its revelations and its prophets.

In Mason, a charming painter and one of the few true artists the Academy possessed, dead since this book was written, Mr. Colvin has a more gracious subject of eulogy; but when he sees in him the qualities of Jules Breton, one is disposed to doubt his perception of art, and when he uses for him phrases which are more befitting Giorgione, we only say the public will have it so, knowing that the critic is mistaken less in kind than degree.

Mr. Stephens has the ungracious task of dealing with Landseer, of whom by far too much has long ago been said, but he is recompensed by having to tell us about Holman Hunt what we have never had so well told before, and, parenthetically, the history of the Pre-Raphaelite movement. Hunt is a mystical and intellectual painter, not an artistic one—realistic in a painter's rather than a scientific sense, and whether his aims are proper ones for a painter or not is a question not of absolute but comparative and personal import. His possession, however, of the high artistic faculties will hardly be maintained on general principles.

For the rest of the subjects of the essays, Boughton is in no sense an English artist, Cave Thomas almost a German one, while the others, except Woolner, who is almost as much of a sculptor as the age can be expected to produce, are not well enough defined yet to be made the subjects of collective criticism or enthusiastic laudation, except on the policy of making them gods for a day, to be dropped into a deeper oblivion when that day is done. A man overrated in his time must expect that the whirligig of time will bring about the inexorable revenge at no distant to-morrow.

American Pioneers and Patriots. Miles Standish, the Puritan Captain. By John S. C. Abbott. Illustrated. (New York: Dodd & Mead. 1872. 16mo, pp. 372.)—Mr. Abbott's book is simply a popular history of the settlement of Plymouth Colony, compiled from well-known sources and decorated with his characteristic fine writing. Of course we do not expect any new facts in such a work, and should the book obtain a large circulation we may feel sure that its readers will get a fair knowledge of a very interesting part of our history. There is, however, no reason for the title adopted. Miles Standish is not the central figure in the history, and his name is placed on the book probably as a means of availing of the temporary interest taken in the proposed monument at Duxbury. We have already expressed in these pages our opinion of the labored enthusiasm and forced eulogy which were the main features of the celebration last year. So far as Mr. Abbott adopts the same style of description of the probable thoughts, words, and acts of Captain Standish, he disfigures the pages of an otherwise creditable book. We notice, on pp. 35–37, some remarks about the ancestors of Miles Standish which might well have been omitted. No doubt the worthy emigrant thought, as he stated in his will, that his great-grandfather was heir to certain property, but he did not claim Standish Hall nor the representation of the family. As his descendants have never recovered any property, it is worse than useless to repeat and enlarge these stories, and especially to couple them with charges of fraud.

Although the whole book is evidently a compilation, the most whimsical instance is given in chapter xiii.—"The Courtship of Miles Standish." The poem is used as a basis, and very large extracts are given, but the whole is interspersed with the explanations and comments of Mr. Abbott. Wherever in his judgment the poet had failed to infuse the due amount of "agony," the biographer supplies the deficiency. It is Longfellow read by Silas Wegg.

History of New York City, from the Discovery to the Present Day. By William L. Stone. (New York: Virtue & Yorston.)—As a reprint of sketches, incidents, and documents, which are in themselves interesting, the volume before us possesses a certain value which we are quick to recognize. But it is not a history as we understand the term, and it is only because Mr. Stone has seen fit to give it to the world as history that we have studied its length and breadth in order to discover some traces of the connection of causes and effects, and with the reasonable expectation of meeting with the natural fruits of industry and research. We are gravely disappointed, and close the book, having obtained from it a knowledge of New York's real history in about the same ratio as a railway traveller gets a notion of a foreign country by stopping at the way stations on his flying trip through it.

The work is divided into three periods. The first covers sixty-five years, in seventy-six pages. It opens with the miraculous descent of Hudson upon Manhattan Island complete in one paragraph. Three pages are then devoted to a sketch of the island, quoted entire from Miss Booth's history. And eighteen of the remaining pages are given to the reproduction of Diedrich Knickerbocker's burlesque of Dutch customs and social manners, which, like the story of the three black crows, has been repeated until it has lost somewhat of its original drollery, and is accepted by many as history. Thus the Dutch era, which we had supposed a wide field for the painstaking historian, is summarily disposed of. We should have been glad to have learned something of the two great Dutch commercial corporations which made such a noise in the world about that time, and to which New York owes its origin. We should have been grateful for a little light thrown upon the infancy of the great city, showing why it was kept so long in swaddling-clothes, and what manner of men ruled its destinies. In short, we should like to have found some materials from which to draw general lessons of moral and political wisdom.

The second period embraces one hundred and nine years, and is served to the reader in one hundred and ninety-four pages. It starts off with seven pages devoted to a ramble about New Amsterdam in 1661. Eleven pages are given to a quotation from the journal of two Labbadist travellers, in the Long Island Hist. Coll. (Vol. I.), while one paragraph of less than a page disposes of the Revolution of 1689 and all its attendant consequences, good and evil. Again, we find a copious extract from the journal of an English lady, Miss Knight, and an article occupying four pages, from the New York *World* of March 17, 1868. And a little further on, some ten pages are devoted to a gossipy letter from Madame Riedesdel, detailing her personal experiences in Northern New York at the time of the battle of Saratoga, while twenty pages suffice for the whole eight years' continuance of the great American Revolution!

In like superficial manner are treated the important events since that era. The third period covers the ninety years from 1783 to 1873. It con-

tains a sketch of the Federal Procession of 1788, which was published some years ago by the father of Mr. Stone; an extract from the *Journal of Commerce* of 1855, in reference to the Tontine Coffee-house; and seven or more pages of Chief-Justice Daly's discourse before the Century Club on the death of Gulian C. Verplanck, descriptive of the Trinity Church Riot. Reminiscences of the New York fires of 1811, 1835, and 1845, by Hon. G. P. Disosway, cover thirteen pages; a sketch of the city by Francis Wayland, two pages; the reception of Gen. Lafayette in 1824, ten pages; and the Erie Canal Celebration, twenty-three pages. These two last are from the pen of Col. Stone, the father of the author, as are also the accounts of Washington's Reception and Inauguration Ball. Some reminiscences of the city, by Gulian C. Verplanck, fill thirty-six pages; an extract from *Harper's Magazine* for October, 1872, tells us about the New York Post-office in five pages; and a quotation from Miss Booth's history, again, of nine pages, enlightens us in regard to the riot of 1851. The columns of the New York *Herald* contribute fourteen or more pages to this remarkable history; an address of Chief-Justice Daly, entitled "The Origin and History of the New York Fire Department," is laid in entire, covering twenty-five more pages; there are several quotations from 'New York Illustrated,' and the work closes with nineteen pages from Dr. Osgood's address before the New York Historical Society, on the occasion of its Sixty-second Anniversary in November, 1866.

The volume is handsomely illustrated with twenty engravings on steel, and with over eighty wood-engravings, all very good in themselves; but while there is such a wealth of material in existence relating directly to New York, we can hardly see the pertinence in introducing portraits of the nation's Presidents and of foreign generals, and still less pictures of the battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill.

The Life and Times of Sixtus the Fifth. By Baron Hübner, late Ambassador of Austria at Paris and at Rome. Translated from the original French by James F. Meline. 12mo, pp. 180. (New York: The Catholic Publication Society. 1873.)—Mr. Meline is best known by the exposure he has made of the alleged misrepresentations in Mr. Froude's account of Mary, Queen of Scots. It is surprising, therefore, that he should allow a misstatement to stand upon his own titlepage. This book is not Baron Hübner's 'Life of Sixtus V.'; it is not even an abridgment of it; it is an independent work of Mr. Meline's, merely based upon Hübner's, and drawing materials from it. The preface, to be sure, sets this all right, but this is no excuse for a titlepage which cannot fail to excite a false expectation. Surely if Mr. Froude, as has been said, does not know the meaning of inverted commas, Mr. Meline is equally ignorant of the meaning of the word *by*. More than this: it is unjust to the distinguished historian to make him responsible for this book in anything but the facts. The work before us differs totally in character from its original. Baron Hübner's work is a history of the first rank, pronounced by a Protestant reviewer to be "calm and unimpassioned, penetrating and logical"; in short, composed in a purely scientific spirit, and indeed upon the basis of the labors of the Protestant Ranke. Mr. Meline's book is a strictly sectarian one. As such we have no fault to find, either with its general spirit or its execution, but we protest against its passing under the name of Hübner.

This book, therefore, belongs to the class known as denominational literature. It is designed to afford good and instructive reading to Roman Catholics; and for this end it is very well designed. It might advantageously have been expanded to double its bulk, but even as it is, it is interesting, and by no means offensive in its denominational spirit. It will convey at least some idea of the character and acts of the man who ranks as probably the greatest pontiff of modern times; a man who was not merely great as a pontiff and as a ruler over Rome, but who exercised a powerful and decidedly salutary influence on the history of his time; the Pope who is, perhaps, more than any other identified with what Mr. Meline calls "the great Catholic reaction of the sixteenth century." It is, however, rather as the man and the head of the church that Mr. Meline's readers will become acquainted with Sixtus V., while Baron Hübner dealt principally with the statesman. And when we consider the stirring events of this short pontificate, which commenced just after the death of William the Silent, and ended shortly before the final triumph of Henry of Navarre—the revolution of the Netherlands, the war of the Henries, the execution of Queen Mary, the Invincible Armada, the assassination of Henry III.—it must be confessed that Mr. Meline has slighted this aspect of his hero's character. And in what he has said, his view is incomplete and misleading by its incompleteness. He tells us that Sixtus personally disliked Philip II., and that he was offended by the arrogance of his ambassador. He does not tell us that his policy was really opposed to the intolerant Catholicism of the Spanish Court. Sixtus V. was an earnest Catholic, as it was right he should be; he sympathized with Mary against Elizabeth, and with Farnese against the States of the Netherlands; but he did not sympathize with the Duke of Guise and Philip II.—rather with that broad and conciliating temper so pitifully represented by Henry III., and which afterwards triumphed with Henry IV. If it was any one man it was Sixtus V.—although he did not live to see the fruits of his own work—that won over Henry of Navarre to the Roman Church; and this, whatever we may think of the genuineness of the conversion, secured at once a great kingdom to the fold of the church, a measurable toleration for the reformed faith, and religious tranquillity for France for nearly a century.

We do not suppose that this aspect of the place of Sixtus V. in history is that which would be most acceptable to the Jesuit-ridden church of the present day. We have as little doubt that it will be his best claim to the gratitude and admiration of posterity—that he will be remembered a hundred years hence as the wise and able ruler who, while Bishop of Rome and head of one section of Christendom, had nevertheless in his mind a conception of a genuine *Catholicism;* a conception which appears to have vanished from his church at the present day.

The Mountain. From the French] of Michelet. By the translator of 'The Bird,' with fifty-four illustrations from designs by Percival Skelton. (London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons.)—M. Michelet's method of observing nature is so well known that minute criticism of these translations is hardly necessary. We may say, in one word, that M. Michelet is untranslatable when he writes about such subjects as 'The Mountain.' He is a Frenchman of the Frenchmen; his whole style and the color of his mind are French; and when you change the language you change the thing itself. For example, when one reads such sentences as these: "These lakes—these dumb confidants of the glaciers, which achieve through their agency a passage out of the darkness—were regarded by our Celtic forefathers with terror and worship. They seem full of mystery; a savage charm invests them. He who has ever beheld, for ever remembers them. I do not feel greatly surprised at the efforts of a courageous fish to revisit them every year, in the season of love's potent impulses" (p. 60)—one cannot help a feeling of amused contempt for a mind which is capable of producing them, and yet, in French, they would not be so absurd. We learn from the translator's preface that 'The Mountain,' 'The Bird,' 'The Insect,' and 'The Sea' were written "in partnership with Mme. Michelet"; from the author's preface, that 'The Mountain' continues a series of "analogous" books (those just mentioned), the publication of which began in 1856; also that "the public, from that epoch, has felt an entirely new interest in natural history"; that it was the singular fortune of 'The Bird' to bear upward upon its wings both the public and the press; that these three books had the rare success of being the cause of many others. "A new branch of literature has sprung into life since that epoch." "For the first time, men learned the peculiar mystery of the bird—the peculiar mystery of the insect." The reason why the public was so much impressed by these books was that "the only books which have powerfully affected them are those which appeal to the soul." The preface concludes with this apostrophe: "Living spirit of regeneration! True heart-cordial in these days of too general decadence! May this book, while strengthening ourselves, steady others upon the slopes, where, through weakness or melancholy, so many fall! If it need an epigraph, it shall use this word—*Ascend!*"

Old Landmarks and Historic Personages of Boston. By Samuel Adams Drake. Profusely illustrated. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.)—This is a valuable book, and we advise any one who is at all interested in American antiquities or history to get it. Boston is one of the few cities in America which are worth studying minutely—one of the few cities which have at once the advantage of being old, and having kept alive some of their individuality with their increasing years. No doubt, too, the time is coming, and is even now at hand, when Boston also must go the way of her predecessors, and become modern; now that the walls of Quebec are being pulled down, there is little hope for the rest. What with fires, and alterations of buildings, and widenings of streets, the old part of Boston has been already a good deal changed, and "Young Boston" is becoming accustomed, as the youth of other parts of the country had already become accustomed, to regard local traditions as simply so many obstructions in the way of improved corner-lots. Still, though Faneuil Hall has been enlarged, and a mansard roof, or to speak more accurately, a box-roof, has been put on top of the Old State House, and the Old South Church is in danger of demolition, and Hanover Street has been widened, and Fort Hill levelled to the ground, and a dozen old streets lately burnt up—nevertheless, Boston is still Boston; Boston traditions are still different from those of New York, Philadelphia, or Baltimore, and they are well worth collecting and preserving.

Mr. Drake has a pleasantly unpedantic way of imparting knowledge, and has certainly spared neither time nor labor in accumulating his materials. The book is not a product of the recent fire, having already gone through the press before the burning began.

Fine Arts.

THE INTERNATIONAL WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

THE display at the Academy of Design is scarcely one that water-color art would choose to be judged by, as the American work is all confessedly tentative in its nature, and the English department is obviously weak in representative names, the best British specimens being in fact lent by American owners from their galleries, and exposed among the pictures of our own Society. The English contributions are represented as having come "spontaneously" in answer to a cable message that they would be received, and are from the class of men who always have something nice on hand for the market, the other class, who can readily sell all they make, being hardly represented. We may go to the shops of any of our importers, and see a dozen water-colors better than the best dozen here. But, for our own part, this respectable mediocrity suits us about as well as a grander show would have done; in judging of a national school, and especially of just such a school as English water-color aims to be, we can best gauge it as it shows at its broad level, without too many astonishments and pyrotechnics. The Academy gives us between five and six hundred handsome pages; the South Room is evenly covered with English sheets, to the number of a hundred and thirty, imparting a tone to it entirely different from that of any of the ordinary collections which enter there, and perfectly satisfactory as showing the peculiar decorative effect of cartoon pictures, in their broad spandrils and shallow frames. The result goes to convince us that English water-color must have been created out of influences and impressions of English landscape to which it fits as the lining fits one's hat; wherever the eye turns it rests upon some glimpse that is both cheering and tranquillizing, "telling a tale not too importunate" of meadows and elms and park-oaks, of fields like those that stretch from Stratford to Shottery, of *motifs* which, both in the subject and the vehicle, gratify the taste without demanding rapture. The suddenness and felicity of water-color effects—the ease, almost mechanical, with which a broad wash struck on a coarse paper will secure transparency and atmosphere—are precisely adapted to a Nature which is capricious, showery, dainty, and as it were domestic. The sketchy brightness of aquarelle is the complement of the British climate.

The figure subjects which are present turn out to be from the hands of a very few artists, but they are sufficient in number to show that the school by no means abandons the representation of human expression. In looking at both figures and landscape we are struck by the air of fecundity which British cartoon-art displays; we think of its short date, and the velocity with which it has shot forth, and drawn up its sap, and spread out its foliage, and vignetted a whole country with its prolific and agreeable ornaments. Nothing is plainer, though, than that the figure department of the art, represented by such things as Faed's "Sir Walter Scott and his Friends," Robertson's "Venetian Councillor," and many others, is a totally different sort of study from the landscape department, represented by Skinner Prout's "Cathedral," Arthur Severn's "Algerian Cemetery," Mrs. Murray's "View of Rienzi's House," and other such specimens. To understand this marked bifurcation we need not indeed go as far back as the cartoons of Raphael, which, long owned and admired in England, may have inspired the ambition of making grand paper-pictures. We can find all that we want in the corridors of the Louvre, where hanging near together are a piece by Bonington and a piece by the elder Isabey. Bonington, an English artist of the first merit, educated and adopted by the French, gives, in his view of the Colleone statue at Venice, the best possible prophecy of the English water-color landscape school, as its happiest works define it; his "Colleone Monument" is a study in aquarelle, broad, washy, intense, and bathed in fluidity and light: all that water-color need usefully attempt is explained or indicated there. The Isabey, which represents fashionables of the First Empire lounging through the Louvre, is another sort of art, derived from vellum-painting, fan-paintings and snuff-box painting; it is touched with minute stippling until the labored impression becomes painful; and *that* is the kind of thing from which English water-color figure-painting evidently dates. Mr. Blackburn's collection gives us only too few specimens of figure-art, but Faed's group of poets shows what it becomes in the hands of an expert, Robertson's "Councillor" shows it in the hands of respectable mediocrity, and there are several ladies present who have been quilting away at the human countenance with the finest pencils borrowed direct from Miss La Creevy, showing adorable and deplorable patience, and, alas! an abundant ingredient of futility. When we see the labors of such humble, persevering, neat-fingered creatures, we long to ask them who their teachers were, and how they ever came to think it a duty to cover their representations of the human figure with a fine pattern of prickly-heat. And if we could find those teachers, supposing any of them to survive, we should be fain to embolden ourselves, and, grasping the misleading guides with firmness, to say: What has got into you, brave Englishmen, that you exaggerate the stipplings from miniatures all over the surface of your large compositions? Nobody does it but you! The Italians are painting lovely figure-subjects, full of gaiety and sunshine, but in no face by Pascutti or Detti or Simonetti will you find other than broad tints, broadly laid on. The French are excelling in their new taste for aquarelle, but Vibert, Castres, Detaille, and the rest never model a countenance except in the flattest *plans* of color, a tint for each surface, preserving the sharpness of the drawing and the transparency of the hue. Why should a head in water-color, the size of an orange, be covered with a rind like an orange's or a network like a musk-melon's? Is it not evident that this is just the way to destroy the luminousness, that suddenness and flash of tint which is the peculiar glory of cartoon art, and its special reason for existence? And how can any boldness of modelling be preserved by an artist whose attention is expended on making the neat granulation cover the whole flesh with one handsome and regular crust? The English have been going on in their corner at this persevering work for perhaps fifty years, while the live schools in France, Brussels, Italy, and even Spain have demonstrated, whenever they chose to adopt water-color, that the miniature and snuff-box-lid method was no more necessary to paper than to canvas, and that Windsor and Newton's cake-paints could be laid on with touches as square as the touches of Horace Vernet or Meissonier.

The method we speak of does not surprise us in a picture so old as that of Faed, but it astonishes us in work so recent and so intellectual as that of E. K. Johnson ("The Rival Florists"), where the old men are as full of character as old men by Zamacoïs, while the diaphanous damsel in white, shading the multiplied stipplings of her cheek with a muslin hat starched with body-color, is more of an enamel than an aquarelle. The free use, by the bye, of this body-color or *gouache*, even in the pictures showing greatest training, will be an amazement to most of our young men here, who thought they were sitting at the feet of British water-colorists in their posture of resolute denial of all the temptations of white streaks and *blanc d'argent* high-lights. While our American tyros will painfully wash all around the intended luminous spot, so as to save the glow of the Whatman paper in its purity, their English leaders are scumbling away at their ease, and mending all with a few magisterial touches of body-color, which, as we are taught, may turn black in the course of years. Hardly any of the English exhibitors present are free from a very ready use of *gouache* whenever it will save them trouble, and perhaps none from occasional touches of it—specks of plaster fallen on a composition of stained glass. The American contributors, we think, are much more cautious in thus mixing styles. Of course the pictures which profess to give distemper effects are to be judged by a standard of their own: Mr. Matt Morgan, for instance, who is a scene-painter, shows a "View near Cadiz," with oxen and figures modelled in impasto most skilfully, reminding one of some of the chalky effects of Eastern sunshine lately given out by Pasini; and the village picture of the French artist Piette, plastered in *gouache* until the embossments catch the light like repoussé work, is very well in its way. The real objections to body-color are when Mr. E. K. Johnson paints several dozen roses with it, not because they will thus look rosy, but because it saves trouble, and when Faed anoints the foreheads and noses of his poets with it in particular places, until they shine like knockers new-polished or with the startling aggressiveness of buttons on a just-uniformed page. How far a *scraping* process is allowable for the development of white need not be here discussed; when artistically done it justifies itself, while when mechanically done it is poverty confessed; but we are hardly of those who give water-color such importance as to insist on a rigid purism and unmixed method. White paint is freely used by Detaille, in his magnificent sketch of a Prussian soldier, on tinted paper, which the hangers of the exhibition have mysteriously put into a corner, while the centres are occupied by various paintings, very handsome and very yellow, in the finest frames yet contributed to American-picture displays. The study by the author of "Nos Vainqueurs," a masterpiece of character, is touched with *gouache* on the flesh and the pipe-clayed trappings; yet in the mode of applying the color, we could hardly wish for a better example of good aquarelle, or a more convincing argument against our friends the stipplers. This calm and honest face, where a limited round of ideas can be as clearly seen as bottom-pebbles of a brook, is carved out in little facets and breadths, like a sculptor's sketch or like a study by Gérôme; the gain in precision and solidity by this quick and

handy method of modelling can be instantaneously seen on comparison with any of the brigand chiefs and gipsy mothers who are showing their porous-looking and pitted faces around it.

Of American pictures there is a truly creditable display and we own we think, that quite as many of our native artists are indicated as prosecuting water-color as we should fancy to be necessary. They are without exception, we believe, practitioners of other methods in addition, the sole employment of water-color being hardly known in this country's practice. Mr. Gifford has some foreign scenes which are truly luminous and pure, such as his view of a *koubba*, or marabout's tomb, near Tangier. Mr. Tiffany has a quantity of oriental sketches, very bold and showy, but evidently the work of an amateur, who is pressing after the secret of light as he is pressing after the mystery of anatomy. His perseverance strikes us as a good sign, and his courage, in the face of some half a dozen French masters in his specialty, the names of whom he knows as well as we do, indicates the true American grit; it must be said, however, that his success in the present exhibition is not any one of his Eastern views, but the quiet and faithful copy of nature in the scene at New London, where the water is seen stealing unexpectedly amongst the meadows of the land, and white sails flash strangely behind the dark scrub-oaks and against the deep sky. The little mountain studies by Richards, showing hill-perspectives drowned in azure and faint green, have a peculiar airy beauty, coupled with the anatomical exactness in which his landscapes are apt to excel. Mr. Thomas Moran exhibits nothing but studies, but studies in great variety, from dark caprices apparently printed off from an inky sponge, and very suggestive in their way, to the caprices of Yellowstone scenery, which strike the eye as odd and nothing more. Our figure-painters are mostly unrepresented, neither Mr. Johnson, Mr. Homer, nor the portraitists contributing; but Mr. Bush, the author of some excellent pen-drawings for Hawthorne's romances, exhibits fifteen illustrations to the *Scarlet Letter*, which are truly appreciative and suggestive if they do show force rather than subtlety. The artist's effects are different from the poet's effects, and if Mr. Bush seems to confound the high-peaked Puritans with the dwarfs who tempted Rip Van Winkle, he at least gains in some of his contrasts and in some of his Rembrandt-shadows the mystery which is the nearest of what art has to the literary mystery of Hawthorne.

The work of some able foreign designers hung in the corridor, and showing the methods of such admirable draughtsmen as Doré, Fildes, W. Small, J. D. Linton, and DuMaurier, are full of brilliancy and expression, capable of teaching our own designers what refinements are possible on the wood, in expression and texture, and teaching our engravers that imagination and interpretative originality are expected of them, too. Altogether the exhibition, though it ought to have been much more deliberately and exhaustively collected, is fit to give our public much pleasure and our artists much encouragement and some hints.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

FEBRUARY 17, 1873.

THE money market has shown no signs of improvement during the past week, and, indeed, rates upon call loans have been higher than for the previous week, having ruled between 7 per cent. per annum and ⅛ per cent. per diem. The average rate of the week was $\frac{1}{32}$ and interest. Balances were loaned out on one or two days, late in the afternoon, as low as 4 and 5 per cent. but, of course, these rates were entirely exceptional. There is a report—and, judging from the weekly bank statement, a well-founded one—that a large amount of legal tenders has been "locked up" by speculators for the purpose of affecting the stock market. It is also reported that the leading "bull" operators in gold contemplate withdrawing $5,000,000 from the market in order to bring about what is known in Wall Street as a "squeeze" in cash gold, *i.e.*, compelling borrowers to pay exorbitant rates for its use. The situation of affairs in the money market is far from satisfactory, the poverty of the bank reserve placing it within the power of a few speculators to create a still more unsatisfactory one. The present low condition of the bank reserve is due partly to the large gold shipments of last year to pay for excessive importations, but principally to the withdrawal of $20,000,000 3 per cent. certificates since January 1, 1872, which the National Banks were allowed to count for three-fifths of their face in the reserve; the cancellation of that amount is, therefore, equal to the contraction of $12,000,000 legal tenders. Besides this, the new National Banks established since that date have issued notes which require a reserve to be held against them, so that the effect of the law for their establishment has been to increase liabilities, at the same time diminishing the reserve. The Bank of England reports a decrease of £355,000 in bullion, and the Bank of France a decrease of 250,000 francs. The Bank of England rate of discount remains at 3½ per cent., while money in the open market is quoted at 3 to 3¼ per cent. Should no trouble arise from the unsettled condition of affairs in Spain, it is not improbable that in view of the existing ease in the European money markets, a considerable amount of foreign capital will be directed towards this country. We hear of negotiations pending in this city for the loan of a large amount of sterling to leading operators in Wall Street.

The sale of commercial paper is naturally interfered with by the activity of money upon call, and holders are disposed to wait, until the flurry has passed, in preference to effecting sales at rates which they would now be compelled to accept. Prime names are quoted 8 to 9 per cent.

The Bank Statement for the week ending February 15 is very unfavorable, showing a loss of $4,903,800 in the total reserve, and a decrease of only $5,666,600 in the total liabilities. The reserve is now $1,299,000 below the 25 per cent. required by law.

The following are the statements for the two weeks ending February 8 and February 15:

	Feb. 8.	Feb. 15.	Differences.
Loans	$293 939,000	$291,520,700	Dec. $2,414,300
Specie	19,035 450	16,461,000	Dec. 2,574,400
Circulation	27 520,600	27,539,800	Inc. 19,200
Deposits	220,299 200	214,613,400	Dec. 5,685,800
Legal tenders	45 107,700	42,778,300	Dec. 2,329,400

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Feb. 8.	Feb. 15.	Differences.
Specie	$19.035.400	$16,461,000	Dec. $2,574 400
Legal tenders	45,107,700	42,778,300	Dec. 2,329,400
Total reserve	$64,143,100	$59,239.300	Dec. $4,903,800
Circulation	27,520,600	27,539.800	Inc. 19,200
Deposits	220,299,200	214,613,400	Dec. 5,685,800
Total liabilities	$247,819,800	$242,153,200	Dec. $5,666,600
25 per cent. reserve	61,954.950	60,538,300	
Excess over legal reserve	2,188,150		
Deficiency in legal reserve		$1,299,000	Dec. $3,477,150

The speculation in stocks has been interfered with by the activity in money, and small and weak holders have been forced into selling, which has imparted a heavy feeling to the market; this was especially the case after the publication of the bank statement on Saturday. Lake Shore was exceptionally strong all the week, with the report current that an effort was being made by parties outside of the present direction to carry the next election by purchasing a controlling interest in the stock. Union Pacific has been weak upon the expectation that the Government would take some action in regard to the money due by the Company to the former on account of interest paid upon the subsidy bonds. We hear that there have lately been some short sales made for account of Washington parties, which may indicate that "something is up" in regard to the relations between the Government and the Company.

The price of Delaware, Lackawanna and Western has advanced to 103; this improvement is due to the legalization by the New Jersey Legislature of the terms of the agreement made between that Company and the Central Railroad Company of New Jersey relative to the consolidation of the earnings of the two roads. How long such an arrangement can be made to hold between two large corporations like these is a question, and we are inclined to think that the present forced settlement of the differences between them is but temporary.

Mr. Stockwell's Atlantic and Pacific Preferred fell back on Tuesday, in the easiest manner possible, from 36⅛ to 30½, since which time the dealings in it have been on a very moderate scale. It turns out that the sale of Western Union Telegraph Stock belonging to the company was made for the purpose of providing means for the purchase of a controlling interest in the Cuban telegraph line. The action of the President in disposing of the stock was approved at a subsequent meeting of the Board of Directors by an almost unanimous vote. The great element of weakness to the stock market just now is the absence of any considerable short interest. The "bears," having a vivid recollection of their experience in the Northwestern "corner," seem timid about selling short; the "bulls" have found but a limited market for their stocks when they have advanced prices, and outside operators are acting in the most prudent manner possible, by leaving the market to the professional speculators of the street. At prevailing prices there is no incentive for the outside public to buy, and, all things considered, we are inclined to believe that the market will fall considerably before any well-established rise can take place.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of some of the leading stocks at the Exchange during the week ending February 15:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wedn'day.		Thursday.		Friday.		Saturday.	
N. Y. C. & H. R.	104¼	105¾	103¾	104⅝	102¾	104⅝	103	103⅝	103⅛	103⅞	102⅞	103⅞
Erie	65½	66⅜	65⅛	66¼	63	65½	63¾	64⅜	64⅛	64⅜	63⅜	64⅛
Lake Shore	95¾	96¾	96⅜	97⅜	94⅞	96⅜	95⅞	96½	96¼	97¼	96½	97⅜
Rock Island	113	113⅝	112⅞	113⅜	111⅞	113	112¾	112¾	112¾	113⅛	112½	113⅜
Ohio & Miss.	47⅜	48¼	46½	47⅞	46¼	47	46¾	47⅛	46⅝	47	46¼	47
Boston H. & E.	9	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9	9⅜	9⅜	9⅜	9⅛	9¼	9	9⅛
N. J. Central	105¾	105¾	105¾	105¾	105¼	105¾	105½	105½	104⅞	105	No sales	
Del., L. & W.	101⅝	101¾	101⅛	101⅜	100	101¼	101¼	101⅜	102¼	103	102½	102¾
Union Pacific	33¾	35¼	33⅛	34⅛	33⅛	34	33⅜	34⅛	33	34⅛	33¾	34⅛
Col. C. & I. C.	42⅜	43¼	42⅜	43⅞	40¾	42¾	44½	42¼	41⅝	42¼	41⅞	42⅜
Western Union	87⅞	91	87⅛	89¼	86½	87⅝	87⅜	88⅜	87⅛	88¾	87½	89
Pacific Mail	73⅞	75¼	74	75	73½	74⅝	74½	75⅛	74⅜	75½	72⅞	75

The cash subscriptions to the new 5 per cent. bonds are stated by the syndicate to have amounted to over $100,000,000. That they amounted to no more is a matter of regret, and we may say of surprise, to the public. It by no means follows, however, that the bonds will not be taken before the option of the syndicate expires, for the members of it are amply able to take what remains, and they would probably do so should outside subscriptions not absorb the loan, in preference to having it published to the world that they had failed in their negotiations. The market for Government bonds has been rather dull in consequence of the unsatisfactory and conflicting information received relative to the negotiations of the 5 per cents. Prices have slightly fallen off, and at the Treasury bond purchase on Wednesday the entire amount of 5-20s advertised for was purchased at and under par in gold.

There has been rather more business doing in Southern State bonds, but no important changes have taken place. Tennessees are lower in consequence of a recent decision that the new issues of bonds will probably be made receivable in payment for taxes and debts due the State, thus reducing the cash payments. The matter will be definitely settled by the decision of a higher court to which it has been taken.

The railroad bond market has been active, with a good demand from investors for the better class of bonds dealt in at the Exchange. New loans are reported to be in better demand by the agents engaged in their negotiation.

The gold market continues stormy, being still manipulated by a clique which is said to hold twenty millions. On Saturday the price reached 114⅝. The imports of the last week are the largest this year, amounting to $11,304,000, and are said to be "about the third largest in the history of our foreign trade." The shipment of specie for the week was $759,802, making the total since January 1, 1873, $9,804,906, against $1,777,183 for the same period in 1872, $5,481,229 in 1871, $4,350,863 in 1870, $5,352,395 in 1869, and $10,686,491 in 1868.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1873.

The Week.

THE Poland Committee's Report, submitted on the 18th, is hardly worth discussing. They find—1st, That Oakes Ames was guilty of selling stock in the Crédit Mobilier to members of Congress at prices much below its real value, with intent to bribe. 2d, That James Brooks procured fifty shares, well knowing that he got it in order that his vote and decision might be influenced both as a member of Congress and as Government director. Mr. Blaine they exonerate *in toto*. Mr. Dawes took his stock and something in the way of dividends, but then "backed out," settled, and received as a net result of the operation only ten per cent. for his money. Mr. Scofield took some stock, received some dividends, backed out, and settled, though on what basis the Committee are unable to report. Mr. Bingham kept some of his dividends, but returned his stock; Mr. Kelley also received and kept dividends, as did Mr. Garfield. None of these men, however, had any corrupt motives in buying the stock, or knew what sort of a concern the Crédit Mobilier was; the Committee accordingly recommend the expulsion of Brooks and Ames. The question with regard to the other members, whether, inasmuch as they did know that the Union Pacific was to be built in great part by Government money, they were not in common decency bound to enquire what the Crédit Mobilier was, is not discussed.

With regard to jurisdiction, the Committee decide, what is undoubtedly the case, that the House has power to punish for offences committed by its members prior to the election. General Butler, however, who is said to have been retained by Ames in the matter, does not think that the House has jurisdiction. When the Poland report was submitted, Mr. Butler got a resolution passed directing the Judiciary Committee (of which he is a member) to ascertain if there was anything in the evidence making necessary the impeachment of any officer of the Government. Under cover of this direction, the Judiciary Committee (the fourth, if we remember right, to which the Crédit Mobilier has been referred) reported through Mr. Butler that the House had no jurisdiction, and cannot expel anybody. The characteristic impudence of the manner of getting in this argument—in a report in which it was as relevant as it would have been in a chapter in Luke—at first rather distracted attention from the monstrous character of the doctrine laid down, which is in effect that if a member of the House is caught picking pockets in a Washington horse-car, the House may not expel him, because the act would be merely an immoral act, and immorality is not authoritatively laid down as making a man constitutionally ineligible to Congress. Bloody murder, incest, and parricide are other causes of disqualification which the Constitution ought to mention. Of the committeemen who acquiesced in this attorney's plea in behalf of Oakes Ames, one, Bingham, is deeply in the Crédit Mobilier mire himself; another, Voorhees, "The Tall Sycamore," etc., goes out of Congress in a few days; a third, Eldridge, is another Democratic legal light of small magnitude; a fourth is Butler. What will be the upshot of all the confusion into which this national disgrace has now been brought no one ventures to say. The Wilson Committee report the "in trust question" in favor of the Government, which practically declares the Union Pacific bankrupt.

The case of Mr. Colfax has, with each new bit of evidence, grown worse rather than better. In his attempt to explain the deposit to his credit of the $1,200 on June 22, 1868, he has been obliged to show that he was in the habit of receiving from Nesbitt, about that time, sums of money, partly for his own expenses, and partly for the expenses of the campaign of that year. Nesbitt was a contractor, who furnished the Government stamped envelopes, and his motive in sending $4,000 to Mr. Colfax (to give that gentleman the full benefit of his own evidence) was his ardent admiration for Mr. Colfax's success as being in some sort the apotheosis of a practical printer, Mr. Nesbitt having been of that craft. Unfortunately for the Vice-President, his story about receiving part of the $1,200 in a $1,000 bill seems to be rendered even more doubtful than it originally was by the fact that the only thing that he can prove he received from Nesbitt at the time was a draft or check for that amount. His deposit on June 22, however, was in bills. Altogether, Mr. Colfax's reputation is in a hopeless condition.

All accounts agree in confessing that the delegation of Kansas politicians who have been on at Washington testifying about Caldwell and Pomeroy were not a comely and prepossessing lot of gentlemen; but, if we may trust the best Administration correspondents, they must have been physically and morally loathsome in a marked degree. What has helped Caldwell, says one correspondent, is the appearance of the Kansas witnesses and attorneys. One of these creatures, it appears, has been heard to say that in case Caldwell could be expelled the Senate, he, the attorney, or "the man Simpson," as the correspondent calls him, was going to succeed him; and the correspondent remarks that the sight of this Simpson walking about under the eyes of senators has done something to reconcile senators to the continued society of Caldwell. Simpson is also a "conspirator," the object of his plots being Caldwell. For these and other reasons it is now thought that the injured Caldwell will not be allowed to abandon his seat. By-and-by, when a man wants to get expelled from the Senate or House, and really means business, he will cause to be published in one daily newspaper printed in the county in which he resides, and one daily newspaper printed in the District of Columbia, a notification to all men that on such a day, at such a place, articles of agreement were signed between him, Samuel C. Pomeroy, or Oakes Ames, or Alexander Caldwell, or Schuyler Colfax, or whatever his name may be, party of the first part, and So-and-so, party of the second part, to perform certain acts of bribery and corruption, and that such acts have been performed before So-and-so, a judge of a court of record.

The contest for the Massachusetts senatorship appears to be of doubtful result so far, and to be arousing a great degree of interest. Not that the people are so much excited, we suppose, but among the politicians, and in the newspapers, deep is calling unto deep at a great rate—the Massachusetts Club, the Custom-house, the Third House, the *Advertiser* and the other journals, the Post-Office, and various other institutions, making a great noise. According to the *Commonwealth*, which has relations with the Treasury Department, Mr. Boutwell, whom the *Commonwealth* asserts to be "like the wise father of a large and diverse family," so good is he at composing jars and quarrels, is found fault with by some people because, being a natural-born peacemaker, he consents to be on good terms with "an impulsive or even an audacious member" of his happy but diverse family. This accusation, as we gather from the journals which oppose Mr. Boutwell, refers to the alleged fact that Mr. Boutwell and the impulsive Butler have been colloguing together, and have made a pact which shall enure to the benefit of both gentlemen, help Judge Richardson into the Treasury when Mr. Boutwell

goes out, and put an end to that "localization of Butler in Essex County" which the decenter Massachusetts politicians have only with much vigilance and diligence maintained. The *Advertiser*, which may perhaps be against Boutwell from dislike of Butler and aversion to a Butler-Richardson-Boutwell political syndicate, is in favor of Dawes, and declares that if things go on for a fortnight longer as they have been going since the Legislature came together, Boutwell will lose his vaunted strength, and Dawes will be elected on the first ballot. But to say so, and to urge this result, the *Advertiser* appears to think it necessary to take so ingenious and so peculiar a view of the Crédit Mobilier business, that exactly what weight to attach to its vaticinations we do not know.

According to the *Advertiser*, had it not been for the courage and far-sighted faith of Mr. Oakes Ames, we should not have had our Pacific Railroad; or, at all events, we should not have had it so soon as we did get it, and, on the whole, our displeasure at Mr. Ames's pecuniary transactions is one more melancholy proof of the ungratefulness of republics; while the popular conviction that numerous Congressmen have been guilty of corruption and of falsehood, or something so very much like these things as to baffle casuistry, is, according to the *Advertiser*, a most cruel and perverse piece of injustice. Meantime, while the fight rages between the Boutwell men and the Dawes men, there is some talk of compromise candidates. Of these one is Mr. Sanford, Speaker of the House, known as yet to local fame only, whose friends are circulating a printed appeal in his behalf. Another is Mr. William Whiting, a gentleman of wealth, a lawyer of some sharpness and small political experience, a member of Congress elect, a former Solicitor of the War Department, and the author of a not much admired book on the war power granted by the Constitution to the General Government, and which advocates some very dubious extensions of that power. But we hear little serious talk of any candidate whose election would maintain and advance the credit of the State, although Judge Hoar, for one, is mentioned. Whether or not Massachusetts owes the country some such man may perhaps be profitably considered in the light of such a list of recent Massachusetts statesmen as this one: Mr. Oakes Ames, Mr. John B. Alley, Mr. N. P. Banks, Mr. B. F. Butler, and Mr. Ginery Twichell, not to mention the Crédit Mobilier stock held by one of the candidates for the vacant senatorship, and that held by the wife of the outgoing senator. We should recollect, too, that it was Massachusetts that furnished Kansas and the country with Mr. Samuel C. Pomeroy, who has just covered us all with such glory.

The Hon. Ginery Twichell of Massachusetts has given the latest illustration yet made public of the extent to which Congressmen have become demoralized by the habit, now long prevalent, of going to their places not as lawmakers acting for the public interests, but just precisely as before their election they used to go down to the counting-room of their shoe and leather house, or salt-works, or rolling-mill, or bunting manufactory, or other tariff-favored industry, whatever it might be. Mr. Twichell is a practical "railroad man," and he is in Congress as such; that is to say, he knows thoroughly that branch of the railroad business which largely consists in opening up by means of a railroad a new region which needs opening up or does not need it, but the opening up of which in any case leads to the possession by the railroad company of large quantities of public lands bestowed upon it by Congressional grants, which its officers in Congress beg and buy. Of one such road Mr. Twichell is the President, and the bill which he brought in he was very anxious to see passed—"as it would effect a saving to the Government," or for some other sufficient reason. He was so anxious that he is reported as having gone down to the tellers where members were passing through to be counted on the "Nay" side of the vote, and personally expostulated with honorable gentlemen and begged them to change their votes. Upon this one Democratic member is reported to have remarked that "he had no objection to a railroad president's voting for his own bills"—and we dare say most mem would say this without a trope—but that he thought lobbying for them was a little too much. Another Democrat, Mr. Cox, of New York, said that until then he had never seen anything so disgraceful during the whole term of his Congressional service. Mr. Twichell had previously been rebuked by the point of order made against him that a member should not vote in favor of measures which would affect his pecuniary interests, but it was the second rebuff that abashed him; and what probably abashed him even more was that his bill failed to pass.

Never before in the history of the country have there been three United States judges liable to impeachment and removal, but sure enough that is our case now. Judge Durell in Louisiana has been incidentally investigated by the Senatorial Committee on the affairs of that unhappy State, and although three reports were made, of varying tenor in several respects, they all agree in charging him with usurpation of power and an outrageous stretching of his jurisdiction in setting up the Kellogg or Custom-house government. Judge Sherman's case continues as lamentable as ever, and no hope for him, or rather for the bettering of his defence, is visible. That he or Durell are to suffer, however, there is not at present any certain indication. Worse off appears to be Judge Delahay of Kansas, an old gentleman of extraordinary humors, who is undoubtedly to be impeached, unless he resigns, which latter course his family are urging upon him, without as yet securing his assent. The senator-elect from Kansas, Mr. Ingalls, has testified that on one occasion when it was very necessary that certain processes should issue from the judge's court, he found the judge drinking heavily and the court regularly shut up each day without any business transacted. After asking the officers of the court and many other persons what he should do, he was at last informed that he had better give five thousand dollars to the judge's son-in-law (now Governor of Kansas) as an inducement to him to get the old gentleman into the court-house. This was accomplished, and the processes issued one evening after dark. We may add that Mr. Osborne was paid by a draft on Mr. Ingalls's clients, which they repudiated, and Mr. Osborne brought suit. Altogether, what with Kansas judges and governors and lawyers, and other official gentlemen in various places, we may conclude that Dr. Cumming has some color for asserting as he does that his powers as a prophet ought not to be discredited; for though the world is not destroyed yet, we are justified, he says, in considering the past year rather remarkable.

The last year has been fruitful in revelations of the rascality that infects nearly every American Legislative Assembly from Topeka to Charleston, and from New Orleans to Washington, and Harrisburg, and Albany, and Boston; but, after all, the case of the New Jersey lobby and the reading clerks who put the eighth section into the Stanhope Railroad Bill has hardly been surpassed. Our readers will recollect that we commented on this at the time, and that our columns contained some correspondence on that subject under the head of "A Five Million Dollar Swindle." We see that the courts have just given the job a quietus, temporary or permanent. We have no opinion to offer on the important question which may probably have been at the bottom of this particular piece of knavery. That New Jersey should have a general railroad law, and that the Pennsylvania Central road should not be allowed a monopoly of the railroad transportation across the middle section of New Jersey, are propositions to which assent may be given or withheld. But the way in which it was sought to give a share in this business to the corporation which got the Stanhope Bill

through the Legislature last winter, was a way about which there can be only one opinion. What the Corporation's methods were is not publicly known; but it is known that the House and Senate passed a bill for its benefit, and that when the presiding officers of the House and Senate had certified the bill and the Governor had given it his approval, it was found that between the bill's passage by the House and its signature by these three officials a section (the eighth) had been interpolated, with nobody's knowledge except that of certain outsiders and a clerk or two. This section changed the legislative grant of very petty powers into a very large and liberal grant, and made the little Stanhope railroad charter a charter under which the corporators could do pretty much everything, and certainly could make themselves a very dangerous rival of the Pennsylvania Central Company. This latter corporation at once brought suit, and it may be supposed and hoped that the clever and sagacious gentlemen who asked for a popular subscription of five millions to their stock did not get much money from the public. The Vice-Chancellor of the State has just voided the charter, not, however, on the ground of its fraudulent obtainment, but without going so far as to touch that matter, which, we believe, is to be the subject of a criminal investigation. The interpolated section would in any case be void, the Vice-Chancellor says; charters must be strictly construed, as already has been thoroughly laid down; any ambiguity in the terms of the grant must be construed against the corporation; and this charter is made up of half a dozen grants for various specific purposes, and of these purposes the carrying passengers and freight through from New York to Philadelphia was not one.

The Committee of Seventy held a great meeting on Tuesday evening to protest against the new Charter now before the Legislature at Albany. The resolutions, which were originally drafted by Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, and subsequently adopted, with modifications, by the Committee on Legislation, warn the "workers," "engineers," and "wire-pullers," and "rings" of all parties, that "the higher public opinion" in politics, and especially municipal politics, can no longer be safely disregarded; and that the municipal machinery cannot be used any longer for party purposes, and condemn without qualification the proposed mode of making appointments, the proposed mode of removing heads of departments with the consent of the Aldermen, and the proposed removability of subordinates without cause assigned; call for a union of the Department of Public Buildings and the Fire Department, for the bestowal of the Comptroller's power on a Finance Department, composed of several members, and for the selection of the Public Administrator and the Counsel to the Corporation by some judicial authority; condemn the proposal to give the Police Board power to make unlimited and arbitrary examinations of citizens and to give the Superintendent the right to keep "a band of spies" under his own and sole control, and the bestowal of such extensive powers on a single Commissioner of Public Works—a device copied from Tweed. The fact is, however, as we have before remarked, and as the resolutions admit, the Charter is as good as is consistent with a fixed plan to keep the city offices for the Republican party, or rather for the new "Ring." If you object to any of their schemes, however, they turn round and impudently ask you to submit a Charter yourself if you do not like theirs. But if you did, they would swarm up to Albany and fight it to the last.

The reader of our daily papers might be excused for believing that the "amended charter" is the work of patient and sagacious reformers sedulously thoughtful of the welfare of the municipality; or, on the contrary, for believing that it is the work of a small gang of thieves. The reader should know, however, that we have many writers for our daily press, and that some of them get their wages from one sort of person and others of them get theirs from persons of another sort, and that each works accordingly. There is, however, a very general and vehement suspicion that the truth is about as follows, and it is none the less credited because few people are in a position to make oath to it in detail: The chicanery of the "Custom-house" Republicans is endeavoring to impose upon the Legislature at Albany a charter which will hand the city over to a new Ring government composed of Murphy and his friends, in alliance, more or less open, with O'Brien, the original Reformer who published the figures which ruined Tammany. This scheme of government for us dates back as far as last summer or autumn, and was then part and parcel of the Presidential campaign. Thus, it was commonly said last October and earlier that Mr. Commissioner Davenport was to have as a reward for his energetic suppression of Democratic false registry in this city the post of Superintendent of Police, and it is now openly avowed that he is to have that place. Mr. Havemeyer the Ring people do not dare to legislate out of office, perhaps because they are very well aware that he would be voted in again forthwith, as he was voted in against the Ring's former candidate O'Brien. He is not an ideal mayor, perhaps; and doubtless he represents a certain amount of old-fashioned prejudice, but just at present the old-fashioned prejudice in favor of honesty and against public plundering is strong in the community, and that also Mr. Havemeyer represents excellently. Apparently the Ring people's best reliance, next to secrecy and expedition, is the incredible purblindness of party zeal among the Republican country members. Zeal it must be called, unless we are to call the whole legislative body corrupt. Husted, a politician of a variegated record, who manages the Charter on its passage through the House, tells the members that it is a Republican measure, a measure brought to Albany by Republicans, a measure urged by Republicans, and a measure designed to favor Republican rule, and the House votes obediently.

The condition of "metropolitan journalism" is still very entertaining to the light-minded and still draws sighs from the judicious. The *World* has again called the editor of the *Times* "Jennings," and an "exotic and fat-witted fibber"; to which the *Times* replies that the *World* is a "low and wretched organ" and "a brownstone organ." The editor of the *Times*, too, having been invited to a public dinner where he met the editor of the *Evening Post*, was dissatisfied with a speech made by the latter in response to a toast, and took an early opportunity of abusing it as a "school-boy performance," containing "musty quotations," and as "boyish nonsense"; and announced a series of articles by himself on the Charter, which would save all the editors, and in fact everybody else in the community, the trouble of further discussion, and advised the *World* to borrow money enough to pay the expense of copying them. Whereupon the *Post* called attention to what was coming, and bade "the whole earth keep silence," and "the city lend its attentive ears," while "we thankfully learnt from the oracle the secret of our destinies." It also aggravated these observations a few days later by sarcastically declaring that the *Times* had at last explained that it was it (the *Times*) which had first published the Ring accounts. This maddened the *Times* beyond endurance, and it forthwith "invited" the editor of the *Post*, as the French say, "to buy a nail brush, put on a clean shirt, or at least that strange article which he believed was called 'a dickey'" (this uncertainty is very funny), and "refrain from spouting boyish nonsense at public dinners, take a bath, and go to bed for a week or two"; and, in the meantime, "left him to revel in a congenial state of muck." The resemblance of this stuff to the swill which old Bennett used to empty on the heads of the "Little Villain," and "Massa Greeley," and the "Chevalier Webb," is strikingly suggestive, and we commend it to the attention of reformers and philanthropists.

PUBLIC OPINION AND THE CURRENCY.

THE session is drawing to a close without any steps having been taken towards a return to specie payments. Indeed, beyond the introduction of Mr. Sherman's and Mr. Hooper's bills, Congress has given no sign of any interest in the subject, and these bills have attracted but little attention, owing to the certainty every one felt that there was no chance of their passing. The President is said to have set his heart, when he took office, on distinguishing his Administration by two exploits. One of these, the settlement of the *Alabama* question with England, has been successfully accomplished; the other, the redemption of the Government paper in coin, still lies in the list of things longed for but not greatly expected. Very unfortunately, too, the solitary sign of interest in the matter which has been shown by the Executive branch of the Government since General Grant's re-election has been an illegal expansion of the currency by the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, with the subsequent approval or condonation of his chief. It is now rumored, but we hope untruly, that General Grant means to give this performance his own sanction also, by nominating Mr. Richardson for the Secretaryship in Mr. Boutwell's place, should the latter be elected to the Senate. Why this would be a very regrettable step, and why the retention of Mr. Boutwell in office so long is also to be deplored, we think it is not very difficult to show, assuming that a return to specie payments is desirable.

Perhaps no public question has ever been surrounded with such clouds of verbiage as the currency question, and this has had a good deal to do with making it so repulsive to many people that they will not look into it at all, and so hard of comprehension to the majority that it has been almost impossible to form anything like a well-defined public opinion upon it. There is, however, one great fact which governs, or ought to govern, all reasoning on the subject, and which goes far to furnish the key to the right policy with regard to it, viz., that what happened when we suspended specie payments was, that we *sold* to foreign nations the gold and silver which we had been previously using as our circulating medium, and determined to get on as best we could with a cheaper and less effective currency, namely, marked paper, which is of no value to anybody but ourselves, and which is liable to violent changes in quantity at the hands of the legislature. Now, returning to specie payments means *buying back* from foreigners, or taking out of our own production—which is the same thing—the quantity of gold and silver necessary to serve as before as a circulating medium. There is, therefore, no mystery about the process whatever in its essential features. There is a great deal of mysterious talk over the matter, and much use of sonorous epithets, but the thing itself is plain as a pikestaff. We are in the position of a peddler who, having been in the habit of travelling and carrying his goods in a wagon drawn by a horse, on being overtaken by adversity sold the horse and tried to get on with a donkey, and then, his troubles being over, is debating with himself whether he shall not put aside a portion of his profits and buy back the horse, so as to do more business over a wider area and with greater punctuality. In other words, our difficulty now is mainly a mental one. The advantages of gold and silver currency are obvious to everybody; the means of getting back are as simple as the means of purchasing a steam-engine; the questions we are debating, or ought to be debating, and would be debating if the quacks, schemers, and cloudy rhetoricians would let us, are: Are we willing and ready to buy and pay for as much gold and silver coin as we shall need? and, Shall we buy it gradually and by instalments, or all at once? Now, there is no doubt we can afford to do it. The surplus revenue devoted by Mr. Boutwell to the redemption of bonds not due, since General Grant came into office, would have supplied the means for it had we been in the right state of mind—that is, had there been a decided *animus* on the part of the community in that direction.

No such *animus* has hitherto existed, and for a variety of reasons. The paper currency was most unfortunately connected in the public mind with the war and its results, and for some years after the war all attacks on it were looked on with suspicion, as possibly dictated or colored by copperheadism. In the then heated state of the nation, it seemed that the concession that the greenbacks were bad currency involved the concession that Congress had no power to issue them, and loyal men therefore avoided one as much as the other. Moreover, the minute the paper fell below the value of gold, two powerful classes were arrayed against all attempts to go back to a gold currency—one the debtor class, who had borrowed in greenbacks and agreed to pay in greenbacks; the other the trading class, who had bought goods for greenbacks, and still held them. It is true these classes perhaps constitute only a minority of the community, but their interest in the promotion and maintenance of inflation is stronger, because more direct and personal, than that of all the rest of the nation together. A man who has bought cotton, corn, or real estate, or borrowed money, with gold at 114, is a match, as a "worker" against resumption, for fifty men who desire resumption on general, economical, or patriotic grounds. Moreover, the great "operators" and dealers in money do not take very much interest in the matter, and, so far as they use their influence, use it on the side of paper, because they are sharp and ingenious enough to take care of themselves under all systems, and indeed on the whole like the aleatory character of a paper currency, because it increases their materials for speculation and their chance of making happy strokes in the stock market. They like to feel, too, that they are not abandoned to the blind forces of nature when carrying on their "little games," but can, in case they are badly "cornered," get relief from Uncle Boutwell or Cousin Richardson. The class which cannot protect themselves against the consequences of a bad, cheap currency are the workingmen; but in this, as in many other things, these are the victims of their ignorance. They feel their malaise, but they do not know its origin, and so stand by silent, or occupy themselves with crackbrained schemes for enabling them to diminish labor without diminishing production, and to eat their cake and have it. Then, though last, not least, there runs through the whole community a secret, though slight, feeling—everybody experiences it—of dread about returning to specie payments—something like one's reluctance to plunge into a cold bath. They know it will be healthful, and that they will be better after it, but they hang back, and put it off, and think it will perhaps do as well next year.

To overcome all these obstacles, and rouse in the public mind an effective demand for gold and silver coin, some powerful and active agency was necessary, and in the absence of anybody in Congress who had any weight with the country as an authority on public finance, this agency could not have been so well supplied by anybody as by the Treasury. Had Mr. Boutwell, for instance, been a man familiar in any way with the history or problems of national finance, and had he thrown the weight of the Treasury from the beginning into the scale in favor of a prompt redemption of the greenbacks, as he threw it in in favor of the honorable redemption of the bonds, we do not doubt that by this time public opinion would have settled down into as strong a conviction of the necessity of coming back at the earliest moment to the use of gold and silver currency, as that into which it has settled as to the propriety of paying the bonds "dollar for dollar in gold." Another illustration of the unfortunate position taken up by the Administration towards resumption was afforded by the pains taken to get the decision of the Supreme Court reversed, binding corporations to fulfil their old contracts in gold. That decision was accepted by the country with pleasure; it exercised no disturbing influence on business; it asserted the claims of honesty, and it undoubtedly, if allowed to stand, would have helped to increase the amount of dealing on a specie basis, and to turn the public mind insensibly towards resumption; but the Administration, in the most reckless manner, and with great risk to the independence of the judiciary, procured its reversal, by way of provision for a contingency about as probable as an invasion of this continent by the Czar.

If Mr. Boutwell now goes to the Senate, or other place, it is to be earnestly hoped that General Grant will appoint a successor who is sensible of the overwhelming importance of giving the country a sound currency, and who is ready to labor for that end and that only, and will throw the whole force of the Administration into the business of preparing the country for it, and rousing the people into a sense of its necessity, and who will take up some plan for that purpose. What we need first and foremost is something which will commit the Government to the redemption of its overdue notes, whether by slow degrees or rapidly, and no longer leave it an open question whether it needs to redeem them at all, which has been the shame and scandal of the last eight years; and we have no hesitation in bespeaking for a scheme recently devised by Mr. J. S. Ropes, of Boston, the careful attention of all interested in the matter. Mr. Ropes proposes that the Government should call in all its legal-tender notes, which falsely promise to pay dollars on demand, and substitute for them other legal-tender notes, making promises the Government means to keep and shall prepare to keep, and then redeem these in instalments—say at the rate of $5,000,000 a month, beginning in January, 1875. This would be in fact a bona-fide attempt to purchase for the country gold and silver coin to be used in exchange, and to purchase it by degrees in such quantities as we could afford. Moreover, if the new legal tenders were redeemable on their face in this manner and at a day named, and in clearly manageable quantities, instead of at no time in particular, the Government and the public would be committed to a policy from which they could not recede without repudiation. To the argument that this gold and silver would go off again as before, we reply that it would not, if needed for the ordinary business uses of society—that is, if there was a corresponding diminution of other kinds of currency; and to secure this Mr. Ropes proposes to bring a process of pressure to bear on the banks, to force them to contract their circulation, of which we shall have something to say next week. But contraction is clearly part of the scheme, and has to be of any scheme of resumption, just as getting wet is an essential feature in taking a bath.

THE WAY CONGRESS DOES BUSINESS.

THE country is now in the midst of that period of legislative anarchy which, by the common consent of politicians, forms the concluding chapter in the history of every Congress. It must seem to the ordinary mind that the last days of a legislative body should be marked by unusual calmness, deliberation, and caution; for then its errors will remain beyond its own recall, and to a great extent practically beyond the correction of the succeeding Congress. But our professional politicians have reversed this self-evident proposition, and have deliberately decreed that during the last ten days of the session the "rules" may be suspended at any time, and that confusion, excitement, and reckless haste shall, so far as possible, characterize their proceedings. It is in this period that "jobs" and "riders" are "put through"; that commendable measures which have been slowly perfected and long awaiting action lose their precedence, to be jostled aside by bills that were introduced yesterday; and that legislation which the country needs has to go over because of the legislation under which the country groans. It is in this turmoil that upright men who really have the general welfare at heart become physically and morally exhausted and give up the struggle in despair; that "watch-dogs of the Treasury" like Mr. Washburn and Mr. Dawes cease to bark, or at best bark faintly—at the moon; and that the true professional who has learned to take advantage equally of rules and no rules, pounces upon his opportunities and makes his hay through these ten days of sunshine. The very multiplicity of the "jobs" and "riders" prevents public indignation from settling down upon any one, and throws an immunity around the author of each. Such phrases as "smuggled through Congress," "rushed through both Houses," confess the character of the legislation which courts and executive officers must afterward administer and all good citizens revere as "the law."

It was at this time that the *Tribune*, in the days of Mr. Greeley, used to thunder vigorously, and call upon the country to mark the men who were responsible for this and that job. But unfortunately this marking process, for several obvious reasons, never produced an effective result. In the first place, the skilful wire-pullers did not want to be marked, and managed to pass the most flagrant measures without the call of the yeas and nays. Consequently there was no one to mark, and every man except the mover was free to declare that he voted against the nefarious bill. In the next place, the election of the succeeding Congress was already over. Those members who were going out had little to care for being marked, and those who had been re-elected had a good two years before them wherein to rub out the marks and get up for themselves "a new record." There also remained the difficulty that the marking must after all be remitted to a member's local constituency, and there was a loose idea in the public mind that, if a member's constituency chose to send him up again, it was highly disgraceful to them, but did not concern the party generally. The adroit politician, too, took care that none of the jobs should directly injure his constituents, and if he could lobby-through a new post-office or custom-house or harbor or river improvement for his district, he was able to explain, *sotto voce*, that his peccadilloes were necessary to command the requisite support. Hence the policy of holding individuals to an accountability for the sins of Congress has never produced any practical benefit to the country, and has to all intents and purposes been given up.

But this want of political responsibility extends much further. The Republican Executive is not held to any accountability for the action of a Republican Congress, and though they be parts of the same political organism, a positive antagonism may exist between them. Thus, during the present Administration, we have seen Mr. Dawes denouncing the extravagant expenditures of the Secretary of the Treasury; the Postmaster-General's official recommendation for the repeal of the franking privilege pushed aside by his political friends in the Senate; the efforts of the President to reform the civil service treated with contempt and ridicule by his immediate supporters in both houses of Congress; the Postmaster-General's award in the Chorpenning case repudiated by a Republican Congress as fraudulent, but the Postmaster-General contentedly continuing to hold his office, and throwing the blame on a previous Republican Congress.

And this want of unity becomes even more noticeable in Congress alone. With the exception of the few revenue bills which the Constitution requires shall originate in the House, there is no approach to systematic labor. Yesterday a Republican Senate ratified the Alaska treaty, and a Republican House refused, or threatened to refuse, the appropriation necessary to carry it into effect. To-day we see the Senate originate and perfect and pass a bill for the distribution of the *Alabama* damages, and the House originate and perfect and pass an entirely different bill for the same object. Frequently the same bill will be introduced into both Houses about the same time, and will pass in each; but the Senate duplicate will not be acted upon in the House, and the House duplicate will not be acted upon in the Senate, and the measure will be lost, though both Houses voted for its enactment. There is somewhere in the reports of our Courts the history of a private claim of unquestionable merit, which was passed without opposition ten times by one House, and fourteen times by the other, and yet never succeeded in getting through both Houses of the same Congress.

Of the internal machinery of Congress, the parts that bear the closest resemblance to a directing intelligence are the Committees on Ways and Means, on Appropriations, and on the Judiciary. But these committees depend entirely upon the personal influence of their members. They are not accorded the authority nor held to the responsibility of providing legislative measures to meet public necessities. Occasionally when they do embark in the enterprise

of bringing in a well-considered and carefully-drawn statute, they find that their friends in the same House think nothing of cutting it to pieces, and that incongruous amendments hastily scrawled by members during the hurry of the two hours' debate will be tacked on to puzzle courts, and perhaps destroy the very thing sought to be accomplished. But apart from this danger, there are similar committees in the other House to be consulted, and they, though controlled by the same political party, may have the measure referred, and "smother it in committee," and treat it with as much indifference as though it related to the affairs of another planet. In Parliament, a member of the Opposition calls the attention of the "Government"—that is to say, of the majority—to some abuse, and it then becomes the duty of the Government to provide a remedy, and failure to provide one will be one of the sins for which the majority must answer to the country. In Congress, no one can be held to this direct accountability, and the country seems in danger of losing sight of the fact that the majority governs, and, if we would have it govern well, that it must be held to the responsibilities of government.

The business procedure of the two Houses is also made up of antiquated and complicated machinery not ill-adapted for the few intelligent and painstaking gentlemen that formed the first Congress, but entirely unsuited to our present condition of legislative affairs. The hall is not a place for deliberative debate, but a strange medley of reading, writing, and lounging rooms condensed into one. The rules seem designed to retard and complicate business and shut off all intelligent discussion. Hence it is that there is not a deliberative body in the world whose work is so little affected by the debates of its members; and hence it is that in Congress so many small minds acquire prominence and the control of affairs. As a great lawyer going into one of our police courts may find his solid learning speedily brought to naught by the quirks and quibbles of the quick-witted gentlemen who are familiar with the many small technicalities of the place, so a really intelligent mind in Congress, intent on some legislative end, finds that he is dazed by the Babel around and the legerdemain of rules and objections which it requires years of active practice to master. A leading position in Congress at this time does not imply any qualities of statesmanship, nor any knowledge of the affairs and events of the country, nor even any familiarity with statutes enacted by previous Congresses, but simply a nimble dexterity in the use of the means, with almost entire ignorance and incapacity as regards the ends, of legislation.

In the present excitement caused by the immoralities of Congress, it will be well for the public mind to be turned somewhat to the system by which these immoralities are nourished. As the case now stands, we furnish some three hundred and fifty men with the material for corrupting themselves in the form of subsidies, excessive imposts, and paper-money inflation; and we then enable them to do it by a working system that facilitates every irregularity that we seek to repress. There are some changes that can only be brought about by an amendment of the Constitution, such, for instance, as the election of United States Senators by the people; but there are others which the Constitution cannot reach, and which are already within our power to control. There is no reason why it should be even possible to "smuggle" and "rush" bills through Congress. The scandalous practice is the conclusive evidence of a vicious or defective system. It is just as possible to reduce the routine business of Congress to the limits of method and order as the business of any other body of men. The yeas and nays, which now can only be ordered by a considerable number of members, and which, in the House of Representatives, require forty minutes of time, can be taken by mechanical means in a single minute, and should be taken on the final question of every amendment and every measure. The looseness which now allows a lobby or a ring arbitrarily to put aside the claims of a hundred poor men, to take up, without a minute's warning, the subsidy of a rich corporation, must yield to some system which, on the one hand, will do away with such surprises, and, on the other, will secure to every citizen some approach to equality before Congress. During the past four years the country has morally won the battle of civil-service reform, though the work is far from perfected; and it will not be surprising if, during the next four years, the professional Congressman should himself be attacked within his own entrenched camp, and reform be cruelly forced into the Halls of Congress.

ENGLISH OBJECTIONS TO CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

A YOUNG man who describes himself as "an American resident in England" for some years, has written a letter to the *Times*, of this city, stating what he is pleased to consider the objections against the competitive civil-service system brought to light by English experience. The letter does not make the main point very clear; but it is an undoubted fact that certain English critics have found fault with the competitive system, and their criticism is entitled to consideration, because England is the only country purely "Anglo-Saxon" in which the experiment of competition has been tried, and because the condition of the civil service before the reform was about if not quite as bad as the condition of the service in the United States at present.

The English objections to the system are, first, that competitive examinations result in the selection of men who are too good for their places; second, that they result in the selection of men not good enough for their places. The first objection is very easily answered. If it be true that the applicants for the lower grades of official employment in England are in many or in a majority of cases men of good education, who have been to college, and who are fitted for better work, all that it is necessary to say is, Why do they apply? Unquestionably, because, in their opinion, the certainty of tenure and of promotion, as well as the respectability of the occupation, and the interest which a political career possesses for every one, make up in their mind for the smallness of the salaries and the tedious character of the clerical work to which they are at the outset confined. This objection answers itself. It is in fact ridiculous to suppose that men voluntarily enter a profession which they know to be beneath their talents.

The second objection may be divided into two heads: first, that the competitive system, by taking intelligence as its prime test and leaving out of view the moral qualities of applicants, must in a great many cases result in the selection of dishonest men for responsible positions in which honesty is just as much a necessity as intellect; second, that even for intellectual qualifications competition is a bad test, because the school of preparation for it is inevitably a "cramming" school, the aim of which is the stuffing by professional "coaches" of the embryo civil servant's mind with all sorts of useless learning in the shortest possible time. His studies have not been digested and become part of his mental constitution; they have been rammed into his mind as a charge is rammed into a gun, to be discharged at a given moment, leaving the implement as vacant as before.

With regard to the moral objection, it would be quite safe to say that the surest means of securing an honest civil service is a rigid system of supervision, and immediate dismissal for malfeasance. It is admitted, of course, by everybody, that a certificate of good moral character, whether given by influential men in the community in which the candidate lives, or by his intimate acquaintances, or even by his clergyman, amounts, in this day and generation, to nothing at all; but it might as well also be admitted that the number of abandoned "scallawags," "bummers," or "whiskey thieves" who would enter the ranks of a reformed civil service, and, in constant danger of exposure and punishment, long remain there, would be very small. Besides this, the number of abandoned rascals of eighteen or twenty years of age likely to apply for vacancies in the Treasury or Post-Office Department, knowing beforehand that they have nothing to look forward to but a life of honest toil, is extremely small.

"Cramming" seems at first sight to be the worst stumbling-block of all. Here again, though, the objectors fail to remember that if the applicant shows after he has passed his examination that he is unfitted to perform the duties of his office, he would always be dismissed. "Cramming," too, is not an evil peculiar to civil-service examination. It is an evil which is sure to engraft itself upon any system which tests knowledge by examination. It has long been one of the difficulties of university education; and to-day, both in England and America, one of the most important questions connected with education is, how to get the benefit of examinations without at the same time enabling the student to coach himself through them. The only means thus far suggested of securing the object sought is that of concealing from the student the time of the examination as long as possible, so that he may be obliged to keep himself in a constant state of preparation. Whether this

would be practicable with the Government examinations may be doubtful, but we have never heard it suggested that universities should, because they cannot make examinations perfect, give up examining students altogether. As a matter of fact, all human examiners, whether the machinery they use be competitive or "pass" papers, are fallible, and all human examinations fall short of that perfect system of testing a man's fitness for his work in which the examinations, competitive and otherwise, come at absolutely unexpected and even startling moments, which lasts until the breath is out of the body, which is always ending and always beginning, and which we call life. No doubt the true way to make a perfect civil service for any country would be to admit no one whose reputation had not been finally established by death; as we cannot have an ideal service, it is just as well to have a tolerably near approach to a good one.

And this brings us to the real point in the whole discussion, and that is, that our only choice lies between the competitive system and the present "régime of corruption, ignorance, bribery, waste, and extortion." This is the alternative, as the very slightest consideration of the history of civil-service reform in England will show.

So long as the aristocratic period lasted in England, that is to say, so long as the country was really governed by the landed families, patronage was in the hands of those families and of the crown. The civil service of the country was not, down to the present century, very large, and the abuses of the system were not much felt. It seemed only natural that the families who were the real sovereigns of England should distribute the offices of England. Indeed, if they did not do it, who would? Therefore, whenever any offices fell vacant, in the army, the navy, or the church, or anywhere else (the military and ecclesiastical services were the real antitypes of the civil service of to-day), they divided them among their younger sons, their brothers-in-law, and their wives' cousins, or other political adherents, without fear or shame.

This state of society has completely passed away, both in England and in this country. The sovereign is the popular will, or, if you please, the complicated machine for getting at the popular will known as Parliament. The revenues of both countries have become enormous, and the corps engaged in the collection and distribution of them perhaps the most important of all the Governmental bodies. Official positions in it are valuable to any one. In a democratic age, too, in the theory of society, every one has the right to an equal chance in obtaining political as well as any other position, and the only question is, how to reconcile the necessities of this theory with the necessity of having the most important Government offices filled with the best attainable men. Competitive examination is one way, and it has been tried in England. Another way is that of appointment by an elective executive, without other means of information as to the character of the applicants than he may be able to gather by his own acquaintance with them, or from the advice he gets from those who know them better. This system is an utter failure; first, because the examination into the fitness of applicants would take up the whole time of the executive, if properly carried on, and, secondly, because the information he gets from senators and representatives to aid him is totally worthless, the senators and representatives managing their nominations exactly as the great English families used to manage theirs, with the difference that the English had at least the advantage of the presumption of political skill on the part of the nephews, wives' cousins, and brothers-in-law, while we have the disadvantage of the profoundest political ignorance. We have also the disadvantage of living in an age in which the possession of any political position is the easy means of acquiring a fortune. The English system is more successful, as it is more just and democratic than our own, and these are the two between which we have to choose. If not, what other can be suggested which is better?

ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 7, 1873.

LIKE all Englishmen of well-regulated minds, I read my *Times* every morning, and once a year I receive a shock of rather equivocal character. Once more the great tide of parliamentary eloquence has flowed back in an impetuous stream, as the so-called "bore"—a name of evil omen—rushes up the lower reaches of our rivers. The columns which yesterday were barren and desolate, where one had to pick one's way from one fragment of useful information to another, past dreary details of murders, accidents, and lawsuits, are now clothed to repletion with the rhetoric of our parliamentary leaders. Alas! the stream is very turbid and perplexed, or, to drop metaphor before it is worked to death, there is not much satisfaction to be derived either from the Queen's Speech or from the various comments to which it has given occasion. The proceedings on the first day of session are far from inspiriting. They are little more than a pompous parade of the hostile forces which precedes a general action. Perhaps it would be difficult to imagine a more uncomfortable position than that of the young gentlemen who are annually put forward to move the addresses in answer to the Queen's Speech. They are, in the first place, clad in some preposterous uniform, as deputy-lieutenants or officers in some militia regiment; and an Englishman in a uniform is always a prey to the most exquisite discomfort, unless he is kept in countenance by some hundreds of other victims. In this case he stands out in brilliant relief against the extremely free and-easy costume of his brother-members of Parliament, and the strongest conviction in his mind is that he looks like a fool. The chances are ten to one that his conviction is thoroughly well founded. Then he has to make a speech about things in general, and to take for his text the Queen's Speech, which is proverbially the most inane species of composition known to humanity. Nobody has ever been known, since the earliest beginnings of English history, to gain any higher success in this performance than is implied in being strictly inoffensive. However, dreary as it is, it is not much worse than the more elaborate display which follows. The leaders of the opposition make their curtseys, and are duly met by the leaders of the ministerial forces in the two Houses. But neither party really wishes to show its card at this early period of the session; and accordingly the argument diverges for the most part into some safe generalities, where the greatest amount of talk may be got through with the least danger of any practical application. Last night, for example, a great deal was said about the Geneva arbitration. I have not, I must confess, had the heart to read it through. I would as soon read the debates upon the trial of Warren Hastings or the repeal of the corn-laws. Doubtless, there were a good many opportunities for little personal remarks, which gave more or less satisfaction to the hearers; but the subject itself is dead and buried, and the less one sees of its ghost the better.

A hint or two, however, may be derived from the Queen's Speech as to the probabilities of the coming session. A good many subjects for legislation are briefly suggested; such, for example, as the formation of a Court of Appeal, the revision of our system of local taxation, and the alteration of certain clauses in the Education Act. Each of these may, so far as we can tell, lead to discussions of an important character, or they may lead to nothing. This time last year we were all expecting that an exciting session would follow, and that Government would be very fortunate if it avoided a complete upset. Those expectations were falsified, chiefly, as it appears, owing to the complications about the Washington Treaty. Equally unexpected developments may of course take place upon the present occasion. So far, however, as the wisest prophets can tell us, and their opinion seems to be shared by the Ministers, the real battle of the year will be waged upon the question of Irish University Education. All manner of fierce passions are waiting for the signal to get up as pretty a fight as has been seen of late years. All last session the difficulty lay in the background, and in spite of Mr. Fawcett's efforts to bring it to a discussion, Government was able to shelve it for the time. Now, however, Mr. Gladstone has to show what is his method of grappling with this most ticklish business that has hitherto presented itself. The question, indeed, of arranging a university system is not, at first sight, so great a problem for a statesman as the disestablishment of a church or the reorganization of an army. But the difficulty of such a question is proportioned not to the amount of detail necessary, but to the bitterness of feeling which is excited. When it was once settled that the Church should be disestablished, all that remained was to grapple with those complicated financial details in the mastery of which Mr. Gladstone has no rival. But here he will have to reconcile bigoted Ultramontanes and uncompromising Secularists, and to satisfy the conflicting aspirations of parties divided by curiously complex varieties of opinion. Will he go far enough to satisfy the demands of the priests? Then he will have against him not only the Protestantism of England, but also the thoroughgoing Radicals, who have hitherto given him their votes, though all the time watching him with ever-growing suspicion. Will he attempt to rally the Radicals to his standard once more? Then he must count upon alienating the Irish vote, and, moreover, he will shock the prejudices of his own High-Church supporters. The probabilities are, of course, that Mr. Gladstone will produce, as usual, some very complex and ingenious plan, intended to satisfy everybody. He succeeded more or less in steering such a course in passing the English Education Bill, although the compromise then effected seems to have had the fate of most compromises, and to have embittered rather than pacified the antagonists. We shall see whether he will be equally successful on the present occasion; if he is, it must be admitted that he will have given a signal proof of parliamentary dexterity, though it may still be a question whether he has shown the genuine statesmanship by which permanent victories are gained. One could wish that he had in his composition a rather stronger dash of the Bismarck vigor.

Meanwhile, some indications of the future may be gathered from a plan put forward rather ostentatiously in the *Times*, and which may be regarded as an attempt by a judicious spectator to forecast the probable action of Government. The real pith of the matter seems to be that the Catholic priesthood wish to obtain a complete command of the higher education. They want to have a Catholic university which shall be fully on an equality with the Protestant and secular colleges, and they then trust that their spiritual authority will be sufficient to force all Catholic young men into their own fold, and keep them at a safe distance from Protestant contagion. Of course, the demand is put forward in the name of religious liberty; and the question is how far their legitimate demands can be satisfied without establishing a spiritual despotism. Mr. Fawcett has maintained that a sufficient concession will be made by throwing open the endowments of Trinity College to all sects, and by forming a governing body in which the Catholics will be fairly represented. Catholics have long been admitted as students and to take degrees, but they have not been allowed to hold fellowships or to have a share in the government. Such a change, however, is declared by the priests to be totally insufficient. Trinity College would still be tainted with Protestantism, and they would not allow their young men to incur the danger of such association. They wish to have the Catholic University which has recently been founded put in every respect on a level with Trinity College. Well, it is said, let a university be founded in Dublin after the fashion of the London University. Such a body is simply an examining board, authorized to grant degrees to anybody who applies for them. No, it is replied, this is still insufficient. This scheme would leave Trinity College and the so-called "godless colleges" precisely in their present condition, with all their endowments and privileges. The degrees of the new university would be considered as inferior to those granted by Trinity and by the Queen's University, and Catholic students would therefore not be on a thorough equality with Protestants. We must then make a further advance. An actual endowment of a Catholic university is not indeed to be thought of, for English public opinion would not stand it, and the plan of concurrent endowment or "levelling-up" was rejected on occasion of the disestablishment of the Irish Church. But we might, in the first place, throw Trinity College open, as the proposal to do so has already been accepted by its existing governing body. Then we might form a national university, which should be something more than a mere examining board; it should affiliate all the existing colleges in Ireland, and have the sole right of conferring degrees; its governing body should be composed of the heads of all the subject and affiliated colleges; and, finally, it should receive considerable endowments, in order that it might bestow a sufficient quantity of prizes. These endowments might be derived partly from the existing endowments—that is to say, chiefly by taking a considerable slice of the endowments of Trinity College—and partly, it may be, from the balance left from the revenues of the disestablished church. This scheme, it is suggested, would give to the Catholics all they can fairly ask, without falling into the error of concurrent endowment; and it is urged, as against Mr. Fawcett's plan, that merely to open Trinity College in the way he proposes would still leave it infected by a certain Protestant flavor, and would therefore give a claim to the Catholics for an endowment of some of their institutions by way of balance.

I have dwelt upon this scheme, because it seems highly probable that something of the kind will be proposed by Mr. Gladstone, and because it illustrates the kind of demands which have to be satisfied. Any such scheme, however, would encounter a very large amount of opposition, for practically it would amount to making a considerable concession to the Catholic hierarchy. It would enable them to keep their students together under a strictly ecclesiastical system, and yet to obtain a considerable share of the endowments. It would seriously depress Trinity College, and throw a corresponding degree of influence into the hands of the priests. The proposal might be adopted in the name of toleration, but its natural effect would be to strengthen religious animosities by throwing difficulties in the way of a combined educational system. Catholics would be more than ever educated at one place and Protestants at another, and the concessions dictated by principle would be used against liberalism. But then, are we justified in looking behind the general principle, and asking in what spirit our concessions will be used? That is a very wide question, the discussion of which would lead to so many disputed points in political theories that I need go no further at present. I will conclude, therefore, with the remark that the materials of a very pretty quarrel are provided, and that there are plenty of people only too ready to take advantage of them. There seems to be a very general impression that this will be the last session of the present Parliament, and that the question of which I have been speaking will be the prominent topic for hustings speeches during the approaching autumn. And yet a political mountain so often gives birth to a mouse that no cautious observer would be very confident in such a prediction.

Correspondence.

PECULIAR USAGES OF ENGLISH—OBSERVED IN NORTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Thinking it may be of general interest, I send you the following list of words and phrases which I have heard in the central district of the State of North Carolina. Those marked † may be infrequent.

Many well-known Southernisms prevail here, such as, *a heap* for a great quantity, *to tote, to reckon, nary, right smart, rock* for stone, a *branch* for a brook, *mighty* for very, *Mistress* for Mrs., *like* for as if, *done* in such combinations as "done gone."

Among peculiarities of pronunciation are *fotch, chimbley, mushmillion, trozet* for towards, *horror* for harrow, *tuk* for took, *mought* for might, *east* for yeast, *untwil* for until, *hit* for it, *whingt* for wing, *to holp* for to help, *rense* for rinse, *rashuns* for rations, *whop* for whip, *crap* for crop, *scrop, strop,* and *wrop* for scrap, strap, and wrap, *pore* for poor, *Ivins* for Evans. Of peculiar accent are *artic'-le, vehic'-le, discip'-line,* the *contents'*.

The common salutation is *Howdy?* (rhyme with rowdy) instead of "How do you do?" It is also used substantively; as, to send howdy. *Christmas gift* is the holiday salute instead of Merry Christmas. *Tricks* is used for toys; *snack* for a lunch; *sorry* for poor-looking, as a sorry horse; *no-account* for worthless, as a no-account clerk; *trifling* of unsubstantial things, as trifling lumber which is too thin for service—also, cheap, inferior, spoken both of things and of persons; *deceiving* for deceitful, as a very deceiving hole in the road; *rapid* of a person instead of his utterance, as he was rapid at first, but cooled off soon; *worried* for wearied; a *rising* for a swelling; a *misery* for a pain; a *lick* for a bump, as the baby fell on the floor and got a big lick; *to go at a big lick* for to go at a rapid rate; *in cahoot* or *in kerwhop* † for in partnership; *to pleasure* for to please; *quit* for stop, as quit pushing; *turn me loose* for let go of me; *go to do* for intend to do; *to be bound* to do a thing which cannot be helped, although not desired nor intended, as to lose one's way; *catawampus* for crooked, as the shawl hangs or the row of corn is planted catawampus; *cataspin* † for correspond, as to make one side of a cart cataspin with the other; *must* for may in asking permission; *excusing*† for except, as all the horses excusing six or seven; *to let in school* for to open school, as the correlative to letting it out; *to back a letter* for to direct it; *to strip a building*† for to nail on strips or battens; *weather-board* for clapboard; an *outside* for a slab; *slab* for a piece of wood rived thin four or five feet long, serving as a shingle or as a fence paling, the word *paling* signifying a single picket. A fence is sometimes called a *walling*; a *running fence* is one in which the planks are attached horizontally to the posts; a *panel* is the section of a fence between two adjacent posts or one length of rails of a worm fence; *to lay the worm* of a zigzag fence is to arrange the lowest course of rails on the ground.

To ask *how much* an article is would not generally be understood to refer to its price, but to the size or quantity of it.

Which is sometimes almost equivalent to whereupon. "All ov em is marrid except Gineral B., *whitch* he has promist me when I cum down agin to make a visit with me to Racket Holler to see the girls."

The judge or solicitor of a migratory court is said to *ride* his district. A clergyman is said to *hold* a revival, to *have* a baptizing, and to *preach* a funeral. The first act of new converts is to *profess*. A wedding entertainment is an *infare*.

Among the constellations are *the Gates*†, *Peter's Plow-Hoe*†, *Job's Coffin* (the Dolphin), and the *Ellenyards* (Orion), supposed to be a corruption of *L and yard*. An hour *by sun* is an hour after sunrise or before sunset; *sun-up* is used for sunrise; *soon* for early, as I rose soon this morning; the *evening* begins at noon or dinner-time, and ends at dusk, after which it is night. Pleasant weather is called *pretty weather*; a rainy or snowy time is *falling weather*; clearing up is called *fairing off*. *A season* is a time when the rain wets the ground sufficiently for plants to be set out, though the farmer is sometimes said to make a season with his watering-pot.

From the gardeners we hear of *collards, cymlings, butter beans* for Lima beans, *snaps* for string beans, *ground peas, goober peas* or *goobers* for peanuts, *roasen* (*roasting*) *ears* for green corn, *greens* for boiled cabbage or collards, *sallet* (salad) for boiled turnip-tops, mustard, etc., *creasy*† (no plural) for cress, *baydases, moodases,* and *shipwrecks*† for kinds of sweet potatoes which originated from Barbadoes and Bermuda and which were taken from a wrecked ship, *English grapes* for Isabellas and other cultivated grapes, *Eng-*

lish currants to distinguish the cultivated fruit from a wild shrub, *English* or *garden peas* to distinguish common peas from *cow-peas* or *cornfield peas*, which are really a kind of bean; *pressed*† or pressed peaches or plum-peaches for cling-stones. Fruit trees are said to *hit* in those years when the crop is full.

Potato draws are the sweet-potato sprouts which are drawn for planting out of the bed where the seed potatoes have been buried; *grabbling* is taking out the large potatoes from a hill by hand, leaving the others to grow. *Chopping cotton* is hoeing it so as to thin out the overcrowded rows; the plants which are then left standing are called the *stands;* the crop is said to be *pitched*† when planted, and *laid by* when the work of its cultivation is over, and it requires no more care till picking time. *Rough feed* is the coarser kinds of food for stock, as fodder, shucks, or hay in contrast with corn and oats; *lightwood* (the *w* is usually silent, and the last syllable sometimes pronounced *urd*) is the heart-wood of pine, which by the checking of its growth has become very resinous; *doting-hearted* or *doty* wood is wood partly decayed; *wind-shaken*, used primarily of trees, is applied also to persons who are a little cracked; *stob* (for stub?), a peg driven into the ground (*to stob* is to stab); *glut*, a large wooden wedge for splitting logs; *blue stone*, blue vitriol; *second-low-grounds*, low grounds just too high to be overflowed by the stream; *ridge-land*, land on a ridge. The size of a farm is often indicated by the number of horses required to tend it, as a *one-horse* or *two-horse* farm.

A *fice*, a *ficed*, or a *fowst*† *dog* is a cur; a *yard-dog* is one used to guard a house-yard; a Newfoundlander is sometimes called a Newfounder. The meaning of *crap-critter* is illustrated by a dialogue reported as occurring in the office of the Raleigh Provost-Marshal just after the war. "I wants nothing from you," said the old lady, "but my crap-critter that was stole Thursday's a week ago by your thievish soldiers." "Well, madam, if you will tell me what a crap-critter is, and where I am to look for it, I will do my best to have it restored to you, whatever it may be." "Where are you to look for it? Why, look in your own cattle-pens, where you won't find much that hain't been stole." "Ah, I understand now: it's a cow that you've lost; can you identify it?" "Lord sakes, who but a Yankee ever heard tell o' tending of a crap with a cow! It's a mule, man, that I'm arter, not a cow."

Among common domestic words are *fire-dogs*, *fire-room* for a room containing a fire-place, *garden-house*, *hippins* (diapers), *to suckle* (to nurse is not in use as its euphemism), the *crawling* of children and the *creeping* of worms, *gummery* for camphor, *bleaching* for bleached cotton cloth, *Norrud spin* for cotton cloth made at the North, *spun cotton* or knitting cotton for cotton yarn, as a *coat* for a woman's dress and *under coat* for petticoat, *to dip* snuff, *to whip* as a general term for overcasting instead of for one particular kind of it, *a turn* for an armful, *to smut* for to crock; *trash*, applied to things that are small as well as worthless, as the chaff and dust that are blown upon uncovered meat and butter in the market, so that *poor white trash* is a very contemptuous epithet.

The usual *oven* is an iron pot to be placed in the middle of the fire, with a cast-iron cover having a raised rim to hold fire-coals upon it. A platter is called a *flat*†, sometimes a dish. Everything which Yankees call a pail is here known as a *bucket*. The *pail* is a kind of tub with one of the staves projecting above the others for a handle; the *piggin* is of the same shape, but rather smaller; the clause "used as a dipper" in Webster's definition may give a wrong idea of its size, for it holds about as much as a well-bucket. The *noggin* is smaller, holding about three quarts, has no handle and has upright sides, while the pail and the piggin spread upwards a little; it is used as a dish-tub, hand-basin, etc.

Meat is always bacon, except that pork is sometimes called fresh meat. A butcher while offering you beef and mutton will refer you for meat to the grocer's; and a man who had just breakfasted on chicken and steak remarked to me that he had not eaten a mouthful of meat for a month. *Clear-rib* side is a side of bacon from which the backbone has been cut off so that the ribs are clear of it. *Kettlings* are intestines which are soaked a good while in a kettle to prepare for cooking. *Cracklings* are scraps, that is, bits of pork from which the lard has been tried. All fat used in cooking is called *grease*.

Light-bread is the ordinary raised bread of the North, which is little used in comparison with biscuit. The word *leaven* is used in its old meaning; *rising* is an occasional term for yeast, and *sots* is recognized as a Virginia equivalent. *Soaking* is the final process in baking when the centre of the loaf hardens. Bread which is soaked is thoroughly done, as if the heat had soaked into it. A *pone* is primarily a kind of corn-cake, such as Webster defines it, but the word is also used for any loaf, and even the clay moulded for a brick is called a pone.

FISK P. BREWER.

CHAPEL HILL, N. C., Jan., 1873.

Notes.

THE 'Gazetteer' lately published by Geo. P. Rowell & Co. is, like their 'American Newspaper Directory,' an honest and useful compilation, mostly from original material procured at no little pains. It gives "a statement of the industries, characteristics, population, and location of all towns in the United States and British America in which newspapers are published." The entries in each case are very brief and to the point.——No. 41 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal* is almost wholly taken up with Dr. Schweinfurth's diary of his journey to the Niam-Niam and Monbuttu, 1870; and an excellent map, drawn by the traveller himself, is appended, showing the Nile tributaries from the Bahr-el-Arab southward to the Welle—the stream which is fatal to the supposed connection between these tributaries and the Lualaba. This map, embracing the country to 3° N. latitude, lacks but a few degrees of being continuous with the map of the Livingstone-Stanley explorations which accompanies Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for January. In this number the objections to the Lualaba's flowing into the Albert Nyanza—objections derived from Dr. Livingstone's own narrative—are stated.——The Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Session of the American Philological Association (at Providence, last July) have been published in the usual abstract form, and will be found equal in interest to those of former meetings. A very wise and practical step was taken by the Association in establishing a Section of Linguistic Pedagogics, which will give all its attention to the improvement of the present modes of teaching languages, and whose decisions on text-books, pronunciation, etc., etc., will naturally have a good deal of weight. Mr. Lewis H. Morgan's paper on "Australian Kinship," briefly alluded to here, appears in full in the eighth volume of the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and has also been separately printed as a pamphlet extract. It should be read by every student of Darwinism, of anthropology, and, we may add, of American socialisms. The Oneida Community might take as the text of its evening conversations this sentence from Mr. Morgan's summing up: "In the light of this discussion some of the excrescences of modern civilization, such as free-love and Mormonism, are seen to be relics of the old savagism not yet eradicated from the human brain." We do not confound the Community with the free-lovers, though we incline to class them among the "excrescences" and "relics."——The London *Bookseller* mentions the Baltimore *American's* entrance on its hundredth anniversary as "a piece of antiquity which, we believe, is unparalleled in the States." This is not quite the case. The Newport *Mercury* was at least 110 years old last year, and we are under the impression that one or two other papers in New England have outlived a century.——Shepard & Gill, Boston, announce: 'Against the World,' by Miss J. R. Hadermann; 'The Life of Franz Schubert,' by Geo. L. Austin; a new edition of 'Seventy-five Popular Flowers,' by E. S. Rand, jr., and a large-paper edition, limited to twenty copies, of 'Bulbs,' by the same author; De Quincey's works in two editions; 'Another World,' by "Hermes"; and 'Tom Cringle's Log,' by Michael Scott.

—A greater loss than will be apparent to most readers American literature of the lighter kind has suffered in the death of Miss Caroline Chesebro. She was born in this State, we believe, and at the time of her death must have passed middle life, unless, indeed, she began publishing stories and sketches at an unusually early age, for we find her mentioned as a contributor to the magazines of 1848. With these first productions we are not acquainted; but judging them by Miss Chesebro's later works, they must have been decidedly superior to the common run of magazine stories. She never, so far as we have known her, descended to manufacturing wares after a pattern with which she had happened once to please the public, but always gave evidence of conscientiousness, and seemed to work as if persuaded that what she was writing was worth writing, and ought to be written with painstaking. Any one may see this who will look at her most important book, 'The Foe in the Household.' Few American novels equal its careful picture of "Father" Trost, the itinerant preacher, and of the Mennonite "bishop" whom Trost cannot but respect, but for whose creed he has a vigilant hatred, half of the sincere *odium-theologicum* variety, half of the pettier kind bred by rivalship. Very good, too, is the conception of one particular cause, and one particular result, of this hatred: Trost's privity to the marriage between the "bishop's" daughter and one of "the world's people," when her vows bound her not to marry, and then his withholding from her the certificate of marriage, and long years afterwards, when she had become the saintly wife of the new bishop, his preaching bitterly against the hypocrisy and concealed sins of the obnoxious sect. Praise will also be given to the portraiture of the young man whom the "bishop's" adopted

daughter at first loves, but afterwards finds unworthy; and of the local coloring, also, there will be praise, we imagine, from those whose knowledge qualifies them to speak. That appearance of care and conscientiousness which we have mentioned, and the reader's impression of freshness and power in the writer, may probably be due in part to the fact not only that Miss Chesebro had a natural unwillingness to do hackneyed work, but that the bent of her mind was towards the examination of developments of feeling somewhat morbid, and towards problems of life and conduct which are extremely rare, and thus—happily for the novelist, and not less happily for the rest of mankind—are unfamiliar though not inconceivable. Better than by trying to describe this aspect of Miss Chesebro's works, we can illustrate our meaning by saying that as a novelist she was of kin to a better known anatomist of rather abnormal psychology—Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis. We do not recollect, however, that any of Miss Chesebro's writings fill one with anything like the same degree of that desire with which a novel by Mrs. Davis is apt to inspire one—the desire to inform the men and women figuring in it that, whatever they may think, they are wilfully pining in a dungeon very like that in which Mr. Artemus Ward's friend pined once for fourteen years or more, until one morning it occurred to him to open the window and walk out. And we may add, too, that we recollect none of Miss Chesebro's stories which will not nourish elevation of feeling. Distorted views of life and duty she doubtless may often be found setting forth; but one is not impressed as by the spectacle of torments to little end, or of self-tormentors who "enjoy ill-health." Let 'Dallas Galbraith' be compared with 'The Foe in the Household,' and the contrast of which we speak will not fail to be felt.

—Since our last summary, the number of new English works deserving attention has grown considerably. Beginning with the lighter reading, we have in travel and adventure: 'Slave Catching in the Indian Ocean: a Record of Naval Experiences'; 'Dhow Chasing on the East Coast of Africa,' by Captain George L. Sullivan, R.N.; 'Travels in the Eastern Caucasus, Persia, Turkey, etc.,' by Gen. Sir Arthur Cunynghame; 'Journey through the Caucasus and the Interior of Persia,' by Augustus H. Mounsey; a new edition of the late Captain John Wood's 'Journey to the Source of the River Oxus,' with an essay on the Valley of the Oxus, by Colonel Henry Yule; 'Spain and its People'; 'A Tour with Cook through Spain,' by John B. Stone—with photographs; 'A Winter in Morocco,' by Amelia Perrier; 'A Sail to Smyrna,' by Mrs. Baillie; 'From the Thames to the Tamar: a Summer on the South Coast of England,' by Rev. A. G. L'Estrange; 'Eleven Years in Central Africa,' by Thomas M. Thomas; 'To the Cape for Diamonds'; 'The Great Lone Land,' by Captain W. F. Butler; 'Field and Forest: Rambles of a Naturalist in New Brunswick,' by Dr. A. Leith Adams; 'The Arctic Regions,' by William Bradford; 'A Voyage to Spitzbergen,' by Captain Wells; 'Tent Life in Norway,' by Hubert Smith; 'Walks in Florence,' by Susan and Joanna Horner; 'Australia and New Zealand,' by Anthony Trollope.

—Among historical works, as seasonable as any is Vámbéry's 'History of Bokhara, from the Earliest Period to the Present Time,' from Oriental manuscripts. We note besides: 'A History of Greece,' by Geo. W. Cox, from original authorities; a translation of Jules Favre's 'Government of the National Defence'; 'History of Two Queens—Catherine of Aragon, and Anne Boleyn,' by W. Hepworth Dixon. In biography, we may give the first place to Mr. Geo. H. Lewes' 'Story of Goethe's Life,' adding the following titles: 'Life and Character of Erasmus,' by Robert B. Drummond; 'Holbein and his Times,' translated by Miss Bunnètt; 'Personal Recollections, from Early Life to Old Age,' by the late Mrs. Mary Somerville; 'Memoir and Letters of Sara Coleridge'; 'Political Women,' by Sutherland Menzies; 'Critical Examination of the Life and Teachings of Mohammed,' by Syed Ameer Ali; 'A Dictionary of Christian Antiquities and Biography, from the Times of the Apostles to the Age of Charlemagne,' by Dr. Wm. Smith; 'Lives of the Scottish Saints,' compiled prior to the fourteenth century, and a 'Life of St. Columba,' translated from the edition of Adamnan's Life. Mr. James Fitzjames Stephen's striking contributions to the *Pall Mall Gazette* on 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity' are to be published in book-form under the same title. In connection with it may be classed 'The Social Growth of the Nineteenth Century,' by F. R. Statham, and perhaps Owen Meredith's 'Fables for the Nineteenth Century.' Less general is the subject of 'An English Code: its Difficulties, and the Modes of Overcoming Them,' by Prof. Sheldon Amos. 'Unorthodox London'; 'Clubs and Club Life in London,' by J. Timbs; 'Memorials of Liverpool, Historical and Topographical,' by J. A. Picton, should be interesting reading; and as such also may safely be recommended 'Russian Folk Tales,' by W. R. S. Ralston; 'Arabian Stories and Legends,' translated by Mrs. Godfrey Clerk; and 'Tales Old and New,' by the author of 'Mlle. Mori.' For art we may turn to 'Modern Gothic Architecture,' by T. G. Jackson; 'Studies in the History of the Renaissance,' by W. H. Pater; and for art of a very curious and original kind, to 'Grotesque Animals,' invented, described, and portrayed by E. W. Cooke, R.A. Our science list is brief but select: Professor Tyndall's 'American Lectures'; 'Critiques and Addresses,' by Prof. Huxley; and 'Illustrations of the Power of Speech in Persons said to have been Deprived of their Tongues,' by the Hon. Edward Twisleton. Students of Shakespeare will read with profit Mr. R. G. Latham's 'Two Dissertations on the Hamlet of Saxo Grammaticus and Shakespeare.'

—The most noticeable thing in the second volume of Forster's 'Life of Dickens,' and almost the only amusing thing in that tedious volume, is the story about an incident which occurred at the funeral of William Hone. Or, we should say, rather, an incident which did not occur, for Mr. Forster's story, which he says he has often heard Dickens tell, appears to be a story of the kind that may be described as being, in great part, the fruit of the mahogany tree. Mr. Cruikshank has come out in print with a denial; so has a friend of Mr. Binney, the clergyman who figures in it; and now a book reviewer, writing in the *British Quarterly*, says of it that "he has fortuitously been able to test the accuracy of this story by the testimony of five persons, two of them members of Mr. Hone's family, and they all assert that it is entirely untrue, both in minor incident and in spirit." It was originally written to the late President Felton, although afterwards often related by Dickens, and, as Mr. Forster avers, with Cruikshank sitting by and admitting that it was "perfectly true." It runs as follows:

"We went into a little parlor where the funeral party was, and God knows it was miserable enough, for the widow and three children were crying bitterly in one corner, and the other mourners (mere people of ceremony, who cared no more for the dead man than the hearse did) were talking quite coolly and carelessly together in another; and the contrast was as painful and distressing as anything I ever saw. There was an Independent clergyman present, with his bands on and a Bible under his arm, who, as soon as we were seated, addressed C. thus in a loud, emphatic voice—'Mr. C., have you seen a paragraph respecting our departed friend, which has gone the rounds of the morning papers?' 'Yes, sir,' says C., 'I have'; looking very hard at me the while; for he had told me with some pride coming down that it was his composition. 'Oh,' said the clergyman, 'then you will agree with me, Mr. C., that it is not only an insult to me, who am the servant of the Almighty, but an insult to the Almighty, whose servant I am.' 'How is that, sir?' says C. 'It is stated, Mr. C., in that paragraph,' says the minister, 'that when Mr. Hone failed in business as a bookseller, he was persuaded by *me* to try the pulpit; which is false, incorrect, unchristian, in a manner blasphemous, and in all respects contemptible. Let us pray.' With which, and in the same breath, I give you my word, he knelt down, as we all did, and began a very miserable jumble of an extemporary prayer. I was really penetrated with sorrow for the family, but when C., upon his knees and sobbing for the loss of an old friend, whispered me, 'that if that wasn't a clergyman and it wasn't a funeral he'd have punched his head,' I felt as if nothing but convulsions could possibly relieve me."

—This, no doubt, made a very effective after-dinner story, and often did good service in Dickens's hands, but it now appears that Mr. Binney never wore bands; that he had no Bible under his arm, but used the family Bible which lay upon a table; that Cruikshank did not kneel beside Dickens, and that the fireplace was between them; that no one who ever heard Mr. Binney pray will ever believe that he could offer in the presence of his friend's afflicted family any such prayer as the story attributes to him; that "a paragraph respecting our departed friend," which Cruikshank had "with some pride" owned as of his composition, was not of his composition, but, as he stated at the time, was added without his knowledge or consent to a brief memoir of Mr. Hone which he had prepared, and which contained nothing offensive; and finally that the prayer did not, as the story asserted that it did, follow indecorously close upon the conversation, for before prayer was offered there was reading from the Scriptures, "so that if the conversation and the prayer were in the same breath the breath was a very long one." That Mr. Cruikshank, and the friends of Mr. Binney, and Mr. Hone's relatives, and those friends of his who were present (as "mere people of ceremony"), should all be indignant at the tale which Mr. Forster has published, is not surprising; but one may well enough be surprised at his maladroitness and want of consideration for the feelings of others. Dickens perhaps had the excuse of having embellished the story for the purpose of teasing Cruikshank; and perhaps his letter to Mr. Felton was written after the embellishing had been done; and in any case he was first of all a born caricaturist, who always let his faculty of caricature run away with him and make any wild work it liked. But as against biographers writing in cold blood, and setting up living people in a sort of pillory, all men, even Independent ministers, have rights to be respected, and this Mr. Forster appears to forget oftener than is to his own credit or that of his biography. Already he has needlessly offended some dozen or more persons by his undue deference to Dickens and himself, and his carelessness of the feelings and interests of

others; and he has before him several passages in the life of his hero where circumspection in this regard will be very necessary.

—A new edition (the third, 1871) of Gneist's 'Self-Government, Communalverfassung und Verwaltungsgerichte in England' affords an opportunity of calling attention to the only work which undertakes a complete systematic view of English institutions from a historical point of view. Characteristically enough it is a German that has done this invaluable service for the English. The author justly complains of the piecemeal character of the work done by the English in this field, and points out that it is for a lack of comprehensive knowledge of their own institutions that they have suffered their legislation and their administrative practices to run into such a mass of heterogeneous and contradictory detail. The state of things visible at the present day—the disintegration of communal life and complete transformation of the fundamental institutions of self-government—he attributes mainly to their neglect of the historical development of these institutions. A prominent feature of the book is the connection of the early English institutions with the primitive institutions of the Germans. The study which it urges of the historical development of institutions is no less necessary here than in England—whether or not it is possible to arrest this disintegration, or to turn it in a more healthy direction. We may, at any rate, well ponder the assertion that never, from the Middle Ages to the Reform Bill of 1832, were political rights granted that did not carry with them personal obligations. As Dr. Gneist himself points out, it is the new activity and altered relations of industry that have largely wrought the change in question. Apart from the history here traced, the book contains a very complete view of the actual working of the popular side of the English Constitution.

THE POEMS OF HENRY TIMROD.*

To such readers as have looked into any collection of Southern war poetry, the name of Mr. Henry Timrod is probably as well known as that of any Southern poet of his time. And such readers as recollect him with any distinctness will probably recollect him as a writer of pieces which, in more cultivated and polished verse than that of most of our war poets, Northern or Southern, expressed a rather more civilized and polished degree of "sectional feeling" than was usual in our war poetry, and especially in the war poetry produced in Mr. Timrod's part of the country. His verses show him to have been as well convinced of the justice of the Southern cause as were any of his contemporaries; as patriotic and as confident of success. But although he once predicts that grass will grow in the streets of New York, and several times stigmatizes the Northern soldier as a Hun and a Goth, and a "ruffian foe," he does such things less frequently than most other writers of his political creed; and nowhere, we believe, does he exhibit that indiscriminate bloodthirstiness of reprobation and disgust, the apparently sincere expression of which used to cause a good deal of sincere surprise among Northern people, and which, even to a good part of the Southern public itself, must, we imagine, have now and again caused the writing of its poets to seem fatiguing. Unless, indeed, there was a tacit understanding between poet and public that much of the verbal intensity of the poetry was conventional and rhetorical, rather than to be taken as the language of affidavits. Some such understanding there must have been, one would say, when one reads many of the appeals and denunciations of those unhappy days now, let us thank heaven, so remote and so much forgotten. That not very much of this tacit understanding was demanded in the case of Mr. Timrod, will be seen when we say that the following verses fairly represent his patriotic fervor in behalf of South Carolina and against the National Government. A long way, indeed, he comes behind most of the lyrical assailants of the Federal ravishers and robbers of 1861; and as for the poetical quality of the verses, we recall very little of our war poetry which can be said to excel them, the quotability of the fourth quatrain being alone sufficient to secure for Mr. Timrod a certain eminence in this not very exacting competition:

"The despot roves your fairest lands;
And till he flies or fears,
Your fields must grow but armed bands,
Your sheaves be sheaves of spears!
Give up to mildew and to rust
The useless tools of gain;
And feed your country's sacred dust
With floods of crimson rain!

"Come, with the weapons at your call—
With musket, pike, or knife;
He wields the deadliest blade of all
Who lightest holds his life.
The arm that drives its unbought blows
With all a patriot's scorn,
Might brain a tyrant with a rose,
Or stab him with a thorn."

* 'The Poems of Henry Timrod. Edited, with a Sketch of the Poet's Life, by Paul H. Hayne.' New York: E. J. Hale & Son. 1873.

Similar in tone to this "Cry to Arms" is "Carolina," "a Tyrtæan strain indeed," remarks Mr. Timrod's biographer, and "destined perhaps to outlive the political vitality of the State whose antique fame they celebrate." "I read them first," he continues, in language which may be taken as fairly representative of his editorial work of criticism and biography, "and was thrilled by their power and pathos, upon a stormy March evening in Fort Sumter! Walking along the battlements under the red light of a tempestuous sunset, the wind steadily and loudly blowing from off the bar across the tossing and moaning waste of waters, driven inland; with scores of gulls and white sea-birds flying and shrieking round me,—these wild voices of Nature mingled strangely with the rhythmic roll and beat of the poet's impassioned music." Then follows a citation which will be accepted as evidence that most readers outside of South Carolina need pay but little attention to Mr. Timrod's war poetry, cleverly turned though it is, and well as it doubtless served its purpose at the time when it was written. The stanzas cited are these, and "the very spirit, or dark genius, of the troubled scene," says Mr. Hayne, "appeared to take them up and repeat them":

"I hear a murmur as of waves
That grope their way through sunless caves,
Like bodies struggling in their graves,
Carolina!

"And now it deepens; slow and grand
It swells, as, rolling to the land,
An ocean broke upon thy strand,
Carolina!

"Shout! let it reach the startled Huns!
And roar with all thy festal guns!
It is the answer of thy sons,
Carolina!"

As war pieces of a gentler mood, of a less obvious and commonplace character, and of truer poetical merit, we may mention "The Cotton Boll" and "Ethnogenesis," while "The Unknown Dead," which is as obvious and commonplace as the unmarked graves themselves, and "The Two Armies," which is as obvious and commonplace as the self-devotion and high spirit of the women who helped the war on the one side or the other, will be appreciated and approved by very many readers for a long time to come.

It would, however, be an injustice to Mr. Timrod to test his ability as a poet by the lyrics extorted from him by a savage commotion, for partaking in which his sensitive nature entirely unfitted him. To quote again the peculiar language of his biographer: "Out of the refluent tides of blood, from under the smoke of conflict, and the sickening fumes of slaughter" (into which he had gone as a correspondent of the Charleston *Mercury*), "he staggered homeward, half blinded, bewildered, with a dull red mist before his eyes, and a shuddering horror at his heart." It is made manifest in his poems that his heart was not in the contest, and that his intellectual content and happiness were bound up in the prosecution of his studies and literary employments. A great contrast is at once visible if we turn from the "Carolinas" and the "Cries to Arms," and other such things, to the poem which Mr. Hayne has very judiciously placed at the beginning of the volume. Considering how graceful it is, and how pretty in all ways, whether we think of the occasion that called it out, of the tenderness of the sentiment, of the happiness expressed, or of the adequate and skilful method of expression, we shall be inclined to give this poem a high place in such recent minor poetry as really deserves to be called poetical throughout, in feeling, form, and texture. We quote a few lines. We may premise that such of the little happiness as our author appears to have experienced, apart from his delight in his much loved poetical pursuits, he experienced in his attachment for an English lady whom he afterwards married:

KATIE.

"It may be through some foreign grace,
And unfamiliar charm of face;
It may be that across the foam
Which bore her from her childhood's home,
By some strange spell, my Katie brought,
Along with English creeds and thought—
Entangled in her golden hair—
Some English sunshine, warmth, and air!
I cannot tell—but here to-day,
A thousand billowy leagues away
From that green isle whose twilight skies
No darker are than Katie's eyes,
She seems to me, go where she will,
An English girl in England still!

"I meet her on the dusty street,
And daisies spring about her feet;
Or, touched to life beneath her tread,
An English cowslip lifts its head;
And as to do her grace, rise up
The primrose and the buttercup!
I roam with her through fields of cane,
And seem to stroll an English lane,
Which, white with blossoms of the May,
Spreads its green carpet in her way!
As fancy wills, the path beneath
Is golden gorse, or purple heath:
And now we hear in woodlands dim
Their unarticulated hymn,
Now walk through rippling waves of wheat,
Now sink in mats of clover sweet,

Or see before us from the lawn
The lark go up to greet the dawn!
All birds that love the English sky
Throng round my path when she is by:
The blackbird from a neighboring thorn
With music brims the cup of morn,
And in a thick, melodious rain
The mavis pours her mellow strain!
But only when my Katie's voice
Makes all the listening woods rejoice
I hear—with cheeks that flush and pale—
The passion of the nightingale!"

Perhaps still prettier, with its delicately-turned compliment and playful tenderness, is the "Dedication," addressed to the same lady.

We have spoken of the ill-fortune experienced by Mr. Timrod. It was, in general, such as follows men of poetical temperament and poetical susceptibility, but without a poetical ability quite correspondent, who, born to poverty, are compelled to answer the harsh and unwelcome requirements of a practical life. Moreover, Mr. Timrod had to face these in a community whose cultivation was not only insufficient to appreciate and reward literary labors, but also, what is worse, was insufficient to ensure anything but a very crude and superficial culture to such of its members as desired it and had a natural aptitude for acquiring it. Add to all this that Mr. Timrod was a victim of consumption, of which disease he died at less than forty years of age, and that his last days were embittered by the dire poverty which, at the close of the war, inflicted such suffering on so many Southern families, and which left him stripped to the bone. It is a distressing story as Mr. Hayne tells it, and we bespeak for the enterprise of publishing this volume in the wealthy Northern market the consideration of all our readers who buy books of poetry. In this book they will not make the acquaintance of a great poet, but they will make the acquaintance of one who, amid some cheap and some imitative strains, and some that may jar on Northern ears unless the reader will make a little allowance, will give them some genuine and pleasing music.

LAUGEL'S NOTES OF TRAVEL.*

WE have always considered the observations of an intelligent traveller worth recording, even when his experience is confined to the beaten track and repeats that of innumerable others. We find something eternally fresh and delightful in all first impressions of foreign scenes, and we confess that the outpourings of even the most ingenuous tourists always strike in us a sympathetic chord. Of course these productions are very likely to be diffuse and trivial—to neglect the essential for the accidental, and to hold the minute detail so close to the eye as to conceal the general view. These are common faults with literary tourists; but M. Auguste Laugel, in his charming little volume on Italy and Bohemia, seems to us to have completely escaped them. His book is a model for travellers inclined to publish their "impressions." Brief, compact, rapid in style, and yet expansive enough to be occasionally very vivid and pictorial, it is equally free from idle detail on the one hand and pretentious generalization on the other. In the art of putting literary material into form the French certainly excel us, and M. Laugel's volume is a capital example of this accomplishment. He has selected, condensed, retouched, and harmonized with extreme taste and discretion, and the result is one of those infrequent performances in which every sentence counts and there is not a sentence too much. M. Laugel is a general observer; he appreciates and describes the picturesque aspect of things with as much force and point as if they were his especial study, and yet he constantly strikes the moral note, the note of reflection, with a felicity unusual in the devotees of the picturesque—especially in France, where these gentlemen are fond of passing for unbridled Pagans. Of the deeper thoughts—not all cheerful—suggested in Italy at every turn, he is a particularly eloquent interpreter. We have rarely found the moral impression of Naples, for instance, as happily defined as in the few lines in which he resumes it:

"Beneath this admirable sky, before this nature with its pure forms and solemn lines, this blue sea which nothing can pollute, lives a people without ideal, indifferent to the morrow, begging, crying, gesticulating, never still, whose religion is all in feasts and images, with no art, no country, debased by absolutism and servitude, with no gods but chance and force, vile, miserable, foul in its sensuality. Can liberty ever give back the least nobleness to this degenerate race? So long as the *frutti di mare* are cheap on the quay of Santa Lucia, so long as the *improvvisatori* are there to entertain them, as there are jugglers and tumblers to make them laugh, a sun to dry their rags, music, processions, and feasts to amuse them—do they need anything more? Their life is a long laugh, a perpetual grin. From the windows of the convent of San Martino, which overhangs the city from such a height, you hear the deafening hum of this shrill street life, tumultuous as the sound of a powerful tide. The great line stretches round the vast gulf; the houses are hung upon the rocks, among *cacti*, oranges, and aloes; you must raise your eyes to the summits of Vesuvius and to the highest crests of the Somma to find a space that man has respected. And yet, go down from these heights through the crooked streets which slope away in every direction, and in this large city you will not find a corner, an asylum, a church, a palace, a work to arrest your eyes—not one that reflects in its forms and lines the admirable splendor of this beautiful sky and of this nature eternally young and fair. . . . Naples is not, like Venice, Florence, and Rome, one of the cities of the soul. You are too constantly deafened; reverie and contemplation are perpetually interrupted; you must get out on the bay or shut yourself up with the silent company of the statues; you cannot live in the past; you are too much jostled; you are overcome by the continual fever, the sterile activity, the indefatigable and idle curiosity which stir so many thousand beings."

Of Venice, too, of which everything would seem to have been said, M. Laugel says excellent things, and at the close of his chapter some very pretty ones, for which we must refer the reader to his book. Of Rome his enjoyment is keen, and his notes have many happy descriptive touches. No reader who has stood in St. Peter's but will feel how exactly the author renders, in its finer points, the sensuous impression of the place:

"I came in with my mind full of distrust of Bernini, on the defensive; I felt myself disarmed by so much spaciousness, by this unheard of luxury, which yet looks natural and does not weary you. Brutal size here acts as an æsthetic element; the immensity envelops details, melts them, drowns them; the light plays on the fine gilded cornices, on the multicolored marbles; it comes down through the azure, as it were, of the high dome, where the saints and angels are sitting in their motionless rings; it sparkles on the gold embroideries which twine about the bronze columns of the great altar; it flashes back from the immense glory which shines like a sun in the depth of the choir. The marble pavement, without a bench or chair to disturb its perspective, stretches away like a great lake. You take pleasure, without knowing why, in this vastness, in this order so obvious, in spite of the profusion of ornaments. Immensity produces here not the impression of terror, but a sort of contentment which makes you indulgent for all the pretentious tombs, the gigantic smirking attitudinizing saints of either sex, the white marble draperies twisted and blown by the impertinent wind that comes from nowhere, for the angels thrust into every corner—cupids of Christianity! The luxury is all so ample, so grandiose, so joyous! The sun comes in by the broad openings, and its rays, glancing back in every direction from polished angles, glittering mouldings, precious stones, and the gold of the mosaics, forms a sort of aureole which seems to lift and sustain the immense pillars and the colossal vaults. This formidable luxury, which exceeds all private or princely fortunes, has nothing which shocks or astonishes; you feel here none of the terrors and the sublime anxieties of Gothic art; you are far, too, from the robust and sombre simplicity of the basilicas; you assist at the definitive triumph of Catholicism—at its apotheosis."

The longest section is devoted to Sicily, where we are unable to compare impressions with the author. But this picture of the beauty and the misery of this once imperial island, its shrines and temples, its mountains and sea, its almost cruelly smiling nature, and its helpless and hopeless humanity, is forcible enough to beguile us into a half-sense of knowledge. His whole account of the ruined temples is admirable; it is that at once of an artist and a scholar. The author's errand in Bohemia was to visit the battle-fields of the Seven Weeks' War—in distinguished company; that of the Orleans princes. We have sometimes fancied our intellect impenetrable to all allusions to military movements; but we have almost understood M. Laugel's. The tone of the whole book is grave, we might almost say melancholy. The reader may judge by the closing paragraph, suggested by a glance at some of the great Frederic's scenes of victory:

"And yet for what strange heroes history works! Providence, the unknown God, has taken for his representative the old King of Prussia, and given a revolutionary task to a born enemy of the Revolution! What a jest is history, if you look only at the outside—at the stage-setting! But there is a secret, terrible force which sets in motion all the gods and demi-gods of the earth; an unconscious force tending as a still more unconscious force drives it; history is an ordered succession of chances; it moves always towards something necessary; it uses everything, tribunes and kings, monarchies and republics, barbarism and civilization. Whither is it leading us? Whither is aged, worn-out Europe going? Whither our Latin races? Whither France, so vile and so charming, so cunning and so easy to cheat, so full of hatred and of sweetness, so brave and timid, so unjust to those who have loved her, so generous to those who have injured; insane nation, loved and hated, sole of her kind, who may be vanquished but not equalled, mastered but not subdued, who bids defiance to all measurement by the suppleness of her elusive and ungoverned genius? She is not only inconstant; she is tormented with a sort of perverse logic, which demonstrates to her the falsity of all things. Between all things and herself she places her mocking doubt and her incurable irony."

* 'Italie, Sicile, Bohême: Notes de Voyage. Par Auguste Laugel.' Paris: Henri Plon; New York: F. W. Christern.

GROTE'S ARISTOTLE.*

IT has long been a dictum among scholars and metaphysicians that every man is either a Platonist or an Aristotelian. This is about equivalent to saying, after a rough popular way, that in every man of thought either the imaginative or the reasoning faculties predominate. Not, of course, to the point of reciprocal exclusion; for Plato had no small reasoning power, and Aristotle composed what may be called works of imagination, namely,

* 'Aristotle. By George Grote. Edited by Alexander Bain and G. Croom Robertson.' London: John Murray. 1872.

his Dialogues, which had much reputation in their day; unfortunately, none of them have come down to us. Mr. Grote himself, though obviously an Aristotelian, had taken great interest in Plato, and written very well about him. Hence, as the historian's mind was evidently of the Aristotelian cast, greater expectations were formed of his promised work on the Stagirite, and great was the disappointment when his death left the work unfinished—unfinished, too, in those very parts where, as the editors say, "the field was specially his own": the ethics and politics. As the rhetoric was also not reached, what we have is chiefly psychological. The portions which relate to the logical and dialectic works are chiefly analyses, sometimes indeed what may almost be called a meagre synopsis. The chapter "De Animâ," etc. (originally published as a separate contribution to psychology in the third edition of Bain's 'Senses and Intellect'), is probably the most valuable, as it certainly is the most interesting. It will perhaps be news to some of our readers that Aristotle, unlike Plato, did not believe in the immortality of the human soul.

The regular course of the work is broken off in the midst of the physics and metaphysics. Mr. Grote has therefore only completed his commentary on the six logical treatises known under the collective title of the Organon. Besides these and the chapter "De Animâ," we have a long appendix, composed, to use the editors' own words, "of materials somewhat heterogeneous," namely, an "Essay on the Ancient Theories of Universals and the Doctrine of Realism" (republished from *apud* Bain); a criticism on a criticism of Sir William Hamilton's (also a reprint); a long abstract of six of the fourteen books of Metaphysics, and two of the books "De Cælo"; a brief vindication of Epicurus; and a fragment on the Stoics. Altogether, the two volumes make up more than nine hundred pages, and will furnish a conscientious student with pretty stiff reading for some months, even supposing that he does not take the trouble of verifying the copious references to German and other authorities, or of consulting any more of the original text than he will find quoted in the foot-notes.

And now it may be asked, "Why all this labor of writer and reader? Why should we, at this day, concern ourselves about Aristotle, an old heathen who lived in the infancy of physical science? Suppose he did invent logic and metaphysics. Our positivists have exploded the latter, and a countless array of popular writers and speakers show how easy it is to get on without the former." The question is humiliating to answer, and yet we cannot close our eyes to the fact that similar charges of obsoleteness and uselessness are constantly brought against our author, often in so many words, more often indirectly and by implication or assumption. Let us say, then, briefly, that Aristotle is a great landmark in the history of human intelligence. Socrates was the first man who taught men to think seriously; Aristotle was the first who taught them to think systematically and methodically. He devised the syllogism; and all the attempts made to disparage the value of this intellectual implement have ended in establishing its merits on a firmer basis. Take the best-known objection, that the syllogism does not help us to the discovery of new truths; it is much like finding fault with a judge because he has not made a new constitution. The main office of the syllogism is to detect falsehood, and its services in that field are not easily overrated. Then, as regards ontology and psychology, and all that may be summed up under the general head of metaphysics, a historical knowledge at least of these sciences, in their various developments, is necessary to protect us from much false philosophy, false theology, and spiritual quackery of all sorts. Like statistics, they will have a great negative value, however we may differ or doubt as to their positive utility.

Now, when we come to those writings of Aristotle which Mr. Grote unfortunately did not live to reach, we see the everyday, practical work of the man. We see that, heathen and slaveholder as he was, he knew more about human nature and the principles of government than many a Christian legislator and authority of our own day. Indeed, there are many points on which all our political experience seems to have set us but a very little way in advance of him, supposing there has been any advance at all. If this assertion appears strange to many, it is because few have much direct acquaintance with the author, and Aristotle is eminently one of those authors who might adopt the answer of the mariner in the Spanish ballad:

"Yo no digo esta cancion
Sino a quien conmigo va."

The Medical Jurisprudence of Insanity. By J. H. Balfour Brown, Esq., of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. (London: J. & A. Churchill.)—Upon a superficial reading, we were at first tempted to speak with some severity of certain deficiencies and faults in this book. Faults it certainly has—of baldness, obscurity, and involved style; of carelessness of grammar and spelling; of a somewhat imperfect acquaintance with modern German researches in insanity. But these may well be forgiven, in consideration of the clear and sturdy common sense of the author. In the present position of the legal and the medical professions, each has often to ask help of the other; the medical man desires authority to employ restraint as a means of cure, while the prosecutor requests sanction for the infliction of pain as a means of protection to society. There is something unsatisfactory in the present position of both parties, as is very fairly acknowledged by our author. Physicians, from the nature of their calling, are perhaps apt to overestimate the amount of disease present in a community, and to underrate the mass of healthy, vigorous, self-recuperative life. And, accustomed as they are to regard insanity in the light of a disease, with which their first business is to get the patient under their control, they can scarcely be blamed for yielding to the insinuating temptation presented when an actual patient asks to be protected from the legal consequences of some burst of passion or some theft or fraud. But it is fully time for a change; and public sentiment, it is to be hoped, appreciates the danger of allowing the physician to take sides with the prosecution or the defence. The position of advocacy palpably unfits him for coolness of judgment; his gifts of forcible statement, of unflinching and unblushing adherence to truth (as he chooses to consider it), of popularizing medical "science" for the benefit of a popular audience—these gifts, impressive as they may be, ought never to be the openly acknowledged property of one side. We have the sympathy of a large body of the medical profession in making these statements. They feel the shame which attaches to them all, when one or another noted member of their order is accused of selling his testimony to the higher bidder. And it is time that the public were willing to add to the list of desired reforms another by which physicians should, as far as possible, be enabled in court to speak *ex cathedra scientiæ;* that they may be spared the double mortification of a conflict of opinions in the presence of ignorant umpires, and of occasional imputations of venality.

The position of lawyers and judges is accompanied with difficulties of another character, arising from the absurdities and incongruities of the principles which are supposed to govern them, but from which, with a commendable common sense, they are accustomed to depart in furtherance of the interests of justice. The author's views regarding the functions of the court are broad enough. On the one hand, he acknowledges "that, looked at in the light of modern science, the definition of what shall be regarded as insanity in criminal cases is eminently unsatisfactory" (p. 18). He states what to the lay mind appears a truism, but which, nevertheless, is not yet a part of the law—that legal responsibility implies not simply the knowledge of good and evil, but, combined with this knowledge, "the power to appreciate and be moved by the ordinary motives which influence the actions of mankind" (p. 21). His arguments are apparently based upon the assumption that every case must be judged upon its own merits; a most important doctrine, and one which goes some way to excuse the chaotic state of the law. But he states with startling clearness "that mental unsoundness is not incompatible with crime," and that "humane and well-devised punishment must follow all the misdemeanors of the morally insane"! Here are some refreshing words:

"We cannot get ordinary common-sense people to believe that every man steals just because he cannot help it, and that virtue is just as much a necessity of some organisms as the expiration of hydrogen is of others. No! Common-sense people are pig-headed, and think that if an ordinary man kicks you, and you thrash him in consequence, and give him to understand that the next time he raises his foot with a similar intent you will repeat the chastisement—these pig-headed common-sense folk have an idea that, in most cases, the individual's organism will *not* force him to raise his foot again."

In discussing Partial Moral Mania, a similar protest is made against the indiscriminate exemption from punishment in cases where an "irresistible impulse" is pleaded.

We are not disposed to find fault with the author's views; but it is proper to say that they suffer much from ill arrangement, and, to a casual reader, may now and then convey the impression of self-contradiction. Though striking and picturesque, his chapters will not quite answer as authority upon the purely medical aspects of the questions treated; nor are they probably intended to be read in that light. We miss, for example, all mention of Melancholia; it does not occur, even by name, in the two systems of classification he gives. But to thinking men, of all pursuits, this may be recommended as a fresh, independent and stimulating book.

Art Recreations. By Mme. L. B. Urbino, Prof. Henry Day, and others. (Boston: Shepard & Gill. 1873.)—George Eliot, describing showy humbug, compares it to old stucco ornaments that had gone out of style, and whose original material never was worth anything. The last charitable reflection

caused by this neat handbook, which has been substantially before the public since 1859, is, what an amount of painted dirt it must have accumulated in acres of peaceful houses. It has been the privy counsellor of that redoubtable being, the ingenious young person. We should not dare to undervalue this popular character, who presents her friends with glossy landscapes framed by herself, who is and ought to be the pride of the village, who leads its best intellects and supports its fancy fairs, whose hands are honorably stained with photography or pounce powder, and whose side of inconvenience is hardly known but to her own brothers. Our authors, who at once strongly kindle and assuage the creative thirst of such a nature, provide a manual excellent in its way, furnished with what we should think the best communicable rules for the mixture of colors; learned in wax, leather, and tin-foil, and stripping all its reserves from the specious mystery of varnish. They lift the pretty centre-table arts almost to the dignity of a science, while for all their elegant wares they have a severe and exact nomenclature. Thus we find that ornamenting your windows in imitation of stained glass is "Diaphanie"; tracing the outlines of ferns on paper with splashes of ink is "Linnæography"; the decoration of potsherds, perhaps from an imperfect view of the affliction of Job, is stigmatized as mania—"Décalcomanie" for crockery, "Potichomanie" for glass; stencilling flowers and butterflies with horn-paper patterns is "Theorem painting"; transferring the inky impression of an engraving to varnished glass is "Antique painting"; the brilliant signs executed in window-glass and pearl and gorgeousness, and often seen in barber shops, are specimens of "Oriental painting," and the patient recluses who make them must possess "ten thimbles, ten buttons, ten holes in a board, and a paint-stand"; laying on color at the back of a lacquered engraving is "Grecian painting." The author knows a connoisseur who thought he had a genuine Raphael, a Fornarina, judging of its correspondence with the touch of Raphael by the fact that "not a brush-mark was visible"; but the mischievous expert, who had done "Grecian painting" in England "when a boy," lifted up a corner and disclosed the engraving, with the effect of banishing Fornarina to the butler's room. This incident, we need not say, is but a testimony to the possible excellence of the Grecian mode of manipulating color. The writer is always an enthusiast, with the ability to infuse the wholesome ardor he feels into his descriptions. Some passages have the true Bernard Palissy ring: "Don't mind if the hot wax makes your fingers tingle; you want a beautiful bunch of grapes; pay for a thing and have it; we have dipped two hundred without stopping." Whether attaining grapes or other lofty aims, the moral force of that passage will serve as an inspiration.

The instruction in nearly all the crafts touched upon is plain and full; some are, however, more patiently described than others, and we think the girl who should have the daring thought to decorate a "cuspadore" for her lover in Permanent Painting, which is disposed of in a page and a half, might have some righteous cause of jealousy of the girl who succeeded in ornamenting for hers a slipper-case in Linnæography, by a sincere study of the two and a half pages here given to the art, and by the touching sacrifice of her tooth-brush and fine-tooth comb. There are unaccountable omissions, certainly, on the part of our usually assiduous guide. For instance, we do not observe any instruction in the pretty, malodorous industry dear to all lady-botanists, of divesting the pulp from natural leaves, and causing them to sit, like the famous sybarite of Sidney Smith, in their skeletons; nor do we find allusion to the neat trick of etching with fluoric acid on glassware, which is capable of so broad and artistic an application; nor to any of the easy modern ways of picture-manufacture by scratching on opaque varnishes and subsequent photography; nor, generally, we may say, to modes of decoration which do not call for the kind of stores kept for sale by the publishers. The work they give us has, however, the merits of a very good receipt-book, with directions written in a clear and orderly style. Its influence on the conduct of the ingenious person will be in the main beneficent, for it will keep her in the most harmless condition she is capable of, with her mind fixed on tried and attainable ends, instead of going out after devices of its own which will spoil good material and damp her hopefulness. The reissue is well thought of, and there are sixty pages of new and useful formulas.

Wanderings in Spain. By Augustus J. C. Hare. With seventeen illustrations. (New York: Dodd & Mead. 1873.)—In this volume Mr. Hare has not followed the plan that he adopted in his 'Walks in Rome,' which, the reader will remember, was a carefully selected compilation from the various writings of his predecessors, forming a volume of great value for any who thought of a journey to Rome either in the future or as a thing already done. One reason of his change of treatment may be that Spain is a country about which less has been written, so that there is still a chance to write an interesting book of travels which shall not go over too familiar ground, although thereby he makes a much less valuable book. It is a pity that Spain should be still so little visited by most travelling Americans. The most common objections alleged are the frequent revolutions, and the expensiveness and discomfort of the trip; but any political observer can choose a peaceful time for his journey, and even if civil war should break out, the only way in which it would trouble him would be by disturbing the regularity of the trains. The expense is not excessive, and every one will feel himself amply repaid for the uncleanliness of the hotels and the poorness of the food by what the country has to show him. Mr. Hare by no means conceals the discomforts for which every traveller in Spain must prepare himself, but he gives them no undue prominence. At the very beginning of his book we find the following account of what is by no means a rare occurrence in Spanish travel:

"The train crawls along in the most provoking way, stopping at all the small stations for two, ten, twenty minutes, and giving you ample time to survey the scenery. You feel impatient, but your Spanish companions are perfectly satisfied—'It is so much safer, so satisfactory never to have any accidents.' Time is of no importance to them whatever. 'One can smoke one's *cigarritos* as well in one place as another.' This *insouciance* was fully displayed when we reached the station of Alsasua, where we were to change for Pamplona, and found our train had just been taken off by the Company, without any previous notice having been given to that effect. It was pitch dark, and from the pouring rain which had continued for several days, the wild country round was little better than a swamp, so the prospect of a whole day's detention was scarcely exhilarating; but finding our Spanish friends received the announcement with no greater expression of displeasure than a shrug of the shoulders, we thought it better to take it in the same way, and, as they said, to 'avoid the fatigue of discomposing ourselves.'"

Fortunately memory soon wipes out all that is disagreeable in such incidents, and how much there is left to compensate may be seen by any one who will read Mr. Hare's book. His journey was a completer one than is generally made by tourists, but even one who contents himself with less will find a great deal to delight him. Mr. Hare describes admirably the wonders of Granada, the interest of Seville and Cordova; but perhaps we might feel inclined to cavil at his silence about the grim mountain scenery around the way between Madrid and Andalusia, which is nearly the most striking in Europe. Hardly more than a page is devoted to the gallery at Madrid, one of the most interesting in the world, though it may be said that any guide-book will be of more service than the necessarily brief jottings of a traveller who merely tells the general impression made upon him, without any pretence to exhaustive mention. Hence, while Mr. Hare's book will be found interesting, it is far from being the last book that can be written about Spain. The illustrations are not praiseworthy additions to the book; especially is this true of the view of Cordova, and that of Gibraltar from Algeçiras, both which are very unsatisfactory, while none deserves high praise.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bradbury (W. F.), Elementary Geometry and Trigonometry.	(Thompson, Bigelow & Brown)
Buckle (H. T.), Miscellaneous and Posthumous Works, 3 vols.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) $22 50
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Lossing (B. J.), Life and Times of Philip Schuyler, 2 vols.	(Sheldon & Co.)
Martin (Frances), Angélique Arnauld	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Macleod (H. D.), Principles of Economical Philosophy	(Longmans)
My Clerical Friends and their Relation to Modern Thought	(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
Practical Magazine, January, 1873, swd.	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Pfleiderer (Dr.), Theorie des Aberglaubens, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
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The Workshop, No. 1, swd.	(E. Steiger) 0 40
Thaer (Dr.), Ueber ländliche Arbeiter-Wohnungen, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Times and Places; or, Our History	(Trübner & Co.)
Tribune Almanac for 1873, swd.	(New York) 0 20
Tuke (Dr. D. H.), Influence of the Mind upon the Body	(H. C. Lea)
Turgenef (I. S.), On the Eve	(Holt & Williams) 1 25
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Wendt (Dr. H.), Sinneswahrnehmurgen und Sinnestäuschungen, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

FEBRUARY 24.

THE money market has continued very active with rates on call loans ranging between 7 per cent. and a commission of ⅛ per cent. per diem in addition. The average rate for the week was $\frac{1}{16}$ and interest. Towards the close of banking hours on Friday there was a pressure to loan, and money was offered down to 2 per cent. per annum. The occurrence of a holiday on Saturday made it desirable for holders of balances to loan them out from Friday until Monday for the purpose of securing three days' interest. Foreign bankers are inclined to make time loans on stock collaterals, and considerable amounts of sterling have been put out in this way for sixty days. Various estimates have been made of the amounts so placed in this market, which it is impossible to state with exactitude, but they will probably reach nearly twenty millions of dollars.

Last week the Bank of England gained £273,000 in bullion. The Bank rate remains at 3½ per cent. Money in the open market is quoted at 2½ to 3 per cent.

The weekly bank statement is again unfavorable; the total reserve has fallen off $2,731,200, and the total liabilities $3,681,400. The banks hold in specie and legal tenders $1,859,850 less than the 25 per cent. required by law against $1,299,000 last week—a falling off of $560,850.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the two weeks ending February 15 and February 21, the statement having been made up on Friday instead of on Saturday.

	Feb. 15.	Feb. 21.	Differences.
Loans	$291,520,700	$286,870,100	Dec. $4,650,600
Specie	16,461,000	15,046,900	Dec. 1,414,100
Circulation	27,539,800	27,573,100	Inc. 33,300
Deposits	214,613,400	205,898,700	Dec. 8,714,700
Legal tenders	42,778,300	41 461,200	Dec. 1,317,100

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Feb. 15.	Feb. 21.	Differences.
Specie	$16,461,000	$15,046,900	Dec. $1.414 100
Legal tenders	42,778,300	41,461,200	Dec. 1,317,100
Total reserve	$59,239.300	$56,508,100	Dec. $2,731,200
Circulation	27,539 800	27,573,100	Inc. 33,300
Deposits	214,613,400	205,898,700	Dec. 8,714,700
Total liabilities	$242,153,200	$233,471,800	Dec. $8,681,400
25 per cent. reserve	60,538,300	58,367,950	
Deficiency in legal reserve	$1,299,000	$1,859,850	Inc. 560,850

There is nothing of importance to report in regard to the stock market beyond a sudden recovery of 1½ per cent., on Thursday, in the price of New York Central, and 4½ per cent. in Western Union on Wednesday and Thursday. Union Pacific was strong at the end of the week (Friday), and the price advanced to 35⅛ from 33, the lowest point of the week.

We have news from Washington that the lobbying affairs of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company are to be overhauled. The object of this is to ascertain if there has been any money influence used in Congress towards obtaining the Government subsidy for the China line; and the proposal of it has caused a decline in the price of the stock to 70½.

It is said that the recovery in the price of Union Pacific was caused by the buying in of stock to cover short sales which were made last week for account of Washington parties. On Friday the stock was in good borrowing demand on account of the closing of the transfer books for election of officers. The "point" that a considerable advance is to take place in Central and Hudson has again been revived, and those who are reputed to be on intimate terms with the Commodore are the ones who speak most confidently of a rise in the stock.

The situation in Western Union Telegraph bids fair to bring about a lively fight between the opposite parties. There have been rumors of a "corner" in the stock, but, from our experience of "corners," we have always found that the successful ones come "like a thief in the night" without warning.

The Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad Company has declared its regular 5 per cent. semi-annual dividend, payable either in the stock of the Company or in cash, as holders may elect. At market price, the stock they receive will be equal to a 5½ per cent. dividend, it is probable, therefore, that but little cash will be called for. The Company does not really make new stock, since it already holds in its treasury 12,300 shares of the Burlington and Missouri River R.R., which it has recently leased. This stock will now be cancelled, and in its place new stock of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Road issued as a dividend. The company has ample opportunities for expending its ready cash upon road improvements, in the way of double tracks, steel rails, and rolling stock.

It would seem that some of the stockholders of the Erie Railroad Company do not approve of the payment of the recent dividend, judging from the fact that "a series of resolutions instructing the Attorney-General to commence a suit to restrain the payment of the Erie dividend, on the ground that it is unreal and fraudulent, has been introduced at Albany." There is a rumor that Jay Gould may be the next President of the Erie.

The following report of earnings, for the year ending October 31, 1872, has been made by the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company to the State Engineer and Surveyor:

	1871.	1872.	Inc.
Passengers	$6,224,839	$6,662 006	$437,167
Freights	14,647.581	16,259 676	1,612,066
Miscellaneous	1,099,785	2,659,023	1,559,237
Total	$21.972,205	$25,580,675	$3,608,470
Operating expenses	13,991,110	16,446,436	—
Net earnings	$7,981,095	$9,134,239	$1,153,144

The payments on account of dividends were $7,224,831, and for rentals of leased lines $146,799.

The following table shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange, for the week ending February 21:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wedn'day.		Thursday.		Friday.		Saturday.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	103¼	103¼	103	103¾	103⅜	103⅞	103½	104	103⅜	103⅞	Holiday.
Lake Shore	96¼	97	96	96⅞	95½	96	95⅜	96¼	94⅜	96⅛	
Erie	63¼	65⅜	64¼	66	63⅜	64½	64⅜	64⅜	64⅜	65¼	
Union Pacific	33	33⅝	33¾	34½	33⅜	34¼	33⅝	34⅜	33⅜	35⅛	
Rock Island	112⅛	112⅜	112¾	112⅞	112½	112⅞	112⅜	112⅞	112¾	113⅝	
Mil. & St. Paul	51¾	52	52	52⅛	51⅞	52¼	52	52⅛	No sales		
Wabash	72	72¾	72⅜	73	72¾	73⅛	72¼	73½	73	74⅜	
B. H. & Erie	9	10	9⅜	10	9	9⅜	9⅜	9⅜	9¼	9½	
Ohio & Miss.	46¼	46⅝	46⅛	46⅞	46¾	46¾	46⅜	46⅜	46⅜	46⅞	
Col. C. & I. C.	40⅞	41⅞	41⅝	42⅛	41⅛	41¾	41⅛	41⅜	41⅛	41⅞	
West. Union Tel.	87¼	88¾	88⅛	89⅞	88¼	89⅞	89½	91⅜	90⅜	91¼	
Pacific Mail	72	73	72½	73	72⅛	73	71	72⅝	79½	71½	

The Government bond market has been strong, with a constant demand from foreign bankers for bonds for shipment. The Treasury purchase on Wednesday drew seventeen offers of 5.20's, amounting to $5,128,150, at 113.65 to 114.49. The price of gold at the time the offers were made being 114⅝, it will be seen that Mr. Boutwell had an excellent opportunity to purchase an amount sufficient to make up the deficiency in the purchases of last month, but, for some good and wise reason, he decided not to do so, and took $1,000,000 at 113.65 to 113.85. There is nothing new to report in Syndicate operations in the new 5 per cents.

The State of Virginia is endeavoring to induce holders of bonds of the State to compromise in settlement of the interest due this year, and the following proposition is reported to have been accepted by a conference which sat in Richmond on Saturday, the 15th inst.: Four per cent. interest for 1873 to be paid on consols, four per cent. on two-thirds of the unfunded debt, and a like amount on the sterling debt; holders of coupons are to receive, when the same are presented at the Treasury, a non-interest bearing certificate in lieu of the unpaid interest. It is proposed to leave the settlement of past due coupons to the action of the Legislature.

It is reported that the coupons of the St. Joseph and Denver City Railroad Company are in default, due February 15.

The gold market has been strong, with the price fluctuating between 114⅜ and 114⅞. At the Treasury sale on Thursday bids for $8,125,000 were made at 114 to 114.63½. The $1,500,000 was awarded at 114.51½ to 114.63½.

BANKING OFFICE OF FISK & HATCH,
No. 5 Nassau Street, New York, Feb. 25, 1873.

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THE CENTRAL PACIFIC SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS are too well known to require description or commendation. Their total amount is $25,885,000; they have for a long time ranged in market price near or above par. Their price to-day is 104 to 104¼.

The WESTERN PACIFIC SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS amount to $2,735,000. This road is now consolidated with the CENTRAL PACIFIC, and the payment of its bonds, principal and interest, is assumed by the latter. Coupon Bonds, $1,000 each. Their market price to-day is 94¾ to 95. As they have recently been introduced on the Stock Exchange, we expect to see them rapidly rise to the price of CENTRAL PACIFICS, being substantially the same in character and value.

We buy and sell, as usual, Government Bonds, receive deposits, on which we allow interest, make collections, and conduct a general banking business in all its branches.

FISK & HATCH.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 6, 1873.

The Week.

THE Forty-second Congress closed its session on Tuesday without making any sensible mark on public affairs, and without having earned much of the respect of the public. But it has, nevertheless, two or three claims of some moment to distinction. There can be little doubt, for one, that it is the last "War Congress"—that is, the last Congress powerfully influenced by the passions and reminiscences of the war—which we shall see. It also closed what may be called the legislation arising out of the war by passing the bill providing for the execution of the fishery clauses of the Treaty of Washington, and, though last not least, it has lanced—though very unwillingly, and with a trembling hand and considerable faintness, it is true—the huge tumor of corruption, bred by twelve years' lavish expenditure, paper money, and protection to native industry, and subsidies, and land-grants. We may not have complete purity hereafter, but we shall have considerably less corruption. It has carefully, or almost carefully, avoided dealing with all the more serious questions of the day—the currency, the civil service, and so on—which is perhaps well, as we doubt whether any Congress can deal with them which is not elected for that purpose, as this Congress was not. It was elected to keep the Democratic party from getting back into power or "imperilling the results of the war," and this with the help of the Democrats themselves it has done very effectively.

One thing, however, was done at the last moment which will probably hurt the reputation of Congressmen more than fifty things far more nefarious. This was the addition of $2,500 a year to the salary of each senator and representative, a thing in itself objectionable for several reasons, and done in a very discreditable way, to say nothing of the scandal of making the bill retroactive. The same bill raises the President's salary to fifty thousand dollars a year, that of the Chief-Justice to ten thousand five hundred, and that of the Speaker and the Justices to ten thousand. The disproportion between the pay allotted to the Justices and that allotted to the ordinary members of Congress is not one of the least of the objections to the passage of this bill. If Judge Nelson's services were worth no more than ten thousand dollars a year to the country, Mr. Oakes Ames's have not been worth $15,000 during the past two years, notwithstanding the fact that Barnes's 'History of the Fortieth Congress' remarks of the latter gentleman, that though not in the habit of making speeches "he exerted much influence in legislation," as the newspapers are now pointing out. Mr. Blaine, to whom the bill proposed to give the retroactive salary as Congressman, called attention to the fact that the Speaker properly and customarily was in the position of the President, Vice-President, Judges, and so forth when the question of salaries came up, and very neatly and adroitly took himself "out of that crowd." We do not suppose it will hurt his chances for the Presidency. Of the outgoing members about one-half had the grace and honesty to oppose the increase and voted nay. Mr. Blaine gets praise from the correspondents for his dignity and his efforts to preserve order. In the Senate there was great "rushing through" of bills, but more decorum than in the House. Of the final action of senators on the unfortunates who have been candidates for expulsion, we suppose no one wishes to hear anything more said.

The Louisiana muddle still continues to be a muddle. The Senate Committee, composed of Messrs. Carpenter, Anthony, Alcorn, Logan, Trumbull, Morton, and Hill, made a very able report on it, confirming substantially the view we have all along taken of it in these columns. The Warmoth Board of Canvassers had possession of the returns, and were the champions of McEnery, who *probably* had the votes of all the white inhabitants of the State, while Kellogg was the Custom-house candidate, had the black vote, and a canvassing board of his own. Before either board, however, had made any returns, the Custom-house men filed a bill in chancery, before Judge Durell, of the United States District Court, who thereupon issued a batch of orders and injunctions, sending the United States Marshal, with the Federal troops at his back, to instal as the State Legislature such men as he thought proper. Of these orders the Committee say—and we commend the report to the attentive perusal of *Harper's Weekly* and the New York *Times*, as well as of the Custom-house publicists of this city:

> "Viewed in any light in which your Committee can consider them, the orders and injunction made and granted by Judge Durell in this case are most reprehensible, erroneous in point of law, and are wholly void for want of jurisdiction, and your Committee must express their sorrow and humiliation that a judge of the United States should have proceeded in such flagrant disregard of his duty, and have so far overstepped the limits of the Federal jurisdiction."

The majority of the Committee deduce from the facts the conclusion that no returns were legally canvassed at the late election, and that there is therefore no legal State government in Louisiana; five members find that if there be a Legislature it is that known as the McEnery Legislature; while one, Mr. Trumbull, finds positively that the McEnery Legislature is a lawful body and ought to be recognized. The majority hold that the decisions of the State Court on the matter, on which a friend of Mr. Kellogg's who wrote to us on his behalf from New Orleans relied, were as void as those of Judge Durell, inasmuch as the Court was created by an illegal acting Governor, who was appointed by a pretended Legislature, which was organized by illegal orders granted by Judge Durell. The majority of the Committee also decide finally that there is no legal State government in Louisiana, but differ as to what should be done under the circumstances. In the meantime, the President having already recognized the Kellogg government, and having received no instructions from Congress, in spite of his urgent application for them, will continue his present course. But surely Judge Durell ought to be impeached.

The first all-night debate that the Senate has held for a long time was held from Thursday to Friday last, the final vote being taken at seven in the morning. The question was the extremely knotty question of the passage of Mr. Carpenter's bill ordering a new election in Louisiana, and an amendment declaring that pending this election the so-called Kellogg government should be the government of the State. The amendment appears to have killed the bill, for the amendment having, after much voting, been tacked on, the bill then failed. All the voting was extremely close. The course adopted looks at first a little like a shirking of senatorial duty and the imposition of an undue burden upon the President, to whom now the question is turned over. It is a burden of which he tried to free himself, too, for although in the beginning he recognized the Kellogg faction, his late message showed a desire to make Congress take up its responsibility. But considering the very thorny character of this fruit of the war and of the system of reconstruction which we adopted, perhaps the solution reached—for we suppose a speedy compromise between the factions is now certain—is the best solution that could have been arrived at.

One of the noteworthy political events of the week is such because so little notice has been taken of it; yet Mr. Alexander Stephens, who has just been elected to Congress from a Georgia district, was

in 1865 the Vice-President of the Southern Confederacy. He was, however, beyond question the Confederate official least disliked at the North and probably the least regarded by the Confederate South, although much respected at the South for a kind of ability for which the South has always had at least sufficient respect. There never was a better specimen of a thoroughly lukewarm extremist, nor probably can history show a better example of a politician who has more thoroughly reaped the reward at once of his lukewarmness and of his extremism. He was made Vice-President of the Confederacy because he opposed secession, and neither the Southern Unionists nor the Northerners bore him malice, both being rather pleased that so moderate a man, and a Whig at that, was in the second place in the Confederate government. Now, his extremism in construing the Constitution as he was doing thirty years ago, sends him in his old age, unopposed in his Congressional district, to the scene of his old labors and triumphs. His moderation of temper—perhaps even his lack of physical robustness—has stood him in good stead. That he will be unopposed when he seeks admission at Washington is more than can be said. And indeed, that he ought to be unopposed is a question as to which opinions will differ. When one thinks of Mr. Sypher of Louisiana, not the worst specimen of the present kind of Southern representatives, one is inclined to think that rebels even of Mr. Stephens's grade would be an acquisition to the House. Of Mr. Sypher, Mr. C. K. Garrison, of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, testified the other day, that he never paid Mr. Sypher any money, but that on one occasion Mr. Sypher came to him in the lobby, and said that he never took any money for his vote, but that there were twenty gentlemen in Congress from Southern States who usually acted with him and who did take money.

The *Evening Post* the other day called attention to one of the most curious incidents in the history of the pending attempt to provide the city with a new charter—the prominence assumed in it by a young man named Davenport, whom few people had ever heard of until last fall, when he suddenly made his appearance as a United States Commissioner. His career, indeed, is almost as extraordinary and in some of its features as alarming as that of many of the Southern carpet-baggers. It appears that he has never followed any calling more regular than that of somewhat desultory reporting for the newspapers, and it was while engaged in this during the war that he won the favor of Mr. B. F. Butler, and was by that soldier put on his staff, and modelled himself on his master, as Warmoth is said to have done on Banks, acquiring, among other things, that mixture of impudence with smartness which makes Butler so formidable to the timid, and covers up so many defects of mind and morals. But he remained entirely unknown to fame till he managed to make himself useful in some capacity to the members of the Republican Ring, who had him made U. S. Commissioner, and used him last year to "verify the registry," that is, find out whether the persons whose names were on it lived where they said they did—a simple police duty, which he performed insolently and turbulently, but efficiently.

His patrons then appear to have promised him the Superintendentship of Police under the new Charter, and put a section into it conferring on him—a youthful and unknown adventurer—powers such as were never thought of for the elderly, experienced, and distinguished men who fill that place in London, and such as no prefect of police in Paris or Vienna ever thought of claiming, except during a "state of siege." But this is not all. During the debates on the Charter in the Legislature of this great State, in which Marcy or Seward "fixed things" within even fifteen years, Mr. Davenport occupied a seat beside the Clerk in the Assembly, and sent his messages to the members by the pages, being apparently charged by the Ring with the conduct of the bill and with the duty of letting the majority know how to vote. Moreover, in the hearing before the Committee of the Senate, it is Mr. Davenport who appears in company with Mr. George Bliss, Jr., to defend the Charter against such men as Professor Dwight, Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, Mr. Schultz, and Mr. Howard Potter. It must be remembered, too, that he is a United States Commissioner, and is absent from his post while figuring as a "manager" at Albany. The times are certainly strange, whether they are "out of joint" or not. If the President would forbid United States officers acting as "workers" in State politics, he would confer an enormous benefit on the community.

We regret to say the week has again been marked by considerable disturbance in "journalism." The *Post*, in reply to that chaste and gentlemanly advice to its editor about his clothes from the *Times*, which we reproduced, observed that the editor of the *Times* was "an illustrious Briton," "who had learned his vocabulary in Billingsgate," and had "left his country for his country's good," and asserted, with justifiable confidence, that the plan of having appointments made by executive nomination and legislative confirmation was devised by the founders of the American Government, and not, as the *Times* alleged, by its own editor. Whereupon the *Times* insinuated vaguely that some of its enemies had been "indicted," and the *Tribune* then intervened by requesting the *World* not to call the editor of the *Times* "Jennings," as this was an opprobrious epithet which it should avoid out of respect for the memory of Henry J. Raymond. Here the editor of the *Times* appeared on the scene again, with flaming eyes, and observed that the *World* had been "twice sold," once for a house and once for "a sum of money," and that the editors of the *Tribune* had no "reputation from which they would not willingly part." He then indulged in a monologue on the cause of the detestation generally felt for him by the members of his own profession ("the vindictive hatred of most of our city contemporaries"), and came to the conclusion that it was due to his publication of the Ring accounts.

The account given by Butler in his report of the difference between the actual loss sustained by the United States and the amount of damages awarded by the Geneva Tribunal appears to have produced in England and on the Continent, as might have been expected, and as he probably desired, the impression that this Government had succeeded in perpetrating something in the nature of a fraud, and has led to an attack on the English Ministry, as the victims of it, in the House of Commons; but Mr. Gladstone got out of the difficulty by showing that the Board only awarded about half what the United States claimed. The feeling that there has been sharp practice in the matter on our side has, however, not been dispelled, and it has found expression in a motion by Lord Campbell, in the House of Lords, for an address to the Crown, praying that all treaties be submitted to Parliament six weeks before ratification, which was, however, negatived, after opposition by the Ministry, including the Lord Chancellor, on grounds of inconvenience and impracticability. In the meantime, the Senate and House at Washington, having failed to agree on any principle of distribution, the money will probably lie in the Treasury till next year. We doubt, too, whether any agreement between them about "equity" will ever be reached, and it is still worthy of consideration whether the law of the land and the notions of honor common among honest men would not furnish as good a rule as any that will ever be extracted from Congressional ethics.

The week, and indeed the last fortnight, in France has been given up to the debates of the Assembly on the report of the Committee of Thirty, of which we have already made a summary. The report makes no provision for settling the form of the government,

beyond claiming full constituent powers for the present legislature. In fact, it makes no provision at all for the future, beyond conceding "the principle" of a Second Chamber, and is mainly occupied with the definition of M. Thiers's relations to the Assembly. The vice of this definition is, like the vice of the Ring Charter for the city, that it seeks to base a permanent arrangement on an exceptional state of things, and creates restrictions for the President of the Republic which would not be thought necessary for any president but M. Thiers. During the pending debates, the Royalists have shown greater boldness than for some time past, even the Duc de Broglie, who is the most prudent as well as most respected of them, openly avowing his opinion that the only salvation of France lies in a monarchy, to which she must ultimately get back, though perhaps not yet—which is the old story over again, without emendation. The salvation of France lies in the possession of the government by somebody who can keep it and make it respected, while leaving discussion free; and the particular name given to this person or body of persons is of precious little consequence. The present Government, for instance, which is a nondescript, and has just as many characteristics of a monarchy as of a republic, is as good a one, to all outward appearance, as she has ever had. Giving it a name would not improve it. The debate will probably last some days longer, and has been enlivened by fresh rumors of a "fusion" between the Count de Chambord and the Count de Paris, which, however, outside Legitimist circles, seem to excite little interest, the fact being that such "fusion," even if it took place, would in no degree simplify the problem—the Count de Chambord's "claims" being to most Frenchmen questions of "lunar politics."

In the meantime, the events in Spain are likely to increase M. Thiers's difficulties as the advocate of the republican form. The spectacle of an orderly and successful republic in Spain would undoubtedly help him, but this, if it comes at all, is not likely to come soon enough for his purpose. On the contrary, whatever the final result of the Spanish experiment, the immediate future promises plenty of disorders, of which the French monarchists will make abundant use to frighten the small French property-holders, though for these disorders no form of government is really responsible, or offers any radical cure. The same things which caused Amadeus to run away will cause Castelar and his coadjutors many a sleepless night. On the other hand, the Spanish revolution is likely to help France by acting as what doctors call a "derivative," and drawing off from Paris some of the most troublesome elements of French society. There are plenty of signs that the Spanish Republic, if it attempts to be anything more than the rule of the army, which it was under Prim, will have to swallow a strong dose of socialism, as your Spanish "Red" is not a man to stand any nonsense, or be put off with orations and poems. When he calls for a republic, he means business—none of your pious respectable concerns, in which men have to put up with "the rewards of industry," but a radical removal of anxiety from every citizen's mind. Accordingly, the latest accounts say that there is a brisk migration from France, as well as other countries, of socialists and uprooters of various schools, who packed their carpet-bags, got their hats ironed, and started for Madrid on hearing the joyful news from that quarter, and are now rallying round the unhappy Castelar, who may thank his stars if he does not prove the Lamartine of the crisis.

As regards the condition and prospects of the Spanish Republic, they are neither worse nor better than might have been expected. Switzerland is thus far the only foreign power which has recognized the new Government; Austria and Germany and Russia await events, and England and France probably hardly know what to say. Its fate clearly depends on the army, and of the disposition of the army little is as yet known, although Serrano and other military chiefs have promised their support. The Carlists are clearly making headway, but only in the northern provinces, their principal operations being apparently thus far confined to Catalonia. The worst feature in the crisis is the apparently spreading insubordination of the troops, which are represented to be unsteady in various directions, the officers being largely monarchical. The Cortes has indicated its sense of the gravity of the situation by voting 45,000 men and 10,000,000 pesetas for the suppression of the insurrection. The men can doubtless be had, but where the money is to come from does not appear clear. The advantage of the Carlists will lie mainly now in the disorganization of the army and the dissensions of the Republicans, whose principal force is in the great towns, where, however, socialism is also most rampant, and in which a "conservative republic" will be hardly more attractive than a monarchy.

It appears that the chief offender in the alleged official corruption in Prussia is Wagener, a member of the Upper Privy Council, who has risen rapidly in his official career, according to the average scale of promotion in Prussia, and has enjoyed the honor of being summoned by the King as a trusted adviser. Wagener and two others formed a stock company for a railway in Pomerania, and (like Fisk, Gould & Co.) voted themselves permanent directors until the expiration of two years after the completion of the road, and enacted a statutory provision by which they, as founders of the company, should receive from the first meeting of the stockholders yet to be a pecuniary consideration for their services. Wagener used his official position to procure a "concession" or authorization for the company by an adroit evasion of the law. The capital was announced at seven million thalers, but the real capital never exceeded 420,000 thalers, and not more than half of this sum was in substantial values. The company being duly manipulated by the founders, and, in fact, representing them under another form, voted an honorarium of 40,000 thalers to compensate their services. But the three rogues fell out by the way, and quarrelled over the division of the spoils, Wagener demanding the half for his indispensable work. This brought the affair into court, and so it began to attract the notice of the public. Lasker broached it in Parliament during a general debate upon railway grants, and finally, on the 7th of February, in a speech of more than two hours' duration, he arraigned Wagener with so many circumstantial details that the House, without distinction of party, insisted that the Government should appoint a commission to investigate the affair, and that the investigation should be open.

Lasker had also alleged, in a general way, that Prince Biron, the King's chief cup-bearer, had accepted a consideration for a concession to another company. This high staff-officer, in a published letter, indignantly denied that he had received any money for the grant. In his speech of February 7, Lasker gave him the benefit of this denial, but went on to produce evidence that the Prince had been assured of 100,000 thalers in stock of the company as a recompense for his favor, but that the managers evaded payment upon the pretext that they had only meant to concede to him the privilege of purchasing that amount of stock. In point of fact Biron came off with neither money nor stock, but only a damaged reputation. Lasker knows too well his responsibility as a leader of the National Liberals to speak without book; and the press is well-nigh unanimous in insisting upon a thorough investigation, for the honor of the Prussian service, which has hitherto been deemed impeccable. The discipline of the father of Frederic the Great and of the great Frederic himself had brought the civil service under a military rigor of responsibility. When Rath Schulbut of Königsberg had been found guilty of peculation, and condemned to restitution and imprisonment, the father of Frederic, in one of his huge fits of royal passion, drove off to Königsberg in person, looked into the case over night, and had Schulbut hung the next morning. But times are changed. Prussia feels the spirit of speculation, and money is there becoming the talisman.

THE REPUBLICAN PARTY AND THE CRÉDIT MOBILIER SCANDAL.

THE House of Representatives has dealt with the Crédit Mobilier affair very much as might have been expected. As we ventured to predict some weeks ago, it has refused to expel anybody; but it has censured Messrs. Brooks and Ames, which we did not think it would do—not because we did not believe those gentlemen deserved censure, but because we thought censure simply too ridiculous a penalty even for the House to inflict. Why the penalty is ridiculous of course hardly needs explanation. If Oakes Ames, in his dealings with the members in Crédit Mobilier stock, did not mean to exert a corrupt influence on them, his transactions are no more matter for comment by Congress than his dealings with his customers at Easton. If he did mean to exert a corrupt or corrupting influence on them, of course he has been guilty of the gravest offence which a member of Congress, *quâ* member, could commit. Censuring him, therefore, is very like finding a man guilty of wilful murder, and then reminding him, by way of punishment, that his conduct has been culpable, and that he must be more careful in future. The same thing may be said, with still greater force, of Mr. Brooks's case.

There were scenes and incidents in the debate, too, which illustrated most powerfully the depth of the prevailing demoralization, and which explained pretty clearly how it is that the investigation has ended in nothing. Every step in the proceedings revealed clearly that widespread reluctance to punish anybody, or to apply to the vices of anybody in particular the disapprobation which we, in our books and sermons, inflict on vice in the abstract, of which we spoke a few weeks ago in commenting on the failure of the Bar Association in its pursuit of the Erie counsel. There was a world of meaning in the spectacle presented by Oakes Ames sitting bathed in tears, with a big bouquet of flowers in front of him, in the character of a national hero persecuted by an ungrateful country, like the well-known Christopher Columbus, while Mr. Benjamin F. Butler, who is rather proud of being a rascal, and boasts of his freedom from such encumbrances as conscience or honor, stood manfully forward, not in defence only, but in glorification of him—Butler himself being clearly the leading man in the assemblage, defiant, courageous, imperious the cynosure of all eyes, fresh from having instructed the House in its duty, as guardian of the national honor, in the distribution of the *Alabama* fund. The attitude of the rest of the body was not less instructive. There were no signs whatever of shame, or indignation, or of any other emotion with a noble side to it. The whole debate reminded one of the efforts of a herd of sheep to find an opening in a fence through which they might escape a barking dog—the same scurrying to and fro, and the same frantic eagerness in front of all attractive-looking holes. One little motion, amendment, and point of order followed the other, the sharp, ingenious fellows carrying off the honors of the day, until the desired aperture was discovered, after which they seem to have wiped their brows and breathed freely. The House, in short, showed the very prevalent dread of persons who have committed crimes and offences. Moral courage seems to be rapidly becoming the peculiar possession of people who have no morality. Honest men hang their heads in the presence of a rascal. They try him with great reluctance, pass sentence on him with sobs and groans, and then beg of him for God's sake to run away and leave them to their business; and when he refuses to run, and proceeds to slap their faces, they are profoundly impressed by his pluck—think he must have good in him after all, and, remembering his mother and sisters, and his early attendance on the Sunday-school, weep on his breast and subscribe to set him up in business. The result is that criminals begin to have a hearty contempt for us, and, far from repenting them of their crimes, are daily cursing their moderation in not stripping us more thoroughly. Their view of society begins to resemble that of the pickpockets who took a gentleman's watch and purse in broad daylight, two or three years ago, on the platform of a Fourth Avenue car, and, when he remonstrated, kicked him off and laughed at him as he ran after them penniless on foot.

What effect will all this have on the Republican party? This is the question which everybody is naturally asking, because, whatever Congress may say or do, everybody who does not despair of the country believes that out of doors the sentiment about the Crédit Mobilier affair is very different from that which seems to prevail in the House, and that this sentiment will sooner or later find expression at the polls. But there is and will continue to be more or less difference of opinion as to its nature and objects. *Harper's Weekly*, for instance, which found no difficulty in making the Democratic party responsible for the doings of the New York Ring, thinks that the Republican party cannot properly be held responsible for the corruption or wrongdoing of its principal men, but that whatever is reprehensible in the Crédit Mobilier affair should be laid at the doors of the individuals implicated solely, while the party should be allowed to retain its power and find other and honester agents to do its work. This is a legitimate deduction from a theory which the *Weekly* has long held, and which Mr. Henry Wilson defended in the *Independent* last summer against the attacks of the *Nation*—viz., that the Republican party is an organization analogous to the Christian church, having good in general for its object, and not the embodiment in legislation of a particular set of opinions; that, therefore, its failure to carry out any particular line of policy, or to enact any particular laws, or the corruption or ignorance of its leaders, are no more destructive of its claims to respect and confidence than the failure of the Christian church thus far to convert the world, or the bad behavior of its clergy, is destructive of its claims to divine origin. This theory has, of course, a basis in fact—and that is, that the party does really contain a very large proportion of the virtue and intelligence of the country, and does really exhibit in its legislation a higher ideal of national polity than the party it supplanted. To make the theory complete, however, and make it answer the purpose for which it is apparently intended, of establishing the right of the Republican party to retain perpetual control of the Government, and to make unimpeachable the analogy with the Christian church, an additional proposition is necessary—that the Republican party is not only the best party now in existence, but the best possible party, and the only possible party. It is not enough to say that it is better than the Democratic party was; it has to be said that it is better than any party ever will be. We shall only remark of this doctrine, that it is absolutely novel; that nothing like it has ever before been heard of in politics; and that if it were sound, discussion and many other processes of constitutional government would hereafter be useless in the United States, and we should speedily be delivered up to a body of political priests, bound by their ordination vows to take charge of our affairs.

We, on the other hand, maintain, and with increased confidence, that the shameful corruption in the Government which is showing itself side by side with overwhelming Republican majorities all over the country, is a fresh proof that the Republican party is a common human organization, for the ordinary political purposes—namely, the embodiment in legislation of a small cluster of ideas; that that purpose was carried out at the close of the rebellion; that the party is now *functus officio*, and has for several years been kept in office by the popular dread of "reaction" and the force of the great patronage and enormous handling of money resulting from the war; and that in the absence of any great controlling ideas, of real work, and of a powerful and respectable opposition, its leading men, who, for all practical purposes, are the party and represent it, have grown careless, and insolent, and indifferent to public opinion, and finally corrupt. There is nothing ecclesiastical about them or it. It has no divine mission, and they have no personal consecration. *It* is simply the consensus of a large body of the American people on a few points of home policy, and *they* are a number of not very remarkable gentlemen, whom the American people has put in charge of its affairs.

The remedy is to be found in the formation of another organization for other purposes. What these purposes are we have frequently intimated. We may venture to repeat them—the reform of the civil service; the restoration of the judiciary to its old position of independence and respectability; the simplification of political machinery, so that honest and industrious citizens can attend to their political affairs without the help of professional tricksters; the release of the States from the constant interference and supervision of the central authority; the purification of Congress by the reform of the tariff, and the prohibition of grants, subsidies, bounties, "protective" duties, and the total exclusion of Congressmen from a share in the appointing power. These objects can only be obtained by a party formed for that purpose, and for nothing else. Whether we are near the formation of any such party we do not know. We acknowledge with sorrow and disappointment that the events of last year undoubtedly postponed it, but we would fain believe that those who last year honestly strove to bring about a better state of things, have not abated one jot of heart or hope. We are sure that they must find in what is now passing both abundant justification for their course and abundant reason for trying again, whenever the opportunity offers. It is needless to say, of course, that any such organization would contain, if successful, whatever good elements the Republican party now contains, and many good elements which that party does not contain, and nothing short of this combination of the good of all parties will save us. The good Republicans are not likely to be removed in chariots of fire when the party organization disappears.

ANOTHER STUDY IN MUNICIPAL POLITICS.

WE can again cordially recommend the history of the second attempt to provide New York with a charter, in lieu of that enacted by the Tweed Ring, as an excellent study in morbid politics. The public, and especially the younger portion of it, can hardly examine it too closely. As is well known, the problem of governing this city is made peculiar and intricate by two things—one is the very heterogeneous character of the population, and the other the fact that the large majority of this population belongs to the Democratic party, while the majority of the people of the State, who provide the city with its form of government, belongs to the Republican party. The first result of this is, that the experiment of "trusting the people," as it is called, or, in other words, of leaving the city voters to draw up their own charter and administer their affairs in their own way, which many intelligent observers advocate—though we ourselves have little faith in it—cannot be tried. The majority in the State have never been able to make up their minds to relinquish all hold on the city offices, and thus deprive themselves of all means of keeping down the city majority, which threatens every year more and more to overwhelm the country majority at State and Federal elections; and all preaching by the press of the plan of "taking city affairs out of politics" has thus far, for the same reason, proved idle. This standing conflict between the city and State would be by itself sufficiently unfortunate and sufficiently discouraging, but it has been complicated ever since 1860 by the appearance in the field of the United States, represented by the "Custom-house," as an ally of the State. During the excitement of the war, the Republican party in the city held together pretty well; but the war over, they began to quarrel over the "spoils," and the managers broke into two sets or "gangs," as they were called, one of them led by the Custom-house and standing by the Administration, and the other forming a kind of "Fronde," led by Mr. Greeley, and finally developing into the "Liberal Republicans" in 1872; the first owning allegiance to Senator Conkling and having the *Times* for trumpeter, and the second to Senator Fenton, and having the *Tribune* for trumpeter.

The contest raged with varied fortune, the State politicians looking on doubtfully, and professing to feel scandalized by these "dissensions," until 1870, when there appeared a decided breach in the ranks of the city Democrats by the secession from Tammany of Mr. Jimmy O'Brien and his followers, under the style and title of the "Young Democracy," also owing to a quarrel over the "spoils," O'Brien not having got what he considered his due. It was not very long before the effect of this on the Republican schism became very manifest. The Custom-house faction, led by Tom Murphy, began to show a decided leaning for Tammany and Tweed, while the Fentonites, by way of preserving the balance of power, entered into secret relations with the "Young Democracy," and the public was shocked by stories of interviews between Mr. Greeley and Messrs. O'Brien and John Morrissey. Tweed took advantage of this state of things, and of a Democratic majority in the Legislature for the first time in twenty-four years, to introduce the famous "Ring Charter." The Fentonites, headed by Greeley, and in alliance with the "Young Democracy," fought it bitterly, as did the *Tribune* and the rest of the city press, but the Custom-house men and the country Republicans supported it stoutly—the Republican assemblymen even and senators receiving, as was and is believed, large bribes from Tweed. The *Times*, too, the Custom-house organ, hailed its enactment with joy. It declared its passage to be "most important and salutary"; said that Tweed "was in a fair way to distinguish himself as a great reformer," and claimed the credit of the great victory "for the Republicans and the Legislature." "The credit," it said, "is as much theirs as it is of the Tweed Democracy," and it warmly eulogized Peter B. Sweeny, and expressed its "thankfulness" for the appointments made by the Ring in the various departments.

The Ring had the city now completely in their hands, and proceeded to plunder it at their leisure, and the Custom-house Republicans reigned supreme, under the leadership of Mr. Tom Murphy, whom the Fentonites assailed by "investigation," but only forced into a nominal retirement. When the Ring operations excited the suspicions of the *Times*, and finally led to the publication by that paper of the secret accounts furnished by their untiring and implacable foe Jimmy O'Brien, there descended a great cloud on the Custom-house faction. They fell into a secondary position, and indeed all divisions were effaced by the reform movement; and the result was that when it was over, Murphy & Co. remained modestly in the background and allowed the Committee of Seventy—a body representing all shades of municipal opinion—to come forward with a charter which the Legislature, great rascals as the majority of it were, were afraid to refuse, but which Governor Hoffman unfortunately vetoed.

The probabilities are that but for the Greeley movement this happy state of things would have lasted until now; that is, the trading politicians would have been kept in the background sufficiently long for the honest sentiment of the city to have secured recognition at Albany in some permanent plan of city government. If the Cincinnati Convention had nominated Mr. Adams, or anybody who would have been recognized as a real representative of reform, there is little doubt that even if Grant had been re-elected, the corrupt hosts who fought under the banner of the Administration would have received a sufficiently rude handling to have inspired them with modesty and caution during the remainder of his term of office. But the nomination and overwhelming defeat of Mr. Greeley—himself the head and front of one of the New York factions, and by no means believed to be superior to their arts, of course served the Custom-house men as a complete rehabilitation, and the triumph was easily made to wear the appearance of being the work of their hands. They had during and before the election been modest almost to bashfulness. They thankfully endorsed the nomination for the mayoralty of Mr. Havemeyer, an old Democrat, and thankfully accepted General Dix, another old Democrat, for the Governorship. Mr. Tom Murphy, as their chairman, wrote an abject letter to Mr. Havemeyer, assuring him that he need not be afraid that they would claim him as a Republican candidate; and their organ the *Times* resounded with praises of him. The election over, the change in their attitude was complete and almost instantaneous, and they began a series of operations which furnish a striking and instructive

illustration of the way in which Federal patronage and interference have been made during the last ten years instrumental in handing over some of the greatest, richest, and most flourishing communities in America to small bands of paltry adventurers.

One of their first acts when the election was over was to make arrangements to divide the offices. They first and foremost cleared the ground by arrangement with Mayor Hall, by which some of his men resigned just before the close of his term, and he appointed Custom-house nominees in their places. This enabled them to provide for some of their own number without inconvenience. They next appointed a little committee to take charge of the work of providing this great city with a charter, and accordingly drafted one and took it up to Albany, and began to force it through the Legislature—a task which is rendered all the easier by the fact that there is hardly any country member of the Legislature on the Republican side who takes any real interest in municipal reform, or knows anything about municipal affairs, and the Federal officials in the city are consequently accepted as final authorities as to what the course of "the party" should be on all municipal questions. The charter thus prepared has many points of superiority over Tweed's, which is not saying much for it, but it was curiously adapted to Custom-house purposes in one particular. It took away from the Mayor, Mr. Havemeyer, whom after election the managers began to abuse and "distrust," all real control of the appointments, while it kept the Departments of Finance and Public Works, in which the patronage and expenditure of money are very great—and in which, therefore, on the principle they apply to the mayoralty, a division of power and responsibility among several men is most called for—in charge of a single head, and it gave the Superintendent of Police unprecedented powers. The object of all this was of course obvious, and when we say that desperate efforts have been made to pass it, under the party whip, plied vigorously by the Federal District Attorney and Commissioner, in spite of the opposition of the best class of New York citizens, and that the promoters insisted on having the elections held along with the State and Federal elections in the fall, and not, as the reformers wished, separately in the spring, we say enough to complete the story.

THE ABDICATION OF AMADEUS.

PARIS, Feb. 14, 1873.

THE new revolution in Spain has at least one merit—it has been quite bloodless. The King has abdicated, for the simple reason that his monarchy—his dynasty—died, as it were, of inanition on a foreign soil. It was a bold experiment to graft a branch of the House of Savoy on Spain; the Savoyard dynasty is perhaps the most original of Europe, the least adapted to any other country than Italy. Even in Rome and in Naples, Victor Emanuel finds himself almost a stranger. He represents essentially the hardier populations of Northern Italy. His young son, the Duke of Aosta, was educated in a court which has perhaps the strictest etiquette of all the European courts. He was of course a soldier, as every Prince of Savoy has always been. He is tall, very thin, with an angry look in his eye; he has a sternness quite extraordinary for his age; he resembles very much his father, with a touch of still greater severity in his face; he moves and walks like a drill-sergeant. He has always lived among his aides-de-camp and officers of the army, and cares for little except military matters. Under his brusque and haughty manner he conceals the hereditary *finesse* and shrewdness of the House of Savoy; its ambition also, as was well proved when he exchanged his name for that of King of Spain. There is something in him which reminds me of the portraits of Philip II.—the thick Austrian lip, the long form; only the eye of Philip seems almost vacant and dead, while the eyes of Amadeus are restless and brilliant. Philip was a grand-inquisitor on the throne, and Amadeus was obliged to make war upon the church in Spain, as his father had done in Italy. Philip enjoyed as absolute a power as an Asiatic sovereign, and Amadeus, in his short career of a constitutional monarch, was constantly threatened by factions, and betrayed by the very men who had offered him the crown.

It is said that as the ambition and imagination of Princess Charlotte of Belgium had much to do with the conduct of the Archduke Maximilian when he accepted the dangerous crown of Mexico, the Duke of Aosta was much influenced by his wife, who belongs to the old family of the Mérodes. I remember seeing the young Duchess a few years ago. Without being regularly handsome, she has what the French call *grand air*; having entered by marriage a royal family, she perhaps assumed too royal manners. One of her ladies of honor, the Marchioness A——, was once by her as she was sitting for her portrait. She had already given a few sittings to the painter, and had never spoken to him. The Marchioness A—— politely approached the painter and encouraged him. The Duchess recalled her abruptly, and, showing her a chair, said to her, "Here is your place." "No, madam; my place is at home"; and she went out and never approached the Duchess again. Once Queen of Spain, she made great efforts to attract the best Spanish society to her Court; but all her attempts were vain. The grandees of Spain and their wives belong, without exception, to the parties of Christina, of Isabella, of the young Prince of the Asturias, or of the Duc de Montpensier. At the Court balls it was next to impossible to form a quadrille for the Queen, as there were hardly any other ladies but those of the diplomatic body. Marshal Serrano, who with Prim had for so many months the fate of Spain in his hands, and who, as well as the once Montpensierist Topete, had finally accepted the rule of Amadeus, became estranged from the King after a short time. The unfortunate young sovereign had lost the support of the members of the Liberal Union and of the Progressists; latterly he had actually no supporters except a small band of politicians led by M. Zorilla. He knew better than anybody the value of the men who formed his Cabinet and the majority of the present Cortes; he felt himself in a sort of political vacuum. His intentions were good and honest, but he had only corrupt instruments at his disposition. In his journey through the provinces he found that everywhere the most important citizens fled, as it were, before him. He was alone in a country of whose language he was ignorant, surrounded by valets and vulgar intriguers.

There can be no doubt that he was glad to find an opportunity for resigning. His partisans in Italy and in Spain had often said that he would never leave the Peninsula but in a coffin; and he is said to have himself declared that the fate of Maximilian did not frighten him. But he has given so many proofs of personal courage that he can hardly be blamed for not having carried his bold experiment to a tragical end. He almost courted assassination; he went day after day alone in the streets of Madrid, in plain clothes or in uniform. His life was attempted not long ago on his way to the theatre. The people of Madrid admired him for his coolness; they liked him as a man, but not as a king. A chivalrous people could not help feeling some sympathy for a young prince who seemed so careless of danger. The army naturally had the same feeling; but the very sympathy which had sprung up between the King and the army has been the cause of the abdication. There is a part of the Spanish people which has always preserved a very high tone and *esprit de corps*, which is very proud of its achievements in the war of independence, and which never took any part in the numerous *pronunciamientos* which have so often been the signal of revolutions. The cadets of Segovia who enter the artillery do not expect to be promoted except by seniority. In a country where political fidelity and honesty are so low, this *esprit de corps* of the artillery is one of the traditions which have survived so many civil convulsions. The last Ministers of Amadeus had promoted to the rank of general a colonel called Hidalgo, who is an officer of artillery, and who had made himself very unpopular in his own corps. He was accused by his comrades of having taken part in the bloody insurrection of 1866, when the soldiers of a regiment killed several of their officers. Hidalgo, it is said, had seen two of his friends killed under his eyes, and had not tried to save them; when his promotion became known, 700 officers of artillery sent in their resignation on the same day. The Ministers accepted it, and issued a decree by which they at once promoted 700 sergeants to the rank of officer. The King was strongly opposed to this revolutionary measure; his sympathies were entirely on the side of the army; but he could not dismiss his Ministers, as he could form no other Ministry; they were the last *residuum*, on which he must stand or fall. Unwilling to disorganize the army, and unable to carry on a constitutional government, since a possible change of the Cabinet is one of the conditions of such a government, he decided to resign, and it soon became evident that the question of General Hidalgo was only for him a desired opportunity. This resolution, which has taken Europe by surprise, will not astonish those who are familiar with Spanish politics. A few months after Amadeus had set foot in Spain it could be safely prophesied that he would never be acceptable to the mass of the people. He was essentially the creature of a party, and not of the strongest party; his dynasty was not organic, as it were, it was the artificial work of diplomacy and of intrigue. The only way for the King to make his Government firm would have been to violate the very constitution which had placed him on the throne, to clear the Augean stable of a despised congress, and to be the man of the people. But he could not speak Spanish, he knew as little about

Spain as he would have known about Greece or Denmark. He had not the genius of a reformer.

The revolution in Spain will have very remote consequences. M. Thiers, when he heard that the Republic had been proclaimed in Madrid, said: "I have not milk enough for two nurselings." Monarchical Europe may not be much alarmed by the proclamation of a Republic, which is only the equivalent of proclaiming a chaos; but still Germany, Russia, and Italy will not see with much satisfaction how difficult it has become to maintain a monarchy in the most monarchical part of Europe. Spain is a dangerous spot, a kind of a sore; and the sore is opening again. The House of Savoy, which has been so lucky and triumphant for the last fifteen years, will lose something of its prestige, and feel weakened in its struggle against the Catholic Church. But nobody seems so afraid of the proclamation of the new Republic of Spain as the French Republicans. They are naturally afraid that the anarchy, the struggles, the probable armed conflicts which threaten Spain will not turn to the credit of their ideas. There is no man in Spain likely to play the part of M. Thiers with as much success, to reconcile many old monarchists to a conservative republic, to keep a sort of miraculous balance of all the political forces. There is not a man left in the Spanish Cortes with the smallest amount of prestige; the generals and the marshals will probably have more to say in the final settlement than the eloquent Castelar or the cunning Rivero. On the other hand, if the Republic comes to an inglorious end, comes the dangerous question of the successor of Amadeus. No foreign prince will probably be found mad enough to try an experiment which is almost sure to fail. And what is the condition of the old dynasty? Though the Carlists keep up a desultory warfare in the mountains of the North, Don Carlos has no hope of success. He is not considered as the legitimate ruler by the immense majority of the Spaniards, who have never accepted the French idea of a Salic law. Isabella is the legitimate sovereign; but she cannot return to Spain as a queen; her heir, the Prince of the Asturias, is only fifteen years old. A regency will therefore be necessary. Who will be the regent? Here the struggle will begin between the ambitious marshals, who have already tasted absolute power and wish to do so again, and the Duc de Montpensier. The Duke is now so much identified with Spanish affairs that the Spaniards will be wise if they forgive him his French origin, and give him the preference. Nobody knows better the statesmen, the politicians, the officers of the army; and his birth places him in a position where he can show himself superior to the small *cliques* (I can hardly call them parties), which would be sure to conspire and to fight perpetually under a marshal. But it may be that the Duc de Montpensier is tired of meddling with politics in Spain; he has so far gained nothing, and he has lost much by his long efforts under Queen Isabella and since the revolution. He is enlightened, able, hard-working, active; his domestic life is pure; he has many daughters, one of whom might one day marry Prince Alphonso. Everything seems to favor this solution; but it is never safe to prophesy on the "*Cosas de España.*"

A EUROPEAN SUMMER.

VII.—FROM VENICE TO STRASSBURG.

THERE could be much to say about that golden chain of historic cities which stretches from Milan to Venice, in which the very names—Brescia, Verona, Mantua, Padua—are an ornament to one's phrase; but I should have to draw upon recollections now three years old, and to make my short story a long one. Of Verona and Venice only have I recent impressions, and even to these I must do hasty justice. I came into Venice, just as I had done before, toward the end of a summer's day, when the shadows begin to lengthen, and the light to glow, and found that the attendant sensations bore repetition remarkably well. There was the same last intolerable delay at Mestre, just before your first glimpse of the lagoon confirms the already distinct sea-smell which has added speed to the precursive flight of your imagination; then the liquid level, edged far off by its band of undiscriminated domes and spires, soon distinguished and proclaimed, however, as excited and contentious heads multiply at the windows of the train; then your long rumble on the immense white railway bridge, which, in spite of the invidious contrast drawn (very properly) by Mr. Ruskin, between the old and the new approach to Venice, does truly, in a manner, shine across the green lap of the lagoon like a mighty causeway of marble; then the plunge into the station, which would be exactly similar to every other plunge, save for one little fact—that the key-note of the great medley of voices borne back from the exit is not "Cab, sir!" but "Barca, signore!" I don't mean, however, to follow the traveller through every phase of his initiation, at the risk of stamping poor Venice beyond repair as the supreme bugbear of literature; though, for my own part, I hold that, to a fine, healthy appetite for the picturesque, the subject cannot be too diffusely treated. Meeting on the Piazza, on the evening of my arrival, a young American painter, who told me that he had been spending the summer at Venice, I could have assaulted him, for very envy. He was painting, forsooth, the interior of Saint Mark's. To be a young American painter, unperplexed by the mocking, elusive soul of things, and satisfied with their wholesome, light-bathed surface and shape; keen of eye; fond of color, of sea and sky, and anything that may chance between them; of old lace, and old brocade, and old furniture (even when made to order); of time-mellowed harmonies on nameless canvases, and happy contours in cheap old engravings; to spend one's mornings in still, productive analysis of the clustered shadows of the Basilica, one's afternoons anywhere, in church or camp, on canal or lagoon, and one's evenings in starlight gossip at Florian's, feeling the sea-breeze throb languidly between the two great pillars of the Piazzetta and over the low, black domes of the church—this, I consider, is to be as happy as one may safely be.

The mere use of one's eyes, in Venice, is happiness enough, and generous observers find it hard to keep an account of their profits in this line. Everything the eye rests on is effective, pictorial, harmonious—thanks to some inscrutable flattery of the atmosphere. Your brown-skinned, white-shirted gondolier, twisting himself in the light, seems to you, as you lie staring beneath your awning, a perpetual symbol of Venetian "effect." The light here is, in fact, a mighty magician, and, with all respect to Titian, Veronese, and Tintoret, the greatest artist of them all. You should see, in places, the material on which it works—slimy brick, marble battered and befouled, rags, dirt, decay. Sea and sky seem to meet halfway, to blend their tones into a kind of soft iridescence, a lustrous compound of wave and cloud, and a hundred nameless local reflections, and then to fling the clear tissue against every object of vision. You may see these elements at work everywhere, but to see them in their intensity you should choose the finest day of the month, and have yourself rowed far away across the lagoon to Torcello. Without making this excursion, you can hardly pretend to know Venice, or to sympathize with that longing for pure radiance which animated her great colorists. It is a perfect bath of light, and I could not get rid of a fancy that we were cleaving the upper atmosphere on some hurrying cloud-skiff. At Torcello there is nothing but the light to see—nothing, at least, but a sort of blooming sand-bar, intersected by a single narrow creek which does duty as a canal, and occupied by a meagre cluster of huts, the dwellings, apparently, of market-gardeners and fishermen, and by a ruinous church of the eleventh century. It is impossible to imagine a more poignant embodiment of unheeded decline. Torcello was the mother-city of Venice, and it lies there now, a mere mouldering vestige, like a group of weather-bleached parental bones left impiously unburied. I stopped my gondola at the mouth of the shallow inlet, and walked along the grass beside a hedge to the low-browed, crumbling Cathedral. The charm of certain vacant grassy spaces, in Italy, overfrowned by masses of brickwork, honeycombed by the suns of centuries, is something that I hereby renounce, once for all, the attempt to express; but you may be sure, whenever I mention such a spot, that it is something delicious. A delicious stillness covered the little campo at Torcello; I remember none so *audible* save that of the Roman Campagna. There was no life there but the visible tremor of the brilliant air and the cries of half-a-dozen young children, who dogged our steps and clamored for coppers. These children, by the way, were the handsomest little brats in the world, and each was furnished with a pair of eyes which seemed a sort of protest of nature against the stinginess of fortune. They were very nearly as naked as savages, and their little bellies protruded like those of infant Abyssinians in the illustrations of books of travel; but as they scampered and sprawled in the soft, thick grass, grinning like suddenly translated cherubs, and showing their hungry little teeth, they suggested forcibly that the best assurance of happiness in this world is to be found in the maximum of innocence and the minimum of wealth. One small urchin—named, if ever a child was, to be the joy of an aristocratic mamma—was the most expressively beautiful little mortal I ever looked upon. He had a smile to make Correggio sigh in his grave; and yet here he was, running wild among these sea-stunted bushes, on the lonely margin of a decaying world, in prelude to how blank, or to how dark, a destiny? Verily, nature is still at odds with fortune; though, indeed, if they ever really pull together, I'm afraid nature will lose her picturesqueness. An infant citizen of our own republic, straight-haired, pale-eyed, and freckled, duly darned and catechised, marching into a New England school-house, is an object often seen and soon forgotten; but I think I shall always remember, with infinite tender conjecture, as the years roll by, this little unlettered Eros of the Adriatic strand. Yet all youthful things at Torcello were not cheerful, for the poor lad who brought us the key of the Cathedral was shaking with an ague, and his melancholy presence seemed to point the moral of forsaken nave and choir. The church is admirably primitive and curious, and reminded me of

the two or three oldest churches of Rome—St. Clement and St. Agnes. The interior is rich in grimly mystical mosaics of the twelfth century, and the patchwork of precious fragments in the pavement is not inferior to that of St. Mark's. But the terribly distinct apostles are ranged against their dead gold backgrounds as stiffly as grenadiers presenting arms—intensely personal sentinels of a personal Deity. Their stony stare seems to wait for ever vainly for some visible revival of primitive orthodoxy, and one may well wonder whether it finds much beguilement in idly-gazing troops of Western heretics—passionless, even in their heresy.

I had been curious to see whether, in the galleries and churches of Venice, I should be disposed to transpose my old estimates—to burn what I had adored, and to adore what I had burned. It is a sad truth, that one can stand in the Ducal Palace for the first time but once, with the deliciously ponderous sense of that particular half-hour being an era in one's mental history; but I had the satisfaction of finding at least a great comfort in a short stay—that none of my early memories were likely to change places, and that I could take up my admirations where I had left them. I still found Carpaccio delightful, Veronese magnificent, Titian supremely beautiful, and Tintoret altogether unqualifiable. I repaired immediately to the little church of San Cassano, which contains the smaller of Tintoret's two great Crucifixions, and when I had looked at it awhile, I drew a long breath, and felt that I could contemplate any other picture in Venice with proper self-possession. It seemed to me that I had advanced to the uttermost limit of painting; that beyond that another art—inspired poetry—begins, and that Bellini, Veronese, Giorgione, and Titian, all joining hands and straining every muscle of their genius, reach forward not so far but that they leave a visible space, in which Tintoret alone is master. I well remember the excitement into which he plunged me, when I first learned to know him; but the glow of that comparatively youthful amazement is dead, and with it, I fear, that confident vivacity of phrase of which, in trying to utter my impressions, I felt less the magniloquence than the impotence. In his power there are many weak spots, mysterious lapses, and fitful intermissions; but, when the list of his faults is complete, he still seems to me to remain the most *interesting* of painters. His reputation rests chiefly on a more superficial sort of merit—his energy, his unsurpassed productivity, his being, as Théophile Gautier says, *le roi des fougueux*. These qualities are immense, but the great source of his impressiveness is that his indefatigable hand never drew a line that was not, as one may say, a moral line. No painter ever had such breadth and such depth; and even Titian, beside him, has often seemed to me but a great decorative artist. Mr. Ruskin, whose eloquence, in dealing with the great Venetians, sometimes outruns his discretion, is fond of speaking even of Veronese as a painter of deep spiritual intentions. This, it seems to me, is pushing matters too far, and the author of the "Rape of Europa" is, pictorially speaking, no greater casuist than any other genius of supreme good taste. Titian was, assuredly, a mighty poet, but Tintoret—Tintoret was almost a prophet. Before his greatest works you are conscious of a sudden evaporation of old doubts and dilemmas, and the eternal problem of the conflict between idealism and realism dies the most natural of deaths. In Tintoret, the problem is practically solved, and the alternatives so harmoniously interfused that I defy the keenest critic to say where one begins and the other ends. The homeliest prose melts into the most ethereal poetry, and the literal and imaginative fairly confound their identity. This, however, is vague praise. Tintoret's great merit, to my mind, was his unequalled distinctness of vision. When once he had conceived the germ of a scene, it defined itself to his imagination with an intensity, an amplitude, an individuality of expression, which make one's observation of his pictures seem less an operation of the mind than a kind of supplementary experience of life. Veronese and Titian are content with a much looser specification, as their treatment of any subject which Tintoret has also treated abundantly proves. There are few more suggestive contrasts than that between the absence of a *total* character at all commensurate with its scattered variety and brilliancy, in Veronese's 'Marriage of Cana,' in the Louvre, and the poignant, almost startling, completeness of Tintoret's illustration of the theme, at the Salute Church. To compare his "Presentation of the Virgin," at the Madonna dell' Orto, with Titian's, at the Academy, or his "Annunciation" with Titian's, close at hand, is to measure the essential difference between observation and imagination. One has certainly not said all that there is to say for Titian when one has called him an observer. *Il y mettait du sien*, as the French say, and I use the term to designate roughly the artist whose apprehensions, infinitely deep and strong when applied to the single figure or to easily-balanced groups, spends itself vainly on great dramatic combinations—or, rather, leaves them ungauged. It was the whole scene that Tintoret seemed to have beheld, in a flash of inspiration intense enough to stamp it ineffaceably on his perceptions; and it was the whole scene, complete, peculiar, individual, unprecedented, which he committed to canvas with all the vehemence of his talent. Compare his 'Last Supper,' at San Giorgio—its long, diagonally-placed table, its dusky spaciousness, its scattered lamp-light and halo-light, its startled, gesticulating figures, its richly realistic foreground—with the usual formal, almost mathematical, rendering of the subject, in which impressiveness seems to have been sought in elimination rather than comprehension. You get from Tintoret's work the impression that he *felt*, pictorially, the great, beautiful, terrible spectacle of human life very much as Shakespeare felt it poetically—with a heart that never ceased to beat a passionate accompaniment to every stroke of his brush. Thanks to this fact, his works are signally grave, and their almost universal and rapidly increasing decay does not relieve their gloom. Nothing, indeed, can well be sadder than the great collection of Tintorets at San Rocco. Incurable blackness is settling fast upon all of them, and they frown at you across the sombre splendor of their great chambers like gaunt, twilight phantoms of pictures. To our children's children, Tintoret, as things are going, can be hardly more than a name; and such of them as shall miss the tragic beauty, already so dimmed and stained, of the great 'Bearing of the Cross,' at San Rocco, will live and die without knowing the largest eloquence of art. If you wish to add the last touch of solemnity to the place, recall, as vividly as possible, while you linger at San Rocco, the painter's singularly interesting portrait of himself, at the Louvre. The old man looks out of the canvas from beneath a brow as sad as a sunless twilight, with just such a stoical hopelessness as you might fancy him to wear, if he stood at your side, gazing at his rotting canvases. It is not whimsical to fancy it the face of a man who felt that he had given the world more than the world was likely to repay, Indeed, before every picture of Tintoret, you may remember this tremendous portrait with profit. On one side, the power, the passion, the illusion of his art; on the other, the mortal fatigue of his spirit. The world's knowledge of Tintoret is so small that the portrait throws a doubly precious light on his personality; and when we wonder vainly what manner of man he was, and what were his purpose, his faith, and his method, we may find forcible assurance there that they were, at any rate, his life—and a very intense one.

Verona, which was my last Italian stopping-place, is under any circumstances a delightfully interesting city; but the kindness of my own memory of it is deepened by a subsequent ten days' experience of Germany. I rose one morning at Verona, and went to bed at night at Botzen! The statement needs no comment, and the two places, though but fifty miles apart, are as painfully dissimilar as their names. I had prepared myself for your delectation with a copious tirade on German manners, German scenery, German art, and the German stage—on the lights and shadows of Innsbrück, Munich, Nuremberg, and Heidelberg; but just as I was about to put pen to paper, I glanced into a little volume on these very topics, lately published by that famous novelist and moralist, M. Ernest Feydeau, the fruit of a summer's observation at Hamburg. This work produced a reaction, and if I chose to follow M. Feydeau's own example when he wishes to qualify his approbation, I might call his treatise by any vile name known to the speech of man, but I content myself with pronouncing it—superficial. I then reflect that my own opportunities for seeing and judging were extremely limited, and I suppress my tirade, lest some more enlightened critic should come and pronounce *me* superficial. Its sum and substance was to have been that—superficially—Germany is ugly; that Munich is a nightmare, Heidelberg a disappointment (in spite of its charming Castle), and even Nuremberg not a joy for ever. But comparisons are odious; and if Munich is ugly, Verona is beautiful enough. You may laugh at my logic, but you will probably assent to my meaning. I carried away from Verona a certain mental picture upon which I cast an introspective glance whenever between Botzen and Strassburg the oppression of external circumstance became painful. It was a lovely August afternoon in the Roman Arena—a ruin in which repair and restoration have been so gradually and discreetly practised that it seems all of one harmonious antiquity. The vast stony oval rose high against the sky in a single, clear, continuous line, broken here and there only by strolling and reclining loungers. The massive tiers inclined in solid monotony to the central circle, in which a small open-air theatre was in active operation. A small section of the great slope of masonry facing the stage was roped off into an auditorium, in which the narrow level space between the footlights and the lowest step figured as the pit. Footlights are a figure of speech, for the performance was going on in the broad glow of the afternoon, with a delightful, and apparently by no means misplaced, confidence in the good-will of the spectators. What the piece was that was deemed so superbly able to shift for itself I know not—very possibly the same drama that I remember seeing advertised during my former visit to Verona—nothing less than *La Tremenda Giustizia di Dio*. If titles are worth anything this product of the melodramatist's art might surely stand upon its own legs. Along the tiers above the little group of regular specta-

tors was gathered a sort of free-list of unauthorized observers, who although beyond ear-shot must have been enabled by the generous breadth of Italian gesture to follow the tangled thread of the piece. It was all deliciously Italian—the mixture of old life and new, the mountebank's booth (it was hardly more) grafted upon the antique circus, the dominant presence of a mighty architecture, the loungers and idlers beneath the kindly sky, upon the sun-warmed stones. I never felt more keenly the difference between the background to life in the Old World and the New. There are other things in Verona to make it a liberal education to be born there—though that it is one for the contemporary Veronese, I don't pretend to say. The Tombs of the Scaligers, with their soaring pinnacles, their high-poised canopies, their exquisite refinement and concentration of the Gothic idea, I cannot profess, even after much worshipful gazing, to have fully comprehended and enjoyed. They seemed to me full of deep architectural meanings, such as must drop gently into the mind, one by one, after infinite tranquil contemplation. But even to the hurried and preoccupied traveller the solemn little chapel-yard in the city's heart, in which they stand girdled by their great swaying curtain of linked and twisted iron, is one of the most impressive spots in Italy. Nowhere else is such a wealth of artistic achievement crowded into so narrow a space; nowhere else are the daily comings and goings of men blessed by the presence of *manlier* art. Verona is rich, furthermore, in beautiful churches—several with beautiful names: San Fermo, Santa Anastasia, San Zenone. This last is a structure of high antiquity, and of the most impressive loveliness. The nave terminates in a double choir—that is, a sub-choir or crypt, into which you descend, and wander among primitive columns whose variously grotesque capitals rise hardly higher than your head, and an upper choral level into which you mount by broad stairways of the most picturesque effect. I shall never forget the impression of majestic chastity that I received from the great nave of the building on my former visit. I decided to my satisfaction then that every church is from the devotional point of view a solecism that has not something of a similar absolute felicity of proportion; for strictly formal beauty seems best to express our conception of spiritual beauty. The nobly serious effect of San Zenone is deepened by its single picture—a masterpiece of the most serious of painters, the severe and exquisite Mantegna.

Correspondence.

MR. RICHARD GRANT WHITE'S 'WORDS AND THEIR USES.'

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 20th inst., the following paragraph has a conspicuous place:

"We have received what purports to be on its title-page a 'new edition revised and corrected' of Mr. Richard Grant White's 'Words and their Uses' (New York: Sheldon & Co. 1872). In a circular which accompanies it the publishers also speak of it as a 'new and improved edition' and 'carefully revised and enlarged.' This appears, however, to have been true in 1870, when the present plates were made, rather than now, as we are unable to detect any alterations or additions. Time has certainly not brought wisdom to Mr. White on the subject of his eleventh chapter, 'is being done,' and thirty of the weakest pages in the book are retained in spite of the frequent exposures of his fallacy concerning 'exists existing.' He has, by the way, as we expected he would in due time, fallen foul of the perfectly well-established phrase 'had rather,' which he tears to pieces in the January *Galaxy*. A writer in the *American Educational Monthly* for February has had no difficulty in confuting him on this topic also."

The purpose of this paragraph is plain. Its assertions are made with particularity, and profess to be made with knowledge. The writer compares the edition before him with the previous edition, and remarks the retention without change of the eleventh chapter; he has looked into the circular which accompanied the volume, and tells the readers of the *Nation* that the edition of 1872 is announced therein as "new and improved" and "carefully revised and enlarged"; and yet he speaks of it as a book "which *purports* to be on its title-page a new edition revised and corrected," but one in which he is "unable to detect any alterations or additions"; and therefore he declares that the assertions of the circular and of the title-page appear "to have been true in 1870 when the present plates were made."

This is a direct imputation upon the commercial honesty of the publishers, and not only so, but upon the good faith of the author himself, who in the new preface (which of course no critic allowed to write for the *Nation* could pass over without notice) says, on the very first page, "in many passages of the book slight changes have been made; upon matters of fact and opinion a few important modifications will be found; one new chapter has been added."

Such being the case, you cannot expect your imputations to pass unnoticed. If true, they would be scandalous; if untrue, they are grossly libellous. Either the author and the publishers of 'Words and their Uses' on the one hand, or the conductors of the *Nation* on the other, have been led into that peculiar error which consists in making assertions directly at variance with the truth. Under these circumstances I beg leave to ask your attention and that of your readers to the following statement of facts:

As to enlargement and addition, a comparison of the two editions shows that that of 1870 consists of 437 pages, that of 1872 of 469 pages. Alterations by way of correction, suppression, or addition have been made upon one hundred and thirty-one pages. Many of these are trifling in extent, involving changes of a few words, or of but one; their importance being sometimes not greater than that of striking out "not" from the commandment, "Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor." But upon twenty-six pages the changes are such as must have attracted the attention of the most superficial observer.

For example: on p. 63, a new paragraph of one-quarter of a page; on p. 90, a change of like extent; on p. 119, two paragraphs rewritten; pp. 121, 122, and 123 almost entirely rewritten; pp. 124 and 125, the article on *grow* rewritten; part of p. 131 and all of pp. 132 and 133 rewritten; p. 160, a paragraph nearly filling the page rewritten; p. 174, a like change; p. 175, a foot-note cancelled, and one upon *widow-woman* in the Bible substituted; p. 182, formerly half blank, now filled with a foot-note of half a page; p. 198, nearly all blank in the previous edition, now filled with a new article upon the British use of *nasty;* p. 230, a new illustration added; p. 244, the first paragraph of more than one-quarter of the page rewritten; p. 245, a like change; p. 246, nearly the whole page cancelled and rewritten for an important change as to the pronoun *hers;* p. 249, a like though less extensive change; p. 258, one-quarter rewritten and a new illustration added; p. 285, one-quarter rewritten; p. 322, a sentence rewritten. Passing by other corrections and emendations, I direct your attention to the fact that from p. 392 to p. 416 in the revised edition of 1872 (in which the *Nation* declares it can find "no additions") is entirely new matter, forming the "new chapter" of twenty-five pages mentioned in the preface to the new edition.

These are some of the "alterations and additions" which are manifest to any person who will examine the book. In addition, I shall only mention that Messrs. Sheldon & Company have paid the stereotypers for sixty pages of "composition" upon the revised edition, which, as the new chapter occupies but twenty-five pages, leaves thirty-five pages for alterations and minor additions.

Among the passages in which no change has been made is one (on p. 218 of both editions) which mentions "the *Nation*, a paper which is doing much, I hope, at once to sober and to elevate the tone both of our journalism and our politics." I did revise that passage, but I have not yet corrected it.

Your obedient servant, Richard Grant White.

New York, February 26, 1873.

[We have done Mr. White and his publishers an injustice which we sincerely regret. What we set out to do was not to impugn their good faith, but Mr. White's thoroughness in revising and correcting his work, as may be inferred from the context ("Time has certainly not brought wisdom, etc."), though our language was much too sweeping; and we should have been glad if we had discovered for ourselves the proofs of Mr. White's efforts at improvement. That we did not was due to a confused impression that there had been more than two distinct editions of 'Words and their Uses,' and that the (undated) 'Forewords and Afterthoughts to the Present Edition' had done duty before. This was confirmed by the retention of the appendix, which Mr. White should have been glad of an opportunity to revise away; by the undisturbed aspect of the exploded eleventh chapter, on which we commented; and by the general appearance of the plates from which the book was printed. Perhaps these circumstances may palliate our too hasty induction. We of course feel indebted to Mr. White for the commendatory allusion to the *Nation* on the page to which he refers, but the minatory tone of his last sentence induces us to express the hope that before "correcting" the passage in question, he will give us due notice, and allow us to be heard by counsel.—Ed. Nation]

Notes.

Roberts Bros. have in press 'Work: a Story of Experience,' by Louisa M. Alcott; 'The Rising Faith,' by Rev. C. A. Bartol; 'Ups and Downs,' by Rev. Edward E. Hale; 'Songs from the Southern Seas,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; and 'Emeralds and Cameos,' by Théophile Gautier.——A 'Year-Book of Nature and Science,' covering 1872, by Dr. J. C. Draper, will be

published by Scribner, Armstrong & Co.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. announce 'Corn and Beans,' by Anna Warner.——Macmillan & Co.'s list of forthcoming publications includes: 'Memoirs of a Brother,' by Thomas Hughes; a second series of Edward A. Freeman's 'Historical Essays'; 'The Childhood of the World: a Simple Account of Man in Early Times,' by Edward Clodd; and 'The Romance of Astronomy,' by R. K. Miller.——Since we recommended the other day the French periodical *Romania*, we ought to mention the starting of a similar one in Italy, *Rivista di filologia romanza*, a quarterly journal published in Imola, and conducted by L. Manzoni, E. Monaci, and E. Stengel. It is the first of its kind that has appeared in the Peninsula. The last-named editor contributes a document in the Sardinian dialect of the year 1173, never before printed, and of very high value for the light it sheds on the ancient *volgari* of Italy.

—A South Carolinian writing to the Boston *Advertiser* expresses his pain at seeing in many Northern papers the statement that Mr. Henry Timrod, the poet, died in extreme poverty and all but starved to death, and, coupled with this erroneous statement, "some ungenerous taunts thrown upon the stricken land where Henry Timrod lived, wrote, and died, and the crushed State he loved so well"—as if South Carolina had ungratefully allowed him to suffer for bread. The correspondent, apologizing for speaking about a matter which should not have been made so public, goes on to say that in November, 1865, when the famine was bitterest in the land, his father, a Columbia clergyman, received a call from General Wade Hampton, who remarked that he had just heard that among the most necessitous cases in the community was Timrod's, he being sick and unable to move, and the only man in a houseful of dependent women. The General had, therefore, brought a sum of money which he wished the clergyman to induce Timrod to accept. The interview between the two latter, and the conquering of Timrod's natural scruples, did not indeed come too soon, for the distress was great everywhere, and the poet in particular had been thoroughly ruined; but that he did not again suffer want is, says the correspondent, beyond doubt. We suspect that careful examination would show that haste in writing notices of Mr. Timrod's life and haste in reading them may alike have something to do with the pain felt by the correspondent; we have seen no notice that appeared to be meant unkindly, and certainly shall not look to see any now that this Columbia protest is filed. Meanwhile, to make purchase of the last edition of Mr. Timrod's poems is an act which is for all reasons worth doing.

—In an old number of the *North American Review* (No. LVIII. for January, 1828) there is to be seen a curious prediction of the moral and social future of the city of New York. It originally appeared in an article in the *Talisman* for the current year—the *Talisman* being a publication of the *Forget-me-not, Memorial, Souvenir, Amulet,* or *Token* species, then so much in vogue. This *Talisman* for the year 1828 the caustic critic of the *North American* was then reviewing, and in it he found a *jeu d'esprit* entitled the "Legend of the Devil's Pulpit," the scene of which is laid in 1760. Without going into the details of the plot, we may say that Tevas Oakes, metamorphosed from a vagabond into an exquisite of the period, and suspected by one Wince, a tailor, of having acquired his wealth by nefarious, or at any rate doubtful, means, is tracked to Weehawk—a name which we suppose must be the equivalent of Weehawken. Wince returns in a panic, with the story that "the Devil preached over at Weehawk, and that he talked handsomer than the rector or the recorder." The story collects a crowd, which is addressed by Dr. McGraw, "a most original personage," the *North American* says, "whose characteristic trait is an abhorrence of quackery, and who, as we are credibly informed, is an actual historical personage, yet remembered by the older inhabitants of New York." The Doctor, having collected a sufficient force, runs the Devil to earth, and the mystery is then found to be the contrivance of a band of smugglers with which the wicked Tevas is connected, the Devil's sermon having been composed and preached by Tevas himself, for the purpose of imposing on the ears of the then simple and credulous inhabitants of New York, and diverting their attention from his real occupation. The Doctor seizes the pretended Devil, exorcises him, and then, seating himself in the pulpit, utters a soliloquy, which, even in 1828, the *North American* thought had come to pass. We have not space for an entire quotation, but among other things the Doctor prophesies that "these poor people half a century hence will be as wicked as the Londoners." With the same vices, he thinks, they will have more wit. "They will have their South-Sea Bubbles, their land bubbles, their bank bubbles, and all manner of bubbles." They will have their stock-market, and in the market will be bulls and bears, and "every second man in a good coat will be a broker, or a lawyer, or an insolvent." There will be no more cash payments; but the women will wear cashmeres, and the men will drink champagne. The girls, instead of learning to work and mend clothes, will chatter bad French; and there will be no more comfortable tea-drinking and innocent dances; and people will dine by candlelight of week-days, and nobody will go to church on afternoons on Sundays! "Folks will be knowing in wines, and cookery, and players, and painting, and music, and know nothing of their own affairs." "The boys will all be old men, and the old men will try to be boys." "Then they will have all manner of quackery, from a patent pair of loops to hold up their breeches, to a patent way of paying off the National Debt."

—Some errors into which we fell, the other day, when speaking of Bettine von Arnim's letters to Goethe, have recently been exposed, we regret to say; and exposed in the *Woman's Journal* at that. We have the consolation, however, that it was by no woman that we were triced up, the lash having been laid on by a manly hand—that of "T. W. H." In writing about the *Atlantic Monthly's* "Curiosity of Literature" (February, 1873), we spoke, as if it really existed, of a Boston edition of Bettine von Arnim's 'Correspondence'; but "T. W. H." shows us that the city of Lowell was the place at which our "Boston edition" appeared. On the same occasion, we spoke of the translation of our imaginary edition as having been done by some American; as a matter of fact, it was not made by any American; it was the translation made by Bettine herself. We spoke of the book as having been for some time out of print in this country; yet we have now before us a copy of an edition published by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields, of Boston, and bearing the date of 1861. We said that the translation "has the name of being excellent"; and so we were told by our informant; but, in fact, it is the translation in Bettine's own queer English. As Bettine herself once remarked, on an occasion when she had made a blunder, "How this makes blush me!" and "how makes blush us" this array of our ignorance and misinformation. The truth appears to be that, nearly a generation or so ago, Bettine's translation was republished in this country, and even was "mentioned in the *Dial*"—an honor which we have known to be defined as being "breveted to obscurity," and which, at all events, certainly did nothing to lighten our own darkness as to the matter in hand. Afterwards, Messrs. Ticknor & Fields published an edition in one volume, the text of which, so far as we have compared it with a copy of Bettine's own three volumes, Berlin edition, now before us, we find to be the same thing with that work. So much by way of confessing error, and expressing regret for having trusted to the recollection of others and not to our own knowledge. Seldom do we defer to another and distrust our own judgment and information; and seldom indeed, when incautiously we have made such concession, do we fail to find reason to deplore it. As for the *Atlantic's* "literary curiosity," we are informed that the article describing it has caused the writer to receive a quantity of correspondence which would seem to show widespread want of knowledge about Bettine's translation in any and all its editions—Berlin, Lowell, or Boston. Two gentlemen write that they will not believe, till they see it, that Bettine ever made a translation; others, that they have never heard of it; others, that the whole story of it is a "moon hoax"; others, that they have seen or heard of other copies in this country besides that which the *Atlantic* describes. As to this last point, the *Atlantic* writer did not say that there were no other copies than the one upon which the magazine article was based. What was said was that "perhaps" that copy was the only one that had been brought into this country. There was no assertion that it was; and there was nothing that should have called out any inuendo that the article was other than it pretended to be—a description, written in perfectly good faith, of an extremely rare book, of which the writer had not before heard, and supposed to be known to almost nobody. This copy is not unique, however, on this side of the water. We ourselves, since we read the *Atlantic's* article, have heard of two copies and seen one. Of these, one is at Cambridge, in a private library, and one in Brooklyn, in a public library. Of Messrs. Ticknor & Fields's edition, we dare say, whosoever will may purchase copies at Messrs. J. R. Osgood & Company's. "T. W. H." implies as much in his communication to the *Woman's Journal*.

—General Thomas Van Buren, who has had charge of the transmission to Vienna of such pictures, sculptures, etc., as should fairly represent American art, recently requested the authorities of the National Academy of Design to make the selection. These gentlemen have reported that it will be better to make no attempt to represent American art: the time allowed exhibitors is too brief to permit of the production of new works; most of the works already in existence are in the possession of private owners who wish neither to let their property go out of their hands for a year, nor to expose it to the risk of injury with no chance of reimbursement, except so far as the recovery of the amount of marine-insurance policies might be reimbursement. There appears to have been nothing to do but to make this report, and it is to be hoped it may be accepted as final by the commissioner. What is remarkable about the matter is that, of American officials,

Congressmen, and others, he is one of the very few indeed, out of a large number, who have shown anything whatever of deference for the opinions of men personally skilled in art. It is, for example, only a few weeks since a House Committee, who were to pronounce on the merits of some designs for the Farragut monument, voted with entire coolness that the work should be entrusted to Miss Vinnie Ream, a decision from which the Senate Committee fortunately dissented, but as to which there is no evidence that competent counsel was sought from experts by either the Senate Committee or that of the House. Congressmen who would admit themselves ignorant of the art of navigation, or of surveying, or of most other arts which men study for years, entertain as little doubt of their ability to decide one of the most difficult of all kinds of questions as they entertain of their ability to walk; and already they have made the array of pictures at Washington one of the wonders of the world for bad taste and ignorance. And the worst is that they are at it daily, and that daily protests will be necessary for, we fear, a long time to come. Take the case of the last picture purchased by Congress—Mr. Powell's "Victory of Lake Erie." The Washington *Capital* gives this account of its purchase, and we dare say it is an account entirely true in spirit: Some years since Mr. Powell, something of a protégé of General Robert C. Schenck, appeared at Washington as a candidate for an order for a painting which should have for its subject some naval action. General Schenck was interested and influential, and Mr. Powell by-and-by got an order for a twenty-five-thousand-dollar picture, and this in spite of the fact that his "De Soto" already stretched its length and breadth in the Rotunda. The twenty-five thousand dollars was to be paid in instalments as the work went on, and our account says that when $18,000 of it had been paid the picture was finally accepted, although, if the *Capital* is not misinformed, the "original picture" at Washington bears a close resemblance to "Perry's Victory," previously sold to the State of Ohio by the same painter. However that may be, good opinions will not differ as to whether we have paid out $25,000 for a picture worth having, at that price or any price.

—We did not discuss the litigation over Mr. Greeley's will because we thought the matter had little or no interest for the public, and that the heat with which public opinion was appealed to was, *pendente lite*, very unnecessary and ill-judged. All parties are, we believe, now pretty well satisfied with the result. The will of 1871 has been admitted to probate, but the Misses Greeley are, even under it, well provided for. We are, however, very sorry to hear that the simple fact that the Children's Aid Society was, greatly to Mr. Greeley's honor, legatee under this will, has created a prejudice against the society in some minds owing to the belief that it was in some way concerned in the proceedings before the Surrogate. During the litigation denunciations of it appeared in various quarters for "seeking to take the bread away" from Mr. Greeley's orphans, and several gentlemen who, we firmly believe, never gave a cent to its funds, announced in print their intention of withdrawing all support from it. Let us now say of our personal knowledge, that the clamor against it was, from first to last, ridiculous, and that the trustees acted throughout with the utmost propriety. They took no part in the litigation whatever. They left Mr. Greeley's executors and family to test the validity of his wills, which was what delicacy prescribed; and when the will which left the Society a legacy was admitted to probate, they went to the utmost limits of magnanimity permissible to Trustees by passing a resolution declining the bequest in case the estate had been materially diminished since the date of the will. There is no question of Mr. Greeley's sanity at that date, and if he then thought his fortune was sufficiently large, and the provision he made for his daughters, to whom he was tenderly attached, sufficiently good to permit of his making a bequest to a charity in which he was greatly interested, we should like to hear what rule of law and morals it is which requires the Society to question his judgment and decline his money; nay, we should like to hear what rule of morals would permit the trustees to decline it, if, as is not denied, the state of Mr. Greeley's fortune, when he made his will, assured his daughters a more than comfortable maintenance. The men who compose the Board of Trustees stand in the very highest rank, not simply as business men but as gentlemen, and indeed there is not one of them whom we should not be glad to consult on any question raised by the conflicting claims of interest and honor; and we advise all charitable persons to rest assured that what they have done about the Greeley will was the fittest and fairest thing that could be done.

—Since the death of Lord Lytton it has been made known that in his late years he was the author of two anonymous books. Of these, one—'The Coming Race'—was attributed to various persons, and among others to Mr. Laurence Oliphant, a gentleman who, by a residence in this country while engaged in some little-known socialist experiments, had presumbly become acquainted with our politics and polity, which 'The Coming Race' rather contemptuously satirizes. It appears, however, that Lord Lytton was the author, for so his publishers now state; and, in the veteran contributor to *Blackwood*, the satire is easy to account for—easier than if the author had been a socialist, for its contempt of Republicanism is bred of its belief in Conservatism. We have not seen it mentioned that Lord Lytton's machinery in the opening of this book—the deep mine, the young mining-engineer who, by an accident, penetrates into the country of the coming man and woman in the interior recesses of the earth—was apparently taken from Mr. Robert Landor's 'Fountain of Arethusa.' The other anonymous work by which Lord Lytton somewhat curiously chose to test his real favor with the public was a story now in course of publication in *Blackwood*, and entitled "The Parisians." The reader, ignorant of its authorship, may well have imagined it the production of some cultivated person, man or woman, in a state of refined but serious revolt against the rawness and realism of current thought and fiction, who had reverted for inspiration to the ancient old-time literary novel and volume of letters. An American family figures in it; so do a number of French people, literary people, and others; an English hero, "who rides, draws the bow, and speaks the truth," like any young model of English aristocracy in a well-toned conservative novel, and who also has that mastery of blue-books, that knowledge of the House of Commons, of colonial politics, of diplomacy, etc., which are attributes of so many of Lord Lytton's serious young heroes. A reading of a few chapters some time since made us think this a story which many of our readers would greatly enjoy. We believe it is finished in manuscript, as also is another novel yet to appear.

—Physicians whose lot it is to attend great personages in their last hours are liable to be accused by the public, and even by their own colleagues, of having caused the death of their patients. This has been noticeably the case with the medical advisers of and operators upon the late Emperor Napoleon; and so cautious and fair-minded a journal as the London *Practitioner* feels constrained to join in the general condemnation of the course pursued and the reasons assigned for it. While this dispute is going on, the ex-Emperor's brain is examined in the interest of science, and is found to weigh 1,500 grammes, and to rank among the "very large," though inferior to several well-known examples of extraordinary weight and size. On the other hand, as it surpasses in weight the brains of confessedly superior men, it gives no help in solving the problem of the relation between brain-weight and size on the one hand, and intellect on the other, except to make it more than ever certain that the former are not an absolute measure of the latter.

LIFE OF BISHOP HOPKINS.*

THE life of Bishop Hopkins has interest primarily for those who were his personal friends, and for those who are engaged in party warfare inside the Episcopal Church. The latter will find here information with regard to many of the incidents in the great battle of High and Low, Broad and Narrow, which has been going on in that communion from the beginning. The Bishop's life was a life of controversy. He was robust and energetic in mind—far beyond the men with whom he was called upon to associate. He found himself always amongst inferiors, and the position of leader was forced upon him from the first diocesan convention which he attended. It may well be true that his popular reputation was unjust, and that he was rather, as his biographer represents it, in a continual attitude of deprecation with regard to the position thrust upon him, first by one party, and then by the other. It is certain, however, that he had that disposition which sniffs the battle of controversy from afar, and that, either from habit or nature (we should say the latter), he felt called upon to do execution upon all evil-doers or wrong-thinkers.

His biographer follows him not only with the affection of a son, but also with the sympathy of a like disposition. Low Church means for him all that is plebeian and vulgar. In stray epithets, in sharp foot-notes, in contemptuous references, this animus is apparent. The Low-Church party appears here as truculent in prosperity and intriguing in adversity, and as the originators of tricks and schemes in church politics, though their adversaries, on the same showing, seem to have quickly learned the lesson and "bettered their instruction." On the other hand, to be "catholic-minded" is to be elegant, cultivated; in short, patrician. In the bishop, this opinion was tempered in practice by a really mild disposition and solidity of mind; in his biographer, it becomes fretful and arrogant. The sympathy between the author and his subject is so complete that we cannot expect, and do not find, any critical delineation of the mental development by which the frontier

* 'The Life of the late Rt. Rev. John Henry Hopkins, First Bishop of Vermont, and Seventh Presiding Bishop. By One of his Sons.' New York: F. J. Huntington & Co. 1873.

iron-master and lawyer became a High-Church bishop. To us, that would have been the most interesting aspect of the Bishop's life. The Episcopal Church presents some remarkable phenomena in our American society, not the least of which is the process by which it segregates from this crude and active community of ours certain types of men, and subjects them to a process from which they issue anything but what might have been expected. We have little information here with regard to the peculiar character by which Bishop Hopkins was marked in his early years. We hear of him as trying various occupations with a facility of change which was more practicable fifty years ago than now, and showing a certain versatility in all. He is engaged in manufacturing and law in a frontier town, and the only idea we can form of him is conformable to his occupations and surroundings. This man, drawn into the Episcopal Church by one accident and into its ministry by another, takes to the study of patristic theology, forms his dogmatic opinions upon the authority of the Fathers, and spends his life in the see-saw of party strife, in the discussions of theological traditions, in making war upon heretics, in denouncing schismatics, in sharpening the sectarian lines about his own Zion, in propagating a set of notions which he and others had built up and dubbed "catholic," and in chasing the chimera of "primitiveness" through the changing forms of ecclesiastical usage.

No misgiving that after all he was working very hard at a very small matter, or that spiritual culture has a deeper root than ecclesiastical tradition, or that unity and learning amongst those who seek the spiritual welfare of mankind must be sought on some broader basis than the fiction of a "Primitive Catholicity," seems ever to have dimmed his zeal. He was a Tractarian before the Tractarians. He found in the Fathers indications that certain usages had once existed, and that was for him conclusive that they ought to exist now. Considerations of changed place and circumstance were impertinent. He followed the Oxford men, or accompanied them, up to Tract 90, when he drew back; but in his last years he once more joined the march. So likewise, when the Fathers and Councils permitted slavery, and interpreted Scripture as allowing it, it seemed to him that that interpretation was guaranteed beyond question, and that it made slavery for ever "lawful." In this circuit his mind worked his whole life long. By it he ruled his parish and his diocese; by it he elaborated what he called "church principles"; and by these he measured and judged all movements and institutions, and guided his action in his numerous controversies. The picture given us (p. 274) of his scheme for a commentary on the Bible, to be made with D'Oyly and Mant on one side, and the Fathers on the other, is significant of his estimate of the things worth doing in this life, and of the means by which they are to be accomplished. He was energetic, sincere, and faithful to what he considered duty, and his life was a happy one, because it was free from any misgiving as to the importance of his work or the correctness of his means; but whether it was a useful life or not must be decided by the question whether men who want to be useful in life ought to devote their energies to the elaboration of institutions, trusting that these, if perfected, will regenerate mankind. To us it seems that the church of which Bishop Hopkins dreamed would, if realized, be like an exquisite but over-elaborate machine, in which the friction is so great that all the force it can bear only sufficies to move it, leaving no power to be spent on the material to be wrought.

CHAPMAN'S EVOLUTION OF LIFE.*

THE contents of this interesting volume are so largely taken from Professor Häckel's 'Schöpfungsgeschichte' that a recognition of the fact upon the title-page would have been quite appropriate. As it is, the author would appear to have been not sufficiently careful in stating the amount and character of his obligations to the German work. There is not, indeed, any attempt in the body of the book to cover up the source from which its facts and conclusions are obtained; but in the preface, at least, Prof. Häckel should have been prominently mentioned, and not merely alluded to in an incidental way, along with twenty-two other writers on the development theory. The oversight is doubtless unintentional, but it has an unpleasant look, and would be well worth correcting if Dr. Chapman's work should pass to a second edition; for in no way does this work present the results of original investigation or of original thinking. The facts and the speculations are like those of Häckel, and they are given, without further elaboration, very much as they stand in the German work. It is not, therefore, as an original treatise that Dr. Chapman's book is to be criticised. Its faults and excellences are not its own, though we may freely accredit it with the general merit of making the views of Prof. Häckel accessible to readers in this country.

Students of natural history have for some time known Prof. Häckel as one of the foremost comparative anatomists of Germany and as a staunch advocate of the Darwinian theory. His great work is the 'Generelle Morphologie der Organismen,' in which the general principles of animal structure are elaborately discussed. But as this book is too technical and cumbrous for any save professed students of science, the author has taken the trouble to present his views in a more intelligible form in his 'Schöpfungsgeschichte,' or 'History of Creation,' which is probably the most complete, accurate, and interesting exposition of the Darwinian theory that has ever been made. It is, however, more than a simple exposition; for with regard to the classification and genetic relationships of animals, Prof. Häckel has contributed a vast number of suggestions of his own which are of the highest interest, and which are ably and succinctly summed up in Dr. Chapman's book. One or two of these suggestions we may briefly mention, as indicating the kind of assistance which the students of the development theory or of the classification of animals may expect to get from Dr. Chapman.

Prof. Häckel's original and elaborate researches into the simplest forms of organized matter have resulted in the conviction that those organisms which possess no distinctively animal or vegetal characteristics should be grouped together as constituting a third kingdom. Instead of "protozoa" and "protophyta," Prof. Häckel recognizes only "protists," in which we may see the types of the forerunners of both the animal and the vegetable kingdoms. They represent the primitive less-specialized forms whose descendants have become variously specialized, first as animal or vegetal, then as cœlenterate or mollusk, cryptogam or phænogam, and so on. Starting from the *Amœba* and its kindred, which are neither animal nor vegetable in character, we encounter two diverging lines of development, represented respectively, according to Häckel's surmise, by the protists with harder envelopes, which are the predecessors of the vegetable kingdom, and the protists with softer envelopes, which are the forerunners of the more mobile animal organization. Confining our attention to animals, we have first the *Cœlenterata*, including sponges, corals, and jelly-fish, characterized by the union of masses of amœba-like units, with but little specialization of structure or of function. Besides these lowly forms, but not immediately above any one of them, we find echinoderms starting off in one direction, worms or annuloida in a second, and molluscoida in a third. Following the first road, we stop short with echinoderms. But on the second we find annuloid worms, succeeded by true annulosa or articulata, reaching the greatest divergence from the primitive forms in the crabs, spiders, and ants. On the third road we find the molluscoid worms diverging into mollusks and vertebrates. Through the *Bryozoa* we are gradually led to the mollusks, while the *Tunicata*, of which the ascidian or "pitcher" (the primitive "tadpole" of unscientific ridiculers of Darwinism) is the most familiar form, lead us directly to the vertebrates. Kovalevsky has discovered some wonderful likenesses between the embryonic development of the ascidian and that of the amphioxus or lowest known vertebrate. Of all the "missing links" the assumed absence of which is so triumphantly cited by the adherents of the dogma of fixity of species, the most important one would appear to have been found; for it is a link which connects the complex and highly developed vertebrate with a very lowly form which passes its natural existence rooted plant-like to the soil or rather to the sea-bottom. The ascidian cannot, indeed, be regarded as typifying the direct ancestors of the vertebrate. It is a curiously aberrant and degraded form, and its own progenitors had doubtless once "seen better days." In its embryonic state it possesses a well-marked vertebral column, and it behaves in general very much as if it were going to grow to something like the amphioxus. But it afterwards falls considerably short of this mark. Already in early life its vertebræ begin to become "rudimentary" or evanescent; and when fully matured, it stops swimming about after its prey, and, striking root in the sub-marine soil, remains thereafter standing, with its broad pitcher-like mouth ever in readiness to suck down such organisms floating by as may serve for its nutriment. That vertebræ should be found in the embryo of such an animal is a fact of striking interest. It would seem to mark the ascidian as a retrogaded offshoot of those primitive forms on the way toward assuming the vertebrate structure, of which the more fortunate ones succeeded in leaving as their representatives the amphioxus and the progenitors of the lampreys.

In treating of the classification of mammals, Dr. Chapman differs from Häckel in one important point. The old Cuvierian classification of marsupials as an order side by side with carnivora, rodentia, etc., is now generally abandoned; the absence of a placenta and possession of a pouch for the developing young is justly regarded as a deeper point of difference than any of those which demarcate from each other the various orders of placental mammals. Both Häckel and Huxley divide the class mammals into three great sub-classes—ornithodelphia, didelphia, and monodelphia. The first includes

* 'Evolution of Life. By Henry C. Chapman, M.D.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

the ornithorhynchus and echidna, the second the marsupials, and the third all placental mammals. But the didelphians subdivide into orders or pseud-orders which curiously simulate several of the orders of monodelphians. On the development theory, this fact admits of two possible solutions, of which Dr. Chapman has, as it seems to us, chosen the less probable one. He holds that each monodelphian form is descended from the marsupial form which simulates it, the monkeys from some ancestral form akin to the opossums, the monodelphian rodents from a didelphian rodent, the ungulates from some congener of the kangaroo, and so on. If this be the case, we must suppose that a host of marsupial forms, scattered far and wide over the face of the earth, and subjected to every imaginable variety of physical condition, all somehow contrived to achieve the very same step in development—the step which consisted in the acquirement of a placenta and the loss of a pouch. Häckel, on the other hand, would derive all existing monodelphians from one marsupial, probably not far removed from the opossum, and would say that, because the most fundamental conditions of life are much the same at one epoch as at another, the monodelphians naturally diverged, as their predecessors had done, into flesh-eaters, fruit-eaters, gnawers, etc. This would seem to be by far the sounder view, especially as the resemblances between the various monodelphians and marsupials can in general be interpreted as "adaptive" resemblances.

THE MAGAZINES FOR MARCH.

MR. THURLOW WEED'S personal recollections of the late Horace Greeley, interspersed with letters from him, are published in the March *Galaxy*, and will have interest for many readers besides having promise of interest for a great many more; but they are set down *currente calamo*, and are not really of much importance. It is curious to see how Mr. Greeley's political enthusiasm and desire to win given political campaigns were associated with those enthusiasms and "isms" which are not usually supposed to have been much connected with his practical political action. But practical politics were probably sure sooner or later to color all his views, however abstract. Take, for instance, this passage from a letter which was written to Mr. Weed in 1841, when Mr. Greeley was deep in Fourierism and Brisbanism. Mr. Weed, alarmed at the *Tribune's* socialistic course, had published an article in his Albany paper in which Fourierism was handled without gloves. Mr. Greeley replies and endeavors to show that the Whigs would do well to secure a Fourierite following, because, the Democratic party being the poor man's party, the Whigs must somehow throw off the stigma of being aristocratic:

"I assure you that the doctrines of Fourier—I mean his fundamental position with regard to the economies of association—have received the assent of some of the strongest and most *practical* minds of this city and elsewhere. Clerk Garland of the U. S. House, General Keim, M. C. from Berks, G. A. Worth, cashier of City Bank, Alderman Phœnix, and many other sound men, are favorably impressed with it.

"I think you take the wrong view of the *political* bearing of this matter, though *I* act without reference to *that*. Hitherto all the devotees of social reform of any kind—all the advocates of a higher destiny for labor—all the combatants against unjust and false social principles—in short, all the social discontent of the country has been regularly repelled from the Whig party and attracted to its opposite. This forms a heavy deadweight against us. It strikes me that it is unwise to persist in this course, unless we are ambitious to be considered the enemies of improvement and the bulwarks of an outgrown aristocracy in the country. But I will not ask you to think as I do. I only want a chance to think for myself."

Mr. Weed, however, was not convinced.

Another characteristic instance of attention to the immediately practical in politics is exhibited in a letter of Mr. Greeley's written in 1852, in the early part of the year, when State issues were to be made up with reference to the presidential struggle in the autumn:

"I don't see how they [the Democrats] could live but for our troubles. Chief among these is the Maine law. That need not have been a trouble. If some sort of an act had been passed and sent to the people, all would have been easy. If there is any fear of its immediate operation, it might have been made to take effect far ahead—say the 1st of May, 1853—and meantime submitted to the people at the fall of a special election. Now it goes square into the fall contest and ruins our chance for the Legislature.

"It seems to me that we must run Patterson for Governor. He is an old temperance man, but not known to be anywhere on the Maine law. We can get through with him if anybody."

Other articles in the March *Galaxy* are "Casual Cogitations" by Carl Benson, who discourses upon the mercantile spirit of our society and the labor question; four chapters of Mr. De Forest's "Wetherel Affair"; General Custer's, who gives us a glimpse at the rascalities of the Indian agents, and fortifies his position by official letters which are all worth reading and saving; and there is in the *Nebulæ* a discussion of the question, What constitutes American Society? The essayist's conclusion is that we can hardly be said to have "society" at all, in the sense in which that word is used by the foreigners who come here seeking society. The tourist, he remarks, usually lands on these shores with a notion that here as in France, in England, in Italy, he is to find some body of men and women clothed with authority to legislate on social subjects, "who have the key to the sacred mystery of *savoir faire*, who may make rules, affix to them penalties and awards, admit new members," etc. But we have no such well-defined body possessed of plenary legislative and executive powers. The second mistake of the foreigner sojourning amidst us is the mistake of supposing that there is in this country any "fixity of national characteristics"—that because an Englishman will, under certain circumstances, always do certain things, and a Frenchman will always do certain things, therefore an American also has this fixity. From our want of a fixed "society," then, and of a fixed national type, it follows that whoso seeks among us fixed society usages will always be liable to mistakes. The subject is a deep and a high one; but tourists who intend paying us a visit might be referred to an article which appears in *Lippincott's* for March, entitled "Unsettled Points of Etiquette." Both for the points which it finds still mooted in Philadelphian circles, and for its way of settling them, it will serve to open a good many eyes.

In the *Atlantic*, "Life Under Glass" argues in favor of the erection of immense glass houses like the Crystal Palace, in which a winter residence may be sought by all such people as wish to escape from "the hard gray weather" of Mr. Charles Kingsley's favorite skies, of which we have just been having so inexcusable a three months. Weary humanity deserves an equable climate, says the sanguine Mr. Shove, as much as exotic plants which now flourish in every conservatory, and can as easily have it. Every State should contain one or more winter gardens roofed with glass, each about as large as Boston Common, which contains some forty-five acres. Such a garden would be rather more than twice as large as the Crystal Palace of 1851, and not twice as large as that of 1862, with its "annexes" and picture galleries. Thorough ventilation could be secured, a uniform temperature could be maintained, and ten thousand patients could live for the winter months in a paradise of vegetable and other beauty, pure air, healthful temperature, orchestral music, and all delights. Running around this earthly paradise, of fifteen hundred feet in diameter, should be a broad arcade warmed, lighted, and ventilated like the garden, paved with wood or asphalt, and provided with driveways and sidewalks. Skirting the outside circumference of this boulevard should be the hotels and boarding-houses in which the inhabitants of the garden would dwell, and the shops to which they would go shopping. For the purchase and grading of a site for such a garden with its hotels and other appliances, about $12,000,000 would be required, the interest of which at 8 per cent. would amount to $960,000. To this sum must be added the cost of boarding ten thousand boarders from the first day of November to the first of June, which would be about $2,500,000, making the total amount of outgoes of each year $3,460,000. But at two dollars a day for the board of ten thousand persons for thirty weeks, the income of the establishment would be no less a sum than $4,200,000, "which would certainly provide a reserve fund large enough to meet any unforeseen or extraordinary outlay." Probably. One can only hope the same company will remember what is in store for us in July and August next, and be ready with its *frigidarium* also, which no doubt can be made nearly as profitable as the other.

"Robert Owen at New Lanark"; "The Abbé Galiani"; "A Good Word for Quacks"; "The Quarrel of Jefferson and Hamilton," by Mr. Parton; Mr. Howells's "Chance Acquaintance"; "The Madonna of the Future," by Henry James, Jr., are other contributions in the new *Atlantic*. The critical departments are especially interesting; they treat of numerous books, domestic and foreign; of Mlle. Lucca and Miss Nillson; of some water-colors by Mrs. W. J. Stillman, and of some other pictures exhibited by the Boston Art Club, of Mr. Sidney Colvin's recent book on "Children in Italian and English Art," and of two or three recent scientific works. "Our Railroad Monopoly," under the head of politics, recites fresh instances of the arrogance of our railroad corporations, and a promise is made that there shall be a return to the subject. It appears that Mr. Coleman, the gentleman who had "A Fight with a Railroad," has, ever since he published his article in the *Atlantic* two or three months ago, been in receipt of numerous letters, many of them very full of feeling, and that he meditates employing them in another magazine article.

The writer in *Lippincott's*, who begins a series of illustrated articles on "The Roumi in Kabylia"—the Franks in Algiers—has a good subject, which so far he handles pleasantly, and for this and for two or three other of its papers *Lippincott's* for March is worth having. One of these is a good long instalment of Mr. Black's "Princess of Thule," in which he appears to be as strong as ever in his landscape painting, and to have luckily

opened a new field in his far-off highland isle of Borva. Another agreeable sketch is the semi-humorous one by Mr. Charles Warren Stoddard, which describes how the rather frightened crew of the *Petrel*, instead of encouraging each other while that vessel rolled heavily in the tempest, sat about telling each other the most dismal tales of marine disaster and horror, including cannibalism, and how, finally, they were saved. It is a subject for Mark Twain. Mr. Chauncey Hickox speaks hopefully of the municipal eprospets of the city of Washington, and Professor T. B. Maury is strong for the trans-Allegheny canal systems favored by the last Presidential message.

We bespeak a perusal also for the article on "Etiquette," to which we have already referred, and to "Her Chance," a novelette by Mr. S. W. Kellogg. The "Chance" spoken of is Miss Mary Grilligus's chance to make a fortune, which she very much wants to make. The story of her endeavors in this direction is a singular one. The author is very ill-advised if he means pathos, and not much less so if he means fun. A fitter foil for the unexpected jocoseness of the conclusion should be found, the natural and well-described fears and troubles of the heroine at the beginning of the story deserving a better or less coarsely farcical conclusion than the absurd one reached.

The *Catholic World* closes its eighth year with an address to its readers and contributors, in which, thanking the latter, it promises the former to continue waging war, in its degree, "against the impious, anti-Christian, and immoral press." Specifically it promises to try to give a greater number than it has hitherto given of articles pertaining to the special rights and duties of the Catholic Church in this country. With one such the March number opens. It is a discussion of "The Relations of the Right of Conscience to the Authority of the State under the Laws of our Republic," and is in the form of an address to a Catholic society of New Haven. Somewhat similar in point of topic is a sharp attack on the New York *Times* and *Harper's Weekly* for the alleged bigotry and injustice with which those journals recently handled such matters as the religious creed of Mr. Kernan, and the relations of the Society of Jesus with the Ku-klux Klan. Other articles of various degrees of readability are more of "Fleurange"; a "Sketch of Brussels"; "Recollections of Père Hermann"; a "Daughter of Saint Dominic"; and an article called "Marriage in the Nineteenth Century," which is as civil to Protestants as if there were no impurity of wedded life in Catholic lands, but which is justly uncivil to them in many ways. A warm article on "Italian Unity" is copied from a foreign source, and is severe enough on the "Sub-Alpine" Government and Count Cavour, the conspirator.

Scribner's contains a kind biographical notice of the late Mr. Putnam, the publisher; and it appears to be not more kind than just. "The New Diamond Diggings" continues to be readable and in its way instructive. A long and elaborate discussion by Augustus Blauvelt, entitled "Christ's Miracles Scientifically Considered," and designed to show that both Strauss and Renan have missed the real nodus of the question before them, is the most formidable contribution. "Professor Morse and the Telegraph" is a well-illustrated paper, with the familiar story well enough told; and quite as good in letterpress and picture is the description of Hessian and Swabian peasantry, with its excellent engravings. "The Woman who Saved Me" is pabulum of an odd sort to set before the young people of *Scribner's*; or of any other magazine, for the matter of that. But nearly all of them do the same thing: A woman droops and pines, for she has found out that she does not love her husband and never did; the husband glooms and glowers; he evidently does not love his wife and never did; certainly he is extremely sulky about it; the life goes out of the wife's life, and she fades slowly but uncomplainingly and surely away; the doctor makes her visit her friend in Bamborough, and there she finds Ralph Gwynne, the man whom once she loved, whom now she sees she should have wedded; she droops yet more; the husband does not write, nor will she; an elopement is planned. But the woman who saves Gervase has known all along that the husband was in fact devoured with love for his wife, and ever had loved her; that he had loved her, but that his unfortunate manner of behaving like a bear with a sore head when he was in apprehension about his wife's health and saw her suffering, had concealed his affection; the illegitimate child was one that he had rescued from the street, not his own; Ralph Gwynne's heart is shallow in comparison, and all is accommodated at last, after the reader has pored over a fine lesson in sickly sentiment, unreality, stupidity, and falsity.

"Life on Board a Man-of-War" (illustrated); "Along the Elbe" (illustrated); "Aunt Eve Interviewed" (illustrated), being the garrulous reminiscences of an old negro woman; "Magdalen," by Mr. Wilkie Collins; "A Simpleton," by Mr. Charles Reade; Miss Thackeray's "Old Kensington," and a dozen more articles fill up *Harper's* table of contents. Mr. Curtis talks of the American prison system, of the late Mr. Kensett the artist, and of old artist days in Rome, and also of Mr. Froude and his mission to this country. Mr. Curtis makes the point that some of us are too ready to dislike Englishmen because we remember George the Third and Dr. Johnson; that many of us are too ready to put on "the green" to please our Irish-born population; that Mr. Froude and Father Burke and Mr. Meline, in talking about the historic questions which by and-by they had to talk about, were talking of questions which always arouse fierce heats of religious and political partisanship. Apparently these propositions imply that it was bad rather than good policy for Mr. Froude to come over among such people to discuss such questions. But whatever we think of Mr. Froude's wisdom, one point of Mr. Curtis's appears to be well taken—namely, that when once the attempt was made to close Mr. Froude's mouth by refusing him food, as was practically done by his Boston host, or by refusing him a place in which to speak, which was nowhere done that we know, it became our duty to insist on his speaking while there was any menace against him.

Ueber den Begriff der Liebe in einigen alten und neuen Sprachen. Von Dr. Carl Abel. (Berlin: C. Habel. New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—This little volume is, in its unpretending way, an entertaining contribution to the study of philology. The author, who has acquired some distinction in Europe for his practical knowledge of numerous ancient and modern languages, aims in the present publication to define some of the words which, in different ways, convey the idea of love. He assumes that the words of a language express the thoughts which are most usual and most strongly felt; that a people which employs many words to express a sentiment or a moral must have enlarged and qualified it on many sides; that a contrary conclusion may be drawn in the case of a people with which the contrary is the case. He chose love because so strong and yet so tender a sentiment permits of a deep insight into the hearts of those by whom the words expressing this feeling are formed and employed. Where the feeling is greatest the distinctions in the words are the most delicate. In order to exhibit the diversity of character among different peoples by reason of the different modes in which they express their love in words, Dr. Abel selects four languages: Hebrew, for the primitive Semitic period; Latin, as a type of classical antiquity; English, as representing the new Germanic world; and Russian, as representing the aspiring Slavic race. He adduces several words in each of these languages, and describes the shades of difference in the ideas which they convey. On reviewing his labor, he concludes that the most prominent features of the Hebrew tongue are: The love of God for man; the love of man for God; and the universal love among men. This last idea is most significant of an active, helping love, and its manifold expression requires three words: *'hesed*, the gracious benevolence of a superior in rank; *'hen*, the favor which springs from affection; and *Ra'ham*, the mercy which draws the soft and willing heart toward the sufferer. The Latin language gives prominence to the feeling of duty which is implied in love. That which arises from family ties is distinguished by *caritas;* the more spiritual extended to the gods and to the country is expressed by *pietas;* and the zealous attachment which endeavors to serve a friend is shown by *studium*. There are four principal ideas in English to distinguish a gradation, expressed in the words *liking, attachment, love,* and *affection*. The Russian language, besides having words to express different grades of love, has a peculiar word, *milost,* which not only signifies neighborly love, but also politeness and high, condescending grace inherent in the individual, regardless of divine command. The origin of the word is accounted for by the political and social relations which Russia is now endeavoring to rectify. It will soon be a relic of the past, when the progress of the country has made it appear improper to beg for grace out of pure politeness. But what distinguishes the Russian from the rest is the word *blagost,* showing the decided prominence given to the love of God for humanity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Blinckle (J. G.), The Electra of Sophocles	(J. Campbell & Son)	
Cook (Rev. F. C.), Bible Commentary, Vol. II.: Joshua.—Kings	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Crabb (W. D.), Poems of the Plains	(Hurd & Houghton)	
Emery (E. B.), Queens	(Estes & Lauriat)	$1 50
Farjeon (B. L.), Bread-and-Cheese and Kisses	(Harper & Bros.)	
God Our Father	(John Murphy & Co.)	1 00
Hiawatha: In Prose and Verse	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)	1 00
Kedzie (Rev. A. S.), Elements of Success in the Kingdom of Evil	(Congr. Pub. Soc.)	
Kingsley (C.), Plays and Puritans	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 75
Manning (Bishop), Sermons on Ecclesiastical Subjects. Vol. II	(Cath. Pub. Soc.)	2 00
Martin (F.) Statesman's Year-Book for 1873	(Macmillan & Co.)	3 50
Peterson (H.), Pemberton; or, One Hundred Years ago	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 75
Poole (W. F.), Anti-Slavery Opinions before the Year 1800	(Robt. Clarke & Co.)	1 25
Simons (M. L.), Sunday Half-Hours with the Great Preachers	(Porter & Coates)	
Spencer (H.), Principles of Psychology, Vol. II	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Sœur Eugénie	(John Murphy & Co.)	1 00
Taylor (Rev. I.), Words and Places	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 00
The Workshop, No. 2, swd	(E. Steiger)	0 40

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CONTENTS OF MARCH NUMBER.

The Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors. First Paper. By Prof. Henry Coppée, LL.D., President of Lehigh University.
The Childhood and Youth of Luther. By Robert E. Thompson.
Public-School Education in France. By Joseph G. Rosengarten.
To Herbert Spencer.
The Cosmical Effects of Adam's Fall. By the Rev. Daniel R. Goodwin, D.D., late Provost of the University of Pennsylvania.
THE MONTH.—The Spanish Republic.
Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention.
Crédit Mobilier.
The Electoral College.
The Reading Railroad as a Mining Corporation.
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MARCH 3, 1873.

THE week in Wall Street has been one of interest, and has witnessed the evaporation of at least a great part of one rapidly accumulated fortune. The activity of the stock and money markets has given people plenty to do, and this, with the care and anxiety experienced by the majority of brokers, made the arrival of Saturday night most welcome, and Sunday a day of rest indeed.

The Treasury statement for February shows a reduction for the month of $5,277,880 in the public debt. The legal tender notes have been reduced to the original limit, $356,000,000, which furnishes some explanation for the loss of legal tender notes by the banks during the last four weeks, as $2,000,000 have been taken in and cancelled since the last debt statement was issued. The public, who are naturally interested in any contraction of the currency, were kept in ignorance by Mr. Boutwell of what was going on, which again gives rise to the query whether parties outside of the Treasury had knowledge of the fact. Mr. Boutwell has ascertained the amount of 5-20's he can pay off against the cash subscriptions to new 5 per cents, and the "amended call" is for $50,000,000, to be redeemed June 1.

The money market has remained very stringent, the rate for money on call at one time reaching ¼ per cent. per diem, in addition to the legal rate, which is equal to 98 per cent. per annum; the average rate of the week was fully $\frac{1}{16}$ and interest. The National Banks, anticipating a call from the Comptroller of the Currency for a report showing their condition, have been placing themselves in a stronger position, and the weekly statement shows a considerable contraction of loans as well as of deposits, as will be seen by the statement we publish below.

Commercial paper has been dull of sale, although rates have changed but little since our last report, and we quote them 8 to 12 per cent. The stringency in the money market has naturally interfered with business in paper, and will continue to do so until the prospect for easy money is brighter than at present.

The foreign money markets remain easy throughout Europe. The Bank of England rate of discount remains at 3½ per cent. The Bank of France reports a gain of 2,250,000 francs.

The weekly statement of the city banks is favorable; the total liabilities have decreased $3,804,400, and the total reserve increased $586,400. The gain in the reserve is in specie, which more than offsets a loss in legal tenders.

The following are the statements for the two weeks ending February 21 and March 1.

	Feb. 21.	March 1.	Differences.
Loans	$286,870,100	$281,344,900	Dec. $5,525,200
Specie	15,046,900	16,370,500	Inc. 1,323,600
Circulation	27,573,100	27,601,300	Inc. 28,200
Deposits	205,898,700	202,066,100	Dec. 3,832,600
Legal tenders	41,461,200	40,724,000	Dec. 737,200

The following analysis of the above shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Feb. 21.	March 1.	Differences.
Specie	$15,046,900	$16,370,500	Inc. $1,323,600
Legal tenders	41,461,200	40,724,000	Dec. 737,200
Total reserve	$56,508,100	$57,094,500	Inc. $586,400
Circulation	27,573,100	27,601,300	Inc. 28,200
Deposits	205,898,700	202,066,100	Dec. 3,832,600
Total liabilities	$233,471,800	$229,667,400	Dec. $3,804,400
25 per cent. reserve	58,367,950	57,416,850	
Deficiency in legal reserve	$1,859,850	322,350	Dec. 1,537,500

In the early part of the week the stock market was dull and free from any interesting features; prices were kept up by the cliques in the different stocks, and holders were patiently waiting for "something to turn up," whereby they could rid themselves of their loads. Late in the day, on Wednesday, a movement, known in the street as a "raid," was made upon the market, directed chiefly towards Mr. Stockwell's specialties, Pacific Mail and Panama, although Western Union, Lake Shore, and Central and Hudson came in for their share of the hammering. For a few moments, Pacific Mail sold down 11 per cent. and Panama 25 per cent., the latter upon very few sales. The parties making the "raid" gave the attacked scarcely an opportunity to defend themselves, and offered stocks down 1 per cent. at a time. When the movement commenced the market was dull, many dealers and operators being absent from the street at that hour (3.30 P.M.), and, of course, for a time, the bears had their own way in the general market, until orders could be sent into the Exchange to support prices. Mr. Stockwell fared badly enough with his fancies, Pacific Mail, Panama, and Atlantic & Pacific preferred, and although they recovered somewhat from the extreme depression, the close of the week found Pacific Mail at 57¼ against 70½, the price on Monday; Panama 109 against 125 on Monday; and Atlantic & Pacific Preferred 23½ against 31 on Monday. The great trouble against which Mr. Stockwell had to contend was the unavailability of his stocks as collateral. Some time since, when operating for a decline in Pacific Mail, he directed his brokers not to advance money on the stock, and they accordingly threw it out of loans when offered to them as security. "The chickens came home to roost" this week. With some assistance from other operators, however, Mr. Stockwell met all his contracts, and, in spite of his losses, which are immense, he will undoubtedly soon be in a position to take better care of himself than he was last week, as his resources outside of Wall street are said to be great.

The annexed table of prices of the active stocks shows the course of the market very clearly for the week ending March 1:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	103⅝	104⅛	103¼	104⅛	101¼	103¼	101¼	103	102½	103½	103	103½	107,500
Lake Shore	94⅛	95½	93⅜	94⅜	90	94	91	93½	92⅝	93⅛	92⅝	93	341,000
Erie	64⅜	65½	64⅜	65	63⅜	65½	64⅜	65⅞	65½	66½	64⅜	66⅝	149,300
Union Pacific	34¼	34⅞	34	34½	33½	35¼	34¼	35⅛	34½	35	34½	35	74,500
Chi. & N. W.	.....	.....	.....	.....	80	81	81	81½	81¼	81½	81		2,300
Do. pfd.	90	90½	89¾	90¼	89	89¼	89¾	89⅞	89½	89⅜	89½		5,600
N. J. Central	101½		104		103	104	102	103¼	.....	.....	103¼	103½	800
Rock Island	113¼	114⅜	113½	114⅜	111⅜	113⅝	112½	113⅝	113	113⅝	113⅜	113½	2,500
Mil. & St. Paul	53	53¼	53	53¼	52⅜	53½	52½	53	53	53	53	53½	9,000
Do. pfd.	74⅜		74⅜	74⅞	74	74½	73½	73½	74	74	73½	73⅝	2,400
Wabash	73⅝	74¾	74	74½	7 ¾	74	72½	73½	73⅜	74½	73⅜	73¾	23,200
D. L. & Western	102		102¼	102½	102	102⅜	100¾	102	102		.....		2,.00
B. H. & Erie	9¾	9¾	9½	9⅝	9	9⅞	8	9½	8½	8⅞	8⅝	8¾	47,100
O. & M.	46½	46⅞	46⅜	46⅝	44½	46¼	44⅜	45⅜	45⅝	46½	45⅜	46	83,800
C. C. & I. C.	41⅜	41⅞	41¾	41⅞	34	41⅛	38⅜	40¼	39⅞	40⅞	40½	40⅜	46,500
W. U. Tel.	90⅜	92¼	90¼	91⅜	83½	91¼	86½	89⅝	88½	90½	89½	90½	316,400
Pacific Mail	67¼	70½	67⅛	69	58½	69⅜	58	63¼	55½	62½	56	58½	370,900

The Delaware & Hudson Canal Company is about to increase its share capital $5,000,000 by the distribution among stockholders of 50,000 shares upon the payment of par, one share being given for every three shares owned by stockholders of record April 1. This increase of stock is: "To provide means for the completion of the line of railroad now under construction on the west shore of Lake Champlain, and for other purposes connected with the extension of the business of the company."

The Erie disclosures made by F. A. Lane in his recent circular have been the topic of considerable comment in the street. The *Times* of Saturday, in speaking of the distribution of the money paid by English stockholders to aid in the overthrow of Gould as President of the Erie Railway Company, says:

"It is alleged by those who claim to know all the facts that Bischoffsheim and Goldschmidt actually paid out the sum of $750,000 in two payments, one for $300,000 and another for $450,000. The first amount was divided as follows:

F. A. Lane	$75,000
Henry Thompson	75,000
M. R. Simonds	50,000
I. D. White	25,000
H. N. Otis	25,000
John Hilton	25,000
Homer Ramsdell	25,000
Total	$300,000

"These payments secured the resignations of the necessary number of old directors, and resulted in Jay Gould being turned out of the presidency. But there were other claimants for services alleged to have been performed, so it was necessary to call for more money. The second payment of $450,000 was made after the *coup d'état*, and divided as follows:

Daniel Sickles	$125,000
George Crouch	50,000
James J. Gardiner	25,000
Wm. A. O'Doherty	25,000
F. A. Lane	25,000
Charles Day	25,000
S. L. M. Barlow	87,500
James McHenry	87,500
Total	$450,000

The offers of 5.20's to the Treasury on Wednesday amounted to $2,482,250, at 113.51 to 114.49. The price of gold at noon being 115, all the offers of bonds were under par in gold. Mr. Boutwell accepted only $1,000,000, paying for them in legal tenders, which was an improvement upon his course of the previous week, when payment was made one-third in legal tenders and two-thirds in National Bank notes. A larger offering of bonds might reasonably have been expected, considering the stringency of the money market, but this was doubtless prevented by the apprehension that sellers would have to take payment principally in National Bank notes.

In the market for Government bonds, although not very active, prices have been firm, and towards the close of the week improved in sympathy with the firmness of the gold premium and the higher cable quotations for 5.20's in London.

Southern State bonds have been dull, and the dealings chiefly confined to Tennessees, which were selling freely at the close of the week at 81. A better feeling exists in their regard by reason of a funding bill which is now before the Legislature, and will probably be passed this session. The Alabama Legislature has authorized the issue of $15,000,000 new bonds.

The gold market has remained strong all the week, the price fluctuating between 114¼ and 115⅛, finally closing on Saturday at 115.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 13, 1873.

The Week.

THE President in his second inaugural says that "the past four years, so far as I could control events, have been consumed in the effort to restore harmony, public credit, commerce, and all the arts of peace and progress"; expresses it as his firm conviction "that the civilized world is tending towards republicanism, or representative government," and that our own great "republic is destined to be the guiding star of all others"; that the negro ought to have "access to schools," and ought to be made to feel assured, "when he travels," "that his conduct will regulate the treatment and the fare he will receive"; that to the grant of these civil rights he himself "stands committed, so far as executive influence can avail." As to the Southern States, he declares them "rehabilitated," and says that no executive control is exercised in them that would not be exercised anywhere; so Chicago and Boston may contemplate New Orleans with new interest. With reference to the acquisition of foreign territory, the President believes in it, but will not recommend any more schemes looking that way, unless the people have first given them their support, because he believes that "our great Maker is preparing the world in his own good time to become one nation," with one common language, and with no armies or navies. The President promises to direct his efforts for the future to the restoration of good feeling, the return to specie payments, or, at least, the establishment of a fixed relation between gold and paper, the construction of "cheap routes of transit," the maintenance of friendly relations abroad, the re-establishment of our commerce and carrying trade, protection of such manufactures as can be "economically" produced here for the sake of a return to specie payments through a good condition of the balance of trade, the "elevation of labor," and humane attempts to civilize the Indians. He promises to reform the civil service, and, in conclusion, thanks the American people for vindicating him by a re-election against the abuse and slander he has suffered in their service. The most noticeable part of the address was perhaps that part in which the President speaks of the fact that ever since 1861 he has had laid upon him a great burden of responsibility, from which he shall be glad to escape. Or, rather, this is the passage at once most noticeable and most to be commended. Other parts of it are noticeable enough, and have called out much rather wondering comment.

The most significant feature of the inauguration festivities was the grand ball, attended by the President, his Cabinet, and the foreign ministers, and by citizens "without distinction of race, color, or previous condition." "Social equality," the President had just said publicly from the Capitol, "is not a subject to be legislated upon, nor shall I ask that anything be done to advance the social status of the colored man except to give him a fair chance to develop what there is good in him"; and these words, interpreted by his action in the evening of the same day, mark an epoch in the national feeling towards the colored race. They confirm the opinion which we expressed last week, that with the Forty-second Congress the war period ended for whites and blacks alike. It has taken eighty-four years to place the head of the Republic on a social equality with the servile population of 1789; but that being effected, to the lasting credit of the American people, there remains no excuse for the old party divisions, and little reason for supposing that on general questions of public policy there will be any greater unanimity among the blacks than among the whites. West Point cadets dancing in the same set with the wives of colored Congressmen; James Brooks renouncing his opposition to the colored race in return for the exculpatory vote of his colored colleagues; Cuban annexation urged not by white Democratic filibusters, but by colored Republicans in convention; colored Bostonians petitioning the Massachusetts Legislature to expunge its censure of Mr. Sumner for his battle-flag resolutions—such are some of the signs of the times to which this Congress of the transition has delivered us, giving us for a cue not the suppression of the Ku-klux, but the abolition of the franking privilege, the civil-service regulations, and the Crédit Mobilier investigation.

Nothing, we think, which any Congress has done for many years has excited as much public indignation as the vote of the "back pay" to themselves by the gentlemen of the Forty-second, who have just gone home. The obscurity of most of them will of course be a sufficient shield hereafter, and will enable them to enjoy the money in peace. But the offence differs little, if at all, from that of a president of a bank who should raise his own salary in the middle of his year, pay himself out of the till, and then resign, and set the directors at defiance. In fact, it is worse; because a bank president would know that he might be reached by the law, while Congressmen know they are safe against the only pursuit which for many of them has any terrors—that of criminal justice. One of the most striking results of the caucus system is that it has given us a class of "statesmen" on whom the opinion of the decent and moral elements of American society has absolutely no influence, and who revel in an unprecedented callousness. It is just possible, however, that a good many, if not all, of the minority who voted against the bill consider that they have thus discharged their obligations to virtue, and that they may now pocket the money along with the Butlerites. We trust constituencies will do all in their power to dissipate this delusion, and that the neighbors of returned legislators will make them understand that it is as disgraceful to take the money as to vote for it. Congress is not without historical precedent for its performance, to be sure; but, on the other hand, neither are the people without historical precedent for their disgust and their clamor, and their punishment of this kind of legislation.

The New York *Times* has made an analysis of the final vote which has some very instructive features. The back pay was voted by 99 against 97. Of these ninety-nine forty-seven were furnished by the South, out of a total of fifty-nine votes possessed by that section in the House, or nearly 80 per cent. Only four came from New England, and, as might have been expected from the later political history of that State, Massachusetts furnished every one of the four—Messrs. Ben. Butler, Oakes Ames, Ginery Twichell, and N. P. Banks, while New York City only furnished one, and he was the renowned Fernando Wood. The Senate majority, which still remains behind in Washington to bear the pitiless pelting of the storm, defends itself on the ground that the "back pay" from which mileage has to be deducted, was intended simply to equalize the salaries received by the members during the last session, so that those who come from places near the capital might get as much as those from a distance. The answer to this is, that the country wants neither "equity" from Congress, nor any attempts of a superfine kind to remove the inequalities of this wicked and suffering world, especially in money matters; that the law of the land, and the rules of old-fashioned honesty common among "plain people," are all that we care to have either House take as its guide in legislation; and that for anything more delicate than these we prefer to apply to the Courts or the Church.

The result of the finding of the Senate Committee favoring the pretensions of the McEnery Legislature, and the failure of the Senate to pronounce positively in favor of either of the two so-called governments in Louisiana, was that the McEnery party most fool-

ishly and wickedly resorted to violence on Wednesday the 5th inst., by collecting an armed but unorganized body of men whom they called "militia," and with whom they made an attack on the metropolitan police in the service of the Kellogg party. They succeeded in capturing a station-house and having a little fight the next day, in which a few men were killed and wounded, but they were worsted and finally dispersed or made prisoners—the United States troops coming into the field against them at the last. The attempt was made the more foolish and criminal by the fact, which was perfectly well known, that the Federal Government would support the Kellogg party, which would of course have made the victories of the "militia" idle. What reason the Federal Government has for supporting Kellogg we do not know, except that he is the Custom-house candidate. That it should continue to support him after the strong expression of opinion by the Senate Committee is doubtless very unfortunate, but it was useless to expect anything else in view of Casey's case, and the responsibility of the affair must undoubtedly be laid at the door of the Senate, which might have settled the question but did not. It can still do so by indirectly admitting McMillan, the McEnery candidate, to his seat—a step which the President would doubtless treat as a sufficient indication of his duty in the matter. The McEnery Legislature has in the meantime been dispersed, but a committee of the body has published a clear, temperate, and very able address to the people of the United States and of the State, quoting the conclusions of the Senate Committee, explaining the situation in Louisiana, and protesting with great earnestness and dignity against the mode in which Federal interference has been exercised. Passive resistance to the Kellogg government by refusal to pay taxes, and all other peaceful means, has been determined on, and we think the malcontents will have the sympathy and good wishes of all those in all parts of the country who wish to see Custom-house and Carpet-bag rule, and their attendant disorders, quickly and for ever ended.

Mr. Caleb Cushing is reported to be the author of a plea in behalf of Senator Caldwell which appears to be finding some favor, and of which, should it be successful, the result would be in substance this: A Senator-elect presents his credentials, which are regular, is sworn in, and becomes a member of the Senate. The Senate by-and-by hears that the new Senator bought his way into his seat, and the new Senator requests a committee of investigation. The committee make a report which satisfies the Senate that the charge is sustained. But when all this is done, nothing is done, and the man is, in spite of it, a Senator. For the State Legislature cannot invalidate his credentials; it exhausts its power when its vote has made him a Senator; thenceforth the Senate has jurisdiction as against the State. Nor can the Senate touch him; for, no matter whether he has bribed State legislators or not, it was the State acting in its sovereign capacity that gave him his credentials, and the Senate must not go behind the State's action, ignorant though that may have been. "A careful canvass of the Senate makes it doubtful," we are told, "if the report of the committee will be sustained"; but how much of this dubiety is caused by Mr. Cushing's argumentation we are not informed. Messrs. Logan, Anthony, and Carpenter are said to be in doubt if the evidence is sufficient; some Democratic Senators are said to be in doubt about their legal right to pass Mr. Morton's resolution (declaring Mr. Caldwell "not duly and legally elected"); and some honorable gentlemen have their doubts if Mr. Caldwell, having been proved to have bought only two legislators, whereas he had a majority of twenty odd, is not "legally elected," and a nice enough man for Senator anyhow. As for the public opinion on this matter, there is no doubt anywhere of what that is—at least among a sufficiently large section of the public to make all this very dismal work for somebody before very long. The cases of Judge Durell and Judge Sherman also are, we trust, being borne in mind by a certain number of people.

Mr. Schuyler Colfax has had "an ovation" from his fellow-citizens at South Bend, who received him with great rejoicings; and, after hearing at a public meeting his account of his connection with the Crédit Mobilier affair, passed a resolution expressing "undiminished confidence in his honor and integrity both as a public man and as a private citizen," and styling him "a model statesman, temperate and faithful to principles." Mr. Colfax in his speech relied for his defence mainly on the evidence which Oakes Ames first gave, and on the "strong impression" of the cashier of the Sergeant-at-Arms that he paid the "S. C." check to Ames himself. Mr. Colfax gets out of the South Bend speech during the campaign by laying stress on the words "gave or offered to give," which, however, he did not emphasize in the speech, and which he used with such a context as to leave the impression on the public mind that he had never held Crédit Mobilier stock in any manner whatever. We wish, too, he had explained in some satisfactory manner the extraordinary evidence in which he described his own surprise and that of his family at receiving the $1,000 bill from Nesbitt, as a person who was "almost an entire stranger to him," when the facts were, as he afterwards confessed, that Nesbitt was anything but a stranger to him; that he had received money from him previously, and had relations with him which made the coming of the $1,000 bill a by no means startling occurrence. We should like very much to know what Mr. Colfax's notion of credibility is, but, having heard it, we should like to have him close his lips on the subject of Crédit Mobilier stock for ever. He has carried off from Washington a letter from the President, expressing the strongest confidence in his integrity, which would, as the *Tribune* points out, have been of some value if the President had not also written Mr. Tom Murphy a letter expressive of affectionate admiration.

Mr. Ames's friends are going, we believe, to give him a dinner and reception at Boston, and express, we suppose, undiminished confidence in his integrity, and hold him up as another "model statesman." As the people of Easton are just as upright, pious, and patriotic as the people of South Bend, and as, if Ames is a "model statesman," Colfax is a great rascal, and *vice versâ*, the rest of the community is plunged in perplexity by these testimonials, somewhat like that created by the practice of singing *Te Deums* over battles by hostile armies. The only way we know of avoiding this perplexity, in the present condition of public morals, is by hammering away at vice in the abstract, and avoiding all censure of vicious men. Vice has no friends, and everybody is therefore willing to attack it; but a vicious man is always surrounded by "friends" who would not "withdraw their confidence" from him if they saw him riding on a broomstick in the air in company with a black goat.

The society calling itself the National Association, which recently closed its annual convention in this city, has called forth more comment this year than ever before, but the approval that it secures appears to be in an inverse ratio to the attention it attracts. It has at its head a Justice of the Supreme Court, and numbers of other gentlemen of ability and repute; its motive is seen to be excellent, and its object on the face of it as good; but it meets with slight success. It proposes to secure, as a Sixteenth Amendment, we suppose, a change in the Constitution acknowledging that "Almighty God is the author of the nation's existence, and the ultimate source of its authority, that Jesus Christ is its ruler, and that the Bible is the fountain of its laws." This, it will be seen, would abrogate that part of the Sixth Article which, after providing that certain public servants shall make oath or affirmation to support the Constitution, provides that "no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States." The reasons why the abrogation of this provision will in all probability never be made are many, but two which will be efficiently operative are these, one of them influential in the religious world (as distinguished from the secular) and the other operative in both: many

religious persons will object to basing the reverence for divine things upon the law of the land, or any appearance of calling force, upon which law rests, to the propagation of religion. Secondly, this proposed Sixteenth Amendment is generally felt to be the first Amendment which instead of extending and advancing the genius of our institutions goes against it, diminishing the rights of the individual and limiting a freedom which has not as yet been found harmful. The new amendment would disqualify for holding United States offices of whatsoever kind all Jews; a majority of Unitarians; all Roman Catholics who believe that the Bible without tradition and an apostolic church as its interpreters is a guide speaking in an unknown tongue; all deists and other unbelievers of various kinds; all future believers seeking religious certitude, but as yet without definite result, and very many other persons of tender consciences, who for one reason and another would hesitate at taking comprehensive oaths relating to so delicate and difficult a subject. The proportion of the population who would be thus disqualified is very large. Enough would be left to fill the offices, however. Mr. Harlan would take the oath, for instance; so would Mr. Jay Gould.

Mr. Gladstone has introduced a bill into the House of Commons for settling the much vexed question of Irish university education, and some of its provisions, in the nature of concessions to the Catholics, are perhaps among the most extraordinary attempts at religious equality ever ventured on. The university is not only forbidden to examine in theology, or to appoint any professor or teacher in theology, modern history, or moral or mental philosophy (all of which fields the Church reserves to herself), but "to attach any disqualification to any candidate in any examination, by reason of his adopting in modern history, moral or mental philosophy, *law*, *medicine*, or any other branch of learning, any particular theory in preference to any other theory." The *Pall Mall Gazette* points out that this is really requiring the examiner to confess that he knows no more about the subject on which he examines than the candidate, and suggests, in illustration of its absurdity, the possibility of a medical student's propounding the theory that the view of the condition of the blood held by the proprietor of Morrison's pills was the true one. It would be a convenience, however, in some way—as it would enable homœopathic and allopathic doctors to live in peace; but then it would offer a chance to quacks of all kinds to get themselves into good and regular standing, such as they have never had before in the history of learning. In this country a university thus organized would, for instance, be pretty sure to have to examine Mr. Stephen Pearl Andrews in "Pantarchy," a subject in which he would necessarily receive the highest marks, as the examiner could never follow him. The provision is worth notice as a sign of the working of the widespread tendency to acknowledge not only that one man is as good as another, but that one man knows as much as another, and that, therefore, all examination is an arrogant and offensive process, and unrepublican to boot, inasmuch as it may place a citizen under the painful and humiliating necessity of confessing his ignorance. The House of Commons has rejected the bill.

The reorganization of the courts in England proposed by the Lord Chancellor, to which our correspondent makes allusion, consists in converting the four courts, Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, and Chancery, into one "High Court," having four divisions, among which the judges will be divided, but the Lord Chief-Justice will be president of the whole. Over this there will be one Court of Appeal, composed of the Lord-Chancellor, the presidents of the four divisions of the High Court, together with the judicial members of the Privy Council, the Lords-Justices, and three other judges, and this will exercise the appellate jurisdiction now lodged in the House of Lords in all except ecclesiastical, Scotch, and Irish cases. The exclusion of these is due to the fear, as regards the first, of exciting tremendous opposition to the whole scheme among churchmen, and, as regards the other two, to the fact that to make the Scotch and Irish appeal to an English court in which they are not represented, instead of to a legislative body in which they are represented, would be treated as a violation of the compacts made at the time of the legislative union, and an outrage on whatever is left of their national feeling; but that the jurisdiction of the House of Lords will long survive, even as to their cases, it is difficult to believe. One argument used by Lord Selborne in the debate on the constitution of the Court of Appeal, is worth attention here as well as in England, viz.: That no matter how many appeals you allow, litigants will avail themselves of them all, and never be satisfied till they have reached the last resort. Therefore, when you have made your court below as good as you can, it is best to present the suitor with his last chance, the minute he comes out of it, but into this chance you ought to put all the learning and integrity you can command.

The "coal famine," however, is the problem which in England overshadows all others, and seems as far from solution as ever. Its main facts are that, according to the best estimates, the coal-fields of England will only supply 80,000 millions of tons more; that these are now being used up at the rate of 110,000,000 tons a year, and with such waste that it is estimated that the same amount of work might be done with 80,000,000 tons, while the annual increase in consumption has for a good while back been 3,000,000 tons; that at this rate of increase the industrial resources of England would be exhausted and the decline of the empire precipitated in 125 years from this time, inasmuch as it is not believed that more than 40,000 millions of tons is sufficiently accessible or of sufficiently good quality to maintain her present industrial efficiency; that in the meantime the price of coal has advanced during the past year $2 per ton, which is calculated as being the equivalent of an increase of taxation to the amount of $220,000,000 annually, and yet the diminution of production is only estimated at about five per cent. This diminution is partly due to diminished labor on the part of the men, short hours and increased pay having unhappily not resulted in all the good that was anticipated, though this cause will not account for the whole of the rise in price. *That* has been brought about in the main by panic, followed by combination among the dealers. In short, there are said now to be "coal rings" in the large cities, and it is feared that they will be found before long among the great coal-owners; there is already talk of Government seizure of the coal-fields as a supreme measure of public safety, and the old British grate is threatened with disappearance before the march of the dismal and repulsive but conquering stove. However, on motion of Mr. Mundella, a Committee has been appointed by the House of Commons to enquire into the whole matter.

The news from Spain is somewhat better. The reports of Carlist successes seem to have been exaggerated, and no serious opposition to the authority of the republic has yet been offered, though great disorganization plainly prevails all over the kingdom, and military officers are apparently occupied rather with keeping the army from going to pieces than with preparing it for the support of the new government. However, all delay unmarked by overwhelming disorder tells in favor of the new order of things. A bill was proposed by President Figueras last week, providing for the dissolution of the Cortes, and convoking a Constitutional Assembly, and, after reference to a committee, was favorably reported, and the Cortes agreed on Monday to take it into consideration, by a vote of 186 to 19. This is so far a triumph for the Ministry, but it has brought them face to face with the greatest difficulty of all, whether the new republic shall be federal or "one and indivisible," as the French say. The Moderates, headed by Castelar, are federalists, and with good reason, the old provincial organization of Spain being still strong and healthy. But then the fiercest republicans are Unitarians, and it is to be feared that there will be a good deal of trouble before the two parties come to terms, particularly as the Unitarians belong to a school of politicians who look on all compromise or postponement as base.

POLITICAL RESPONSIBILITY.

THE melancholy spectacle of a nation robbed by its own representatives, and for their own individual profit, without any pretext of reason or right, and while the press of the country of all political shades is with singular unanimity thundering against the act, must certainly awaken enquiry in every reflecting mind as to the power which is to be held responsible for the outrage.

A single act of misgovernment which takes from the Treasury in round numbers one million six hundred and fifty thousand dollars, without the smallest consideration having been received for it, is unquestionably something about which in ordinary times we might complain; but when this large amount is voted directly and openly into the pockets of the members of Congress, one cannot help asking, What is there to prevent it from being done again, and why cannot the amount be increased tenfold? If General Washington or General Jackson had been President on the 3d of March, 1873, all the world knows that the measure would have come back to Congress with a stern message of disapproval, and that coupling it with an increase of the Presidential salary would have only rendered more certain the Presidential veto. If General Grant had done so, it would have been worth to him more than $100,000—raising him in the opinion of his countrymen at a point where his character is supposed to lack elevation, and furnishing the sharp, incisive, surgical treatment that the nature of the case certainly required. One can easily conceive how jubilant the country would now be if these legislative Fisks and Goulds were coming home covered with the disgrace of the attempt and the ridicule of the defeat. If twenty Republicans, in either the Senate or the House, had resolutely and honestly said to the others, "This retroactive increase of your own salaries shall not pass, let the consequences to the Appropriation Bill be what they may," the measure would have been dropped. As it is, we have the practical result that a Republican House, Senate, and President have united against the unmistakable wishes of the entire country to give this iniquity the form and sanction of law.

But it is not only in the national legislature that we see the law-making power in the same manner acting as though it were utterly irresponsible to the body of society which has constituted it. The Legislatures of New York and New Jersey are now a sufficient illustration of the same thing. With the same impunity they seem able to do precisely what they should not, and to leave undone precisely that which they were elected to do. With such a state of things existing, can it be said we are governed by our own representatives; and while we allow this state of things to continue, can it be believed that we know where the proper responsibility begins or ends?

American society is now organized politically upon the principle that the majority governs. It gives the control to the majority almost absolutely, and with little regard to the representation of the minority. But, practically, society does not consist of a number of individuals going to the polls, each philosophically doing precisely what he thinks best for the welfare of the country, irrespective of all other men. On the contrary, it divides itself into two political parties—and a political party is not a mere assemblage of individuals, but a singular entity, having its history, traditions, instincts, and prejudices as well as principles and objects. Its members do not subscribe to any constitution or sign any roll, nor give any obligations or pledges, nor receive any pass-word, and yet with the larger part of them there is a sense of membership and obligation much stronger than exists in many formally constituted societies and clubs. In the earlier days of the country, political parties were held to strict accountability for the action of their agents, whether those agents were Congressmen or Presidents, legislators or governors, and this sense of accountability certainly pervaded the masses as well as the representatives. That a party could get rid of this accountability by passing resolutions, and could then re-elect the same men or others equally bad to office, would have been regarded as preposterously absurd. The standard of political morality was not always of the highest, but there was never the extraordinary falling away from the standard which we now see wherever we choose to look. Mr. Cragin said in the Senate that this gratuity voted by Congressmen to themselves would cost the Republican party the States of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. If the statement were true, if the reprehensible conduct of the Republican party in Congress were to be followed by the immediate punishment of the loss of three Republican States, we all know that even the professional politician would find it necessary to have a conscience. The Republican Congress, in fact, proceeded to do as it chose because it felt pretty well assured that no immediate harm would befall the party. It is indeed almost ludicrous to see how solidly the representatives from those States, senators and representatives, Republicans and Democrats, went against the measure. Mr. Dawes also put himself upon record as against it, but we do not observe that he devoted to the subject any of his usual invectives against extravagance where the extravagance benefits other people than himself, or that he resorted to any of those "parliamentary tactics" which prolonged experience has placed at his command, and which have defeated a great many better measures, and might, with great certainty be it said, have defeated this one. Nevertheless, Mr. Dawes and all the other gentlemen appearing "right on the record" can go back with unblushing faces to the intelligent people of New England, and claim for themselves and their party continued confidence and support, and throw the blame on certain individuals who happened to be in Congress at the time.

The idea that we would impress upon the minds of all thoughtful and conscientious citizens is, that political power carries with it political responsibility, and that we should not grant the one without exacting the other. Thoughtful and conscientious men are, it is true, but a small part of the community, but nevertheless they hold, as between the two parties, the balance of power. There is no party yet in this country strong enough to succeed without them. During the past eight years this thinking element of the country has not been sleeping, but has been singularly held in abeyance. The great issues of the war have led thinking and conscientious men to regard Republican derelictions as of comparatively little consequence, and the extraordinary folly of the Democratic party has forced them to the conclusion again and again that it was not to be trusted. At all times the party in power has been understood to merit punishment, but at no time has it appeared as if punishment could be administered without too great a risk being run. It was impossible for such men in 1868 to allow a party to succeed which nominated General Blair immediately after and as a reward for his impudent and incendiary letter. It was also impossible for them during the last election to put any confidence in a party whose leaders could enter into such a compact as brought them to the support of Mr. Greeley. And the results of these two elections have apparently led the Republican politician to believe that he can now do anything without injuring his party, and that upon its continued flood-tides of success he will be pretty surely floated into place. With the departure of the issues of the war, and the increased audacity of the professional politician, and the frightful prevalence of public corruption, more now depends than ever before upon those who do not make politics a trade, and who can rise above prejudice or discipline to the just contemplation of the fact that a party is but the means, and the welfare of society the end, of political efforts.

GENERAL GRANT'S GOOD FORTUNE.

IN looking over the newspaper criticism which the beginning of General Grant's second term and his inaugural address have brought out, we have been more struck by its moderation of tone than by anything else. Any one who remembers the fury of last summer's campaign might be pardoned for expecting something in the way of editorial writing very different from the rather qualified expressions of approval from the Republican, and rather qualified

expressions of disapproval from the Liberal-Republican, Democratic, and Reform organs, which have appeared within the last ten days.

The picture drawn of General Grant last summer by his supporters in the press was that of the good citizen-soldier, the great-hearted patriot, the unselfish devotee of equal rights, purity, reform, and progress. He had overcome the greatest rebellion against the greatest government of the greatest country in the greatest age the world had ever seen. He had peacefully disbanded the greatest army of modern times, amid the acclamations of the most law-abiding people on the face of the earth, and had been called by an unprecedentedly unanimous shout to administer the affairs of this people for them. He had done it well. He had no policy opposed to the will of the people; he had reduced the national debt; he had lightened taxation; he had maintained order in the South. On the other hand, the portrait of him drawn by those journalists who supported the nominee of the Cincinnati Convention was something frightful. In their minds, Grant in the nineteenth century was the copy of Nero or Caligula in the days of imperial Rome—perhaps better still of Dionysius of Syracuse, with selected vices from the characters of such modern reprobates as Napoleon, Aaron Burr, Andrew Johnson, the members of the House of Stuart, and the New York Ring. Grant the centralizer was depicted as sitting, stupid with drink, in the White House at Washington, surrounded by his military staff, issuing orders enforced all over the country by the bayonets of a licentious soldiery. In each of the Southern States, and in some of the Northern, he had his satraps, who, under cover of preserving the country from domestic violence, were in reality overriding its laws, and subjugating its unhappy people. Congress, to be sure, still met, and State legislatures still enacted laws, but no law which came in conflict with his nefarious designs was any longer enforced. Not only had he an army of paid veteran soldiers at his back, but he had, by skilful manœuvres, gained over the vast body of the civil service, which was now officered and governed by his relatives and personal adherents, and which was dependent on his favor for its daily bread. In short, when the managers of the Philadelphia Convention unrolled their theatrical scene, displaying General Grant as the "man on horseback," not a Liberal-Republican journalist in the country but felt his temples throb with shame and rage, as he thought (and wrote) how, by corruption, nepotism, and lawless tyranny, this despot had made himself master of a once free country. To be sure, the picture was rendered a little hazy by the fact that these same editors described General Grant at the same time as an utter ignoramus, an account which seemed inconsistent with what they said of his success as a scheming villain, but then consistency last summer was looked on with some suspicion and distrust.

Six months have gone by, and the scene has wonderfully changed. The despot has completed his work and riveted our chains, and the Second Washington has again, by the unanimous voice of the people, been called upon to administer its affairs; but we hear very little now of Second Washingtons or of men on horseback. There is, so far as we can judge, a very general disposition throughout the country, on the part of those who supported the Cincinnati candidate in the late campaign, to treat his Administration during the next four years, if not with that confidence which was accorded him when he first took the office, and we all thought he was going to reform politics, and put an end to the reign of the politicians, and bring in a period of statesmanship and good government, at least with a non-partisan and independent temper. On the other hand, the laudation of the Republican press is by no means of the wholesale kind of which we had so much a little while ago. The following paragraph, which we take from the Albany *Express* of the 4th instant, is very different from the "first in peace, first in war, first in the hearts of his countrymen" sort of criticism of the campaign:

"Gen. Grant was not our first choice for President—that all our readers know; but we know him to be a plain, unostentatious, well-meaning citizen, a faithful soldier, and, as we believe, an honest man. Many a worse and many a feebler man has taken the official oath before the Chief-Justice on the 4th day of March in years gone by. We have faith in President Grant. He means well. He has learned much during his first Presidential term. He may be obstinate—he may have some crude notions of his own—but we think he is honest through and through, and that he will endeavor to give to the country a wise, pacific, and successful administration."

Our own opinion of General Grant our readers do not need to be told. He has been peculiarly unfortunate in being placed at the head of an Administration which has served as a bridge over the chasm dividing the old from the new in American politics—dividing the period which found its crisis in a civil war from the period of discussion, of reconstruction, of reorganization in which we find ourselves. He has been unfortunate, too, in having been selected for this work at a time when the Executive had by force of circumstances and accident been reduced to the position of a secondary force in the Government, the Administration having come to be regarded rather as the agent of the party for the time being, than one of the three theoretical co-ordinate powers. If General Grant had been, as so many persons thought he was five years ago, a political genius, he would probably have succeeded by this time by slow degrees in elevating himself to the position of a leader in that reform movement in which we have always been told he feels such a deep interest, but which in reality he does not understand.

Nevertheless, it must be confessed that, speaking after the manner of men, the career of General Grant has been wonderfully lucky. When we remember that twelve years ago he was an utterly unknown man, and that for those twelve years (beginning with the victories at Fort Henry and Fort Donelson) he has been on the whole the most constantly conspicuous and successful man in public life in the world, having triumphed over his enemies in the field, and signally defeated his enemies in contests quite as difficult and intricate as any to which war can give rise, having accomplished everything he has seriously undertaken (for even the San Domingo scheme has ended in a way which must be peculiarly gratifying to him), and having maintained throughout his career a position of dignity and reserve which inspires even his bitterest enemies in their saner moments with respect, certainly we cannot help feeling that unpartisan pleasure which the rapid and melodramatic rise of any member of the human race to power and position always excites in his fellows. It may be, and we hope it will be, that four years hence we may have something better than General Grant; but meantime a little non-moral pleasure may be taken, even by Reformers, in the unexampled success of a man who is after all one of our own family, and whose success, though hardly the success of Reform, is certainly success of no ordinary kind.

General Grant, in fact, stands to-day in the eyes of France, England, Russia, and Germany as the head of a large and powerful people, chosen in the teeth of charges of the gravest character, affecting not only his political but his personal reputation, by a nearly unanimous vote. Besides this, he comes for a second time into office, after an unusually bitter campaign, which has worn out and disgusted the whole country, during which he has maintained a dignified and unbroken silence. He has had the good fortune—the unusual good fortune—to see the very men who were originally most opposed to him forced to his support by their own mistakes; and he comes into office for the second and last time confident that he has seen the worst of the conflict, and that however during the next four years he may offend the public, he at least will obtain at the end of his term that retirement and freedom from responsibility for which, as he quite pathetically says in his inaugural address, he so much longs.

THE FOSTER CASE.

WE have said nothing about the Foster case hitherto, because we did not know in what position it stood, or what Governor Dix had done or proposed to do about it. What, at this writing, he is asked to do, but we hope and believe he will not do, is to commute the sentence to one of imprisonment for life; and the point in the affair to which we think the public attention ought to be especially directed is the fact that this result,

if reached, will have been reached through a process which amounts substantially to a retrial of the case, before a new tribunal which acts not simply on legal considerations, but on considerations of all kinds. Foster, late one night, while riding on the front platform of a Broadway car, behaved in a very insulting manner to a lady passenger, by keeping the door open and staring her out of countenance. Her escort, Mr. Putnam, remonstrated two or three times, with vehemence, and was then told by Foster that "he would ride as far as he did," and "give him hell" when he got out. He accordingly did ride in silence and apparently in waiting, for sixteen blocks, or three-quarters of a mile, and on Mr. Putnam's assisting the lady to alight, seized the car-hook and struck him with it on the back of the head with such violence as to fracture his skull and kill him. The prisoner was duly tried and found guilty of murder in the first degree, but was recommended to mercy by the jury. His case was carried to the Court of Appeals upon the usual profuse bill of exceptions, and all the points made in his favor, especially the objections to the Judge's charge, were solemnly reviewed by that tribunal and decided against him. An application was then made to the Governor to commute his sentence, and, should the Governor comply, the criminal will, owing to the peculiar way in which the petition is supported, have to all intents and purposes the benefit of a new trial, and this before a tribunal unknown to the Constitution and the laws.

The Governor, it would appear, inclines to the opinion that Foster ought to be hanged, so he is asked practically to relegate the matter to the judgment of a body of persons made up in this way: the widow of the murdered man; eleven of the persons who formed the jury in the trial, but each separately in his own home; a man named Hoffmann, who knew one of the jurors, now deceased, and had a talk with him before his death; William M. Evarts, a leading lawyer, practising at the bar; a judge of the Court of Appeals; a late Commissioner of the Court of Appeals; three lawyers in active commercial practice at the bar; a judge of the Supreme Court; an ex-District-Attorney and divers other lawyers; thirty men in various callings who knew the prisoner for various periods; a clergyman who "knew him familiarly from his childhood"; the prisoner's family physician; the clergyman whose church the prisoner's family attend; a gentleman who knew him "since he was a boy"; another who was a playmate of the prisoner when a boy; a man who was once Sheriff of this city; the president of a bank; ditto of a savings-bank; the publisher of a weekly paper; the wardens and other officers of the City Prison; a surgeon who thought Putnam might have recovered if he had received more prompt attention, and a surgeon who first saw him after the blow. We ought to add that this is only a portion of the court, but it is the principal portion. Not one of these persons, except those who served on the jury, professes to have been present at the trial or to have heard the evidence. They are all satisfied, however, that the prisoner is only guilty of murder in the second degree, and some think only of manslaughter. Most of them reach this conclusion through their knowledge of Foster's previous character, which was "mild and inoffensive." In fact, all of them, except one, represent him as a very estimable young man, almost as unlikely to commit murder in *the first degree* as Dr. William Adams or Mr. Peter Cooper. A few confess that he *might* have killed a man, but not with premeditation. Some curious light is thrown on their deliverances, however, and especially on those of the clergymen, by the admission made by Mr. Godfrey Gunther of the fact, which was well known after the crime was committed, but which the public has now forgotten or the friends of the prisoner are trying to cover up, that Foster was "wild, reckless, and independent," or, in other words, a dissipated man, who followed no regular occupation, and who, sooner than ask assistance from his father, got a place as conductor on a street-car. This fact is of considerable importance in two ways. In the first place, it shows how disingenuous is the surprise expressed by the ministers that Foster should have been out at night and quarrelsome; in the second, it shows that the car-hook was to him a familiar weapon, and not something snatched up in a hot impulse. *Moreover, it was shown in evidence that he went out and ascertained that the hook was there before Mr. Putnam prepared to leave the car.* The passage in Dr. Tyng's letter on this point is very discreditable. The plain truth is that Foster's antecedents were such as to render this close to his career not improbable.

Now, if it is proper for the Governor, on the verdict of a body thus composed, to set aside the result of a trial in the Supreme Court as of no value, these among other questions will, we hope, present themselves to everybody's mind: What is the use of trying murderers in the Supreme Court at all? The rule of law which requires the judge, jury, witnesses, and counsel to conduct the investigation in public, and in the presence of each other, is plainly of no value if the case can be sifted, and even the degree of the prisoner's guilt fixed, just as well by an indeterminate body of persons out of doors who have never heard the evidence, or the arguments, or the charge. What, too, is the use of keeping the jury together from day to day, and obliging them to act under the instruction of the Court, if they can revise or explain away their verdict two years or any time afterwards in their own homes, orally or by letter, and if even a dead juror can have his explanation sent in by a surviving friend? What is the use of the judge who tries the case, and of the Court of last resort which passes on his rulings, if both can be effectively revised by volunteer lawyers not charged with judicial functions at all, or acting under none of the ordinary guarantees of judicial fairness and independence? If, for instance, Governor Dix must not mind what Judge Brady said, but ought to mind what Mr. Evarts or ex-Commissioner Leonard says, what is the use of Judge Brady?

What, also, let us ask, is the use of rules of procedure, if the opinions submitted to Governor Dix justify him in changing a case of murder in the first degree to one of murder in the second degree? The same warrant would also justify him in making it manslaughter in the first, second, or fourth degree, and commuting the punishment of death to one month's imprisonment. If a promiscuous crowd of persons outside can change the effect of a verdict at all, they can change it indefinitely. Moreover, the rules of evidence under which cases of murder are tried are very stringent. The things which either prosecutor or prisoner is allowed to prove or disprove are very carefully marked out, either by statute or precedent, with the view of guarding the minds of the jury from every influence likely to divert their attention from certain points declared by law to be the only points in the controversy. No prisoner, for instance, would be allowed to produce his mother or wife, and cause her to make an impassioned appeal to the jurymen, because this would be an admission that a man's legal responsibility depended not on the possession of the power of distinguishing between right and wrong, but on his capacity or that of his friends for moving the feelings of his judges. The law holds, or has held hitherto, that a man with a wife and "four interesting children" is as much bound to refrain from theft or homicide as a bachelor or a widower. But what is the use of these rules if the prisoner's case can at any time before sentence be submitted to a crowd, and his fate be decided by every conceivable consideration—his early piety, the character of his family, the feelings of his old playmates, the thinness of his victim's skull, and so on? If these are valid considerations for Governor Dix now, ought they not to have been brought forward in court; and, if they affect now his action, is not this the real trial which is now going on in the newspapers, and was not that which took place two years ago in the Oyer and Terminer a ghastly farce?

But we shall be asked, Ought not the Governor to pay heed to the jury's recommendation to mercy? That depends; a recommendation of this sort is an appeal to executive discretion, and this discretion ought to be exercised with due regard to the public welfare as well as to the facts of the case. The practice of making these recommendations took its rise under a state of things which has no parallel here. It arose when murder was not classified as it is

with us, and when a recommendation to mercy was therefore the only mode of marking the jury's estimate of the degree of the prisoner's guilt. A recommendation to mercy attached by a New York jury to a verdict of murder in the first degree, with the view of procuring the punishment of the second degree only, is an absurdity which no governor ought to heed. It is like the verdict of "not guilty—but don't do it again." His answer to it is simple enough. "If you meant murder in the second degree, you ought to have said so. If what you seek by your recommendation be, as I suspect, to make me the instrument of satisfying the scruples of some of you as to capital punishment for wilful murder, you must look elsewhere. I shall not play any part in a subterfuge of this kind; as long as the law stands as it does at present, I shall carry it out." There is one other reason, and not less strong, why these recommendations do not deserve as much attention as some people think, and that is, that the "mercy" they were originally aimed at is unknown in the United States. A governor's "mercy" is not the king's "mercy" of the common law. The king's mercy was pure prerogative—that is, it was grace flowing from the royal breast as from a fountain, which the sovereign was not bound to justify or give reasons for, and which he might exercise without the slightest reference to the public welfare. To this a jury might appeal in pure compassion or caprice; but Governor Dix possesses no such faculty or endowment. He is the minister of the law and the creature of the law, and if he commutes he is bound to give the reason why; and that reason should either be that the public safety does not need the example, which is, unhappily, not true in the present case, or that, though the murder was wilful, there was behind it strong provocation, which, unhappily, is also not true in the present case.

As regards the stress laid by Foster's friends on the requirement of the law that "the killing shall be done with intent to murder," it is proper to say that there are only two ways of getting at a man's intentions—through his declarations and through his actions. We presume our Sentimentalists have not yet got quite so far on their road as to ask us to accept as proof a man's own account of his motives in committing a homicide. If Foster's threats, his silent waiting, and his subsequent use of an iron bar, with the existence and power of which his calling had made him familiar, to strike his victim on the head stealthily, do not furnish proof of intent to kill, then such intent can rarely be proved, and the great majority of homicides committed in this city will escape with slight punishments. Mr. Evarts's extraordinary bit of technicality about the exclusion of the car-hook from the class of "deadly weapons," if accepted by courts and juries, will simply make it necessary to use a cart-rung, an iron pot, a stone pitcher, or a pickaxe, or any *unusual* weapon, in the work of slaughter, to reduce all homicides to the second degree. The young fellow who was hung the other day in Brooklyn for running out of a tavern and beating a policeman's brains out in drunken frolic with sticks and stones, had no such pleas produced on his behalf.

Finally, we would warn the Governor that Foster's "drunkenness" was a condition in which a very large proportion of the roughs of this city pass their evenings all the year round—that is, a condition in which just drink enough has been taken to excite their quarrelsomeness, diminish their caution, and inflame their lust, but not enough to weaken their wills or diminish their muscular power. In this condition they rove about the city from one place of entertainment to another, breathing out threatenings and slaughter. If the Governor of this State shall, in the Foster case, make public proclamation that he considers a man's deliberate entrance into this condition sufficient to secure him even partial release from legal and moral responsibility, then we say deliberately that a great blow will have been struck, not simply at individual security against violence, but at the very foundations of public order. We still have confidence that he will not do this thing, that he at least has preserved intact the healthy moral and mental perceptions of a better time, when thieves ran away from the police, and when murderers did not seek refuge in jail, when the bench was a terror to evil-doers, and when there were limits to what an advocate would do to save a scoundrel from his deserts.

THE LOUISIANA DEBATE IN THE SENATE.

WASHINGTON, March 8.

ON the whole, this Crédit Mobilier business has left a very depressed feeling behind it among the sagacious men of the Republican party. As one of them said to me: Whether the party can survive what has happened already, I do not know; but I am sure it cannot survive another such thing. And I fear there are worse things in store for us." It is not only the rottenness of the concern which has thus become apparent, but it is the utter inability of the party to deal with such matters. The Crédit Mobilier Committee of the Senate, presided over by Mr. Morrill of Maine, has indeed surprised everybody here by doing its duty. But nobody believes that a resolution to expel Mr. Patterson can pass the Senate, and it would seem almost absurd that it should when a report whitewashing such a character as Senator Clayton, of Arkansas, is at the same time presented to the Senate. Everybody feels that things are entirely out of joint, and that something new must come. And as the average politician in and out of Congress lives and moves and has his being only in his party, he looks into the future with a sort of distressed stare, and in the meantime staggers to and fro as a gust of wind from this or that side may strike him.

Another symptom of impending dissolution appeared in the Senate when the Louisiana case was up. The majority of the Committee on Privileges and Elections under Mr. Carpenter's lead had reported in favor of ordering a new election in Louisiana under the direction of the Federal authorities. While the report was illogical in its conclusions—for it admitted that the McEnery government is the government *de jure* in that State, which would preclude a new election under Federal authority as a new act of usurpation—it was at the same time remarkably fair and candid in its statements of fact. It denounced Judge Durell's interference as gross usurpation, as utterly subversive of all constitutional principles, and the Kellogg government as a palpable fraud, without a shadow of legal existence. Mr. Morton dissented from the majority, and insisted upon the recognition of the Kellogg government, fraud or no fraud, usurpation or no usurpation. Mr. Trumbull, according to the logic and the law of the case, advocated the recognition of the government headed by McEnery. The President sent a message to Congress inviting action in the case, and declaring at the same time that he would continue to sustain Kellogg unless otherwise instructed by Congress—one of those demonstrations of blind obstinacy so characteristic of this Administration. This message and the threatening news from Louisiana induced Mr. Carpenter to insist upon the immediate consideration of his report and bill. He made a very brilliant speech in its defence, attacking the Durell usurpation and the Kellogg fraud, and thundering at Mr. Morton and that class of extreme partisans led by him in so effective a style as to create the impression that some good might possibly still come from Mr. Carpenter. The debate lasted a whole day and night, and when finally a vote was reached, Mr. Carpenter, in the face of his brilliant invectives, voted for an amendment introduced by his colleague, Mr. Howe, by which the same Kellogg government which he had denounced as a fraud and usurpation with such indignant eloquence was virtually recognized. This tergiversation decided the fate of the bill. The amendment was adopted by Mr. Carpenter's vote, and the bill lost the votes of those who would not under any circumstances recognize the Kellogg government, and failed.

This debate revealed several interesting things. There had been an impression that Mr. Morton was a little inclining to the Liberal side. On this occasion he marched out again under his old colors as the advocate of the extremest and most reckless partisan measures, and the champion of the Administration through thick and thin, and Mr. Schurz saluted him as such in the opening of his speech. Mr. Morton's status may now be considered as fixed for an indefinite time. Mr. Conkling displayed himself on the same side, and he may with safety be classed in the same category. Mr. Carpenter has sometimes good impulses, and occasionally obeys them; but his intellectual vagaries are such that many people doubt whether he has any convictions; if he has, he certainly does not stick to them. He has shown himself capable of making a brilliant speech, then voting against his own argument, and having a good laugh over it. Mr. Edmunds distinguished himself in the Louisiana debate by an earnest, fearless, and very able speech in support of the theory that, McEnery having, in point of form, been legally elected, he was *prima facie* entitled to recognition by the Federal Government under the Constitution. It is rumored that the party managers are very much dissatisfied with him, that they begin to distrust him, and are going to watch him. If Mr. Edmunds is equally distrustful of them, and vigilant in watching them, he may

render very valuable service to his country, and it is to be hoped that he will. We may now consider it as certain that Messrs. Morton and Conkling, supported by Cameron, Chandler, and Frelinghuysen, will wield the party whip in the Senate, and that Messrs. Edmunds, Carpenter, and Logan will occasionally refuse to obey orders. The party whip was cracked by Morton and Conkling for the first time this session in the Louisiana case. They carried their point, in having the matter laid upon the table, by a single vote; but I am informed they would certainly have failed had the Senate not been overwhelmed by the press of business to be disposed of before the 4th of March. The Louisiana case will have to be taken up again by the Senate immediately after the 4th of March, in deciding the contest of the Kellogg and McEnery candidates for seats in the Senate, and we may expect to hear more from Messrs. Edmunds and Carpenter.

In the House, Mr. Butler will attempt to take the reins. His old competitors have been so seriously damaged by the Crédit Mobilier investigation that a man who is not embarrassed by any sort of delicacy will have a great advantage over them. If he should succeed in defeating Mr. Blaine for the Speakership, the latter will be essentially weakened; and, if Mr. Blaine is elected, Mr. Butler may still expect to rule on the floor, especially as there will be an unusually large number of new members in the next House, who, unaccustomed to Butler's thunders, will look up to the terrible Benjamin with awe and fear. Thus it is by no means improbable that Butler will be the standard-bearer of the Republican party in the House during the next Congress, which, looking at the party in the light of recent events, is not altogether in conflict with the eternal fitness of things. Is it not equally characteristic that to-morrow Wilson will take the chair in the Senate just vacated by Colfax, and that he will proceed to swear in for a new term Morton, Cameron, and Conkling, and, as new senatorial ornaments of the Republican party, Patterson from South Carolina, Conover from Florida, and Jones from Nevada? And is it not also a sign of the times, that about half-a-dozen Federal judges are ripe for impeachment, one of whom has been taken in hand already?

ENGLAND.—THE SCHEME FOR A NEW IRISH UNIVERSITY.

LONDON, Feb. 21, 1873.

THE Parliamentary campaign has begun in earnest, and Mr. Gladstone's strategy has once more won general admiration. I do not mean to say, indeed, that the scheme for Irish education satisfies everybody, or even that it satisfies anybody; but nobody can deny the extreme cleverness with which it is adapted to the exigencies of the situation. Whether the bill will provide anything like a final solution of the question may be exceedingly doubtful; but few people can doubt that it will pass, and pass triumphantly. The impression which it made has indeed been decidedly modified. The day after Mr. Gladstone's exposition of his scheme, I happened to meet one of the most extreme Radical members of the House. He was in ecstasies. Gladstone, he said, has given us all that we could wish. Substantially, his scheme is nothing more than an expansion of Fawcett's plan for throwing open Trinity College. The government of the new university will be practically in the hands of Trinity men, who will be the best qualified competitors for its examinations; and, meanwhile, we shall have given to the Catholics all that they can fairly demand by enabling them to obtain degrees, and compete for a fair share of endowments. The satisfaction expressed by my friend was chiefly due to the fact that the Radicals had dreaded some direct concession to the Roman Catholic priesthood, in pursuance of a tacit bargain with Cardinal Cullen. The bill bore no marks of any such arrangement upon its face, and the Radicals were proportionably delighted. A few days' reflection made a considerable change in their tone. Another Radical friend, whom I encountered soon afterwards, gave me the opposite view of the question. Substantially, he said, the bill is a concession to the Catholics of all that they ask—or will, at least, pave the way for such a concession. The government of the new body will practically be in their hands. Protestants will naturally go as of old to Trinity College, and the new university will be left for the Catholics. After a short time they will form a majority of the governing body; they will then come to Parliament with a new grievance, and ask to remove the restrictions which are designed to give it an unsectarian character; and then it will appear that we have, in fact, been merely taking the first step towards a direct endowment of a Catholic university. This last opinion seems to be gaining ground amongst the Radicals; but, though objecting to the scheme more decidedly than at first, they have little hopes of seriously impeding its progress. Even if it be a concession to the Catholic demands, it is perhaps such a concession as we are bound in fairness to make. Ireland is after all a Catholic country; and it is a difficult problem to be thoroughly tolerant and, at the same time, to make no concessions to the religion of the great majority. The scheme, too, is so skilfully contrived to give something, in appearance, to every party, that any united and successful opposition seems to be out of the question. The Catholics will complain noisily of the injustice, if only that they may be entitled to ask for greater concessions in future; but they will take good care not to endanger a measure which will put them in a better position for demanding concessions. The Radicals may grumble; but the proposal to found a secular university is, superficially at any rate, too much in accordance with their views to allow of any effectual opposition. And thus, although the bill may be considerably modified in its passage through Parliament, there is every reason to suppose that it will be passed without vital injury, if not in its present form.

One provision has been universally condemned, and, as matters stand at present, seems to be the most likely to provoke a lively discussion. The new university will, of course, have no theological faculty; and in order to keep dangerous topics at the greatest possible distance, it is also to give no instruction in philosophy or in modern history. The examinations, also, are to be so arranged as to give no advantage to the members of either of the hostile creeds. The expedient of thus maiming a university in order to keep it out of mischief is certainly a melancholy offering to religious prejudice. How far it can succeed in securing that object is a question which I cannot answer. Mathematical teaching, I believe, is neither Protestant nor Catholic, now that the earth is allowed by all parties to go around the sun. But, as soon as we venture beyond that comparatively safe region, there is abundant room for anybody who likes it to introduce heretical opinions under the cover of science. Prof. Huxley, I imagine, could succeed in making some remarks which would be very disagreeable to the Pope, whilst confining himself strictly to physiology; and ancient history, which is arbitrarily cut off from modern, affords the most ample opportunities for preaching republicanism, socialism, atheism, or any other kind of "ism" that may be most offensive to the orthodox. There are provisions, indeed, to prevent the professors from insulting the prejudices of any one; but doctrines dexterously or even unconsciously insinuated are quite as effective as doctrines ostentatiously avowed; and if the professors of the future university really desire to introduce some infectious poison, I imagine that they could carry out their diabolical designs without much expense of ingenuity. In short, the poor university is to be in fetters from the day of its birth, and thus may be expected to become intolerable. If passions are so keen as to render such precautions necessary, they are probably keen enough to render them ineffectual. Such, at least, are the reasons which lead many people to distrust the working of Mr. Gladstone's policy, whilst admitting the admirable dexterity with which he has met the conflicting demands of the hostile parties. Indeed, it would be difficult to speak too highly of his abilities in that respect. Whenever his adversaries suppose that he is driven into a corner, he extricates himself with surprising ingenuity, and absolutely revels in devising and expounding the most complex schemes for satisfying everybody. His opponents, of course, maintain that he does not effect a final conciliation, but only adjourns the inevitable conflict; that these elaborate schemes involve arrangements too intricate to be really stable; and that the most laborious efforts to frame an eclectic policy will result in our having ultimately to take one side or the other. The scheme for English primary education was welcomed with equal enthusiasm at first, and was to reconcile everybody. Its practical results have been the expenditure of large sums of money, the education of a very small additional number of children, and an increased bitterness between the rival sects which struggle for the command of the schools. Indeed, the battle between secular and religious systems of education which is raging over Europe generally, as well as in this country, corresponds to passions far too bitter and profound to be set at rest by any judicious compromises; and one can hardly doubt that we are at the beginning, rather than at the end, of a campaign which will last for a period beyond our powers of calculation. This, however, does not prove that Mr. Gladstone has not introduced the best measure which has any chance of being carried at the present moment. We must be content to move forward very slowly on a path beset by so many obstacles, and perhaps a series of judicious compromises may be the best mode of advancing; though we cannot but wish that we had simpler issues to meet, and could meet them more courageously. Meanwhile, as far as this session is concerned, the indications are that Mr. Gladstone will disappoint the predictions of those who expected him to break down under this last trial, and will add one more victory to those already won during his period of office.

Another great measure was introduced in the House of Lords on the same night. Lord Selborne is evidently anxious to justify the expectations of those who see in him the reforming chancellor, so long desired and so slow in appearing. I speak with fear and trembling of anything connected with law-reform, knowing only this, that I know nothing of legal mysteries, and am only too likely to talk sheer nonsense if I attempt to express any opinion

upon the subject. This much, however, I may venture to assert, that Lord Selborne's speech pointed to a scheme of much greater boldness than has hitherto been proposed for the consolidation of our courts of justice, and the fusion of law and equity. The bill is not yet published, and any discussion, even were I capable of discussing the matter satisfactorily, would be premature. Looking at the matter from a purely political point of view, I have merely to say that these two bills are to provide Parliament with its chief occupation during the coming months; and neither of them is likely to lead to any very bitter party struggles. There is, indeed, no want of topics for the benefit of ambitious orators. Two or three little skirmishes have already taken place, in which Mr. Vernon Harcourt has been the most conspicuous figure. A rather amusing scene took place in the discussion of Mr. Ayrton's delinquencies. I have already had occasion to speak of the strange series of bungling attempts at regulating the right of public meeting in the parks. Mr. Ayrton, who appeared to be the chief culprit, has succeeded in attracting so much dislike for various reasons that he is probably the most unpopular man in the House. Everybody was therefore very willing to see an effective assault made upon him, and Mr. Harcourt, who has a fine capacity for treading upon the toes of his neighbors, and who has lately put himself forward as a conspicuous advocate of the rights of man and the liberties of the British subject, had a very fair opportunity of carrying the House with him in treating Mr. Ayrton to a little insolent invective. Unfortunately, Mr. Harcourt is with a very large number of members scarcely more popular than Mr. Ayrton, and consequently the House cared comparatively little which got the worst of it. Their slaughter was so earnestly desired, that whether Harcourt trampled on Ayrton, or Ayrton administered severe punishment to Harcourt, the result would be equally gratifying. Accordingly, when Harcourt failed to do as much execution as had been expected, the House was disgusted, and when Mr. Ayrton replied by some effective sarcasm, it was thoroughly delighted. The House of Commons looked on as brutal spectators look at a prize-fight, with a sincere desire that there might be plenty of blood and bruises, but with a fine indifference as to who might be the victim. Mr. Harcourt, however, is indomitable. He had the worst of the round with Mr. Ayrton, and a short time before he had received a severe punishment from Mr. Lowe; but within a day or two he was again delivering a lecture of an hour and a half upon the necessity of economy in the public expenditure. He said one or two good things, as for example that our present system is to spend enormous sums to prepare ourselves to fight, and then to spend large sums to buy people off from fighting us; but, on the whole, the lecture was dreary, and was received with signal coldness. In fact, the assertion of such general propositions is not calculated to excite very lively enthusiasm. From all which, it might appear that Mr. Harcourt has not made a very successful opening of the session. And yet he is a man who is likely to succeed by sheer force of cleverness and self-assertion. He has an imposing presence and plenty of ability, though his manner is pompous and his oratory apt to rise into the regions of platitude. Though he takes the line of extreme radicalism, nobody imagines that his radicalism lies very deep, or that he would be one of the irreconcilables in case his ambition clearly pointed in the opposite direction. He is not much more popular than Mr. Ayrton, but he has the faculty of pushing his way and keeping himself before the public. Whether by speeches on the hustings or by letters on international law to the *Times*, he somehow succeeds in making his voice heard, and I fancy that is the first condition of rising. Under favorable conditions, he might make a career after the pattern of Mr. Disraeli; but he is likely at any rate to fill a considerable space in the parliamentary future, and to force his way over the heads of equally able and honest men who are hampered by the foolish vice of modesty.

Correspondence.

NOT MINATORY BUT MONITORY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The letter from me which appears in the *Nation* of this week was written, as you were informed by Messrs. Sheldon & Company, at their suggestion and request, and referred to what may be called a purely business matter. Will you allow me to say a word for myself, although at the risk of taxing your patience and that of your readers?

My mention of the fact that I had revised but not corrected the passage expressing my respect for the tone and aim of the *Nation* was not meant to be in the least "minatory." Its purpose was merely to bring to mind that, notwithstanding the many provocations to small wrath which had been given me, I had not thought even of such a retaliation as the mere omission of that paragraph, much less of making a change in its terms. If, indeed, the *Nation* had taken a course that is too common, and refused or stinted the reparation due to my publishers, then my "yet" might have foreshadowed a change in opinion which your course shows that you would regard as justified; but of that significance you have entirely voided it by the fulness and frankness of your amend. If journalists did but know how much they gain, instead of losing, in strength as well as in respectability by a frank acknowledgment of error!

But what I wished to say for myself is this. You have twice referred to the eleventh chapter of 'Words and their Uses' (on the form "is being done") in terms which imply that I have been regardless of what you call "the frequent exposures of its fallacy," and that I remain stolidly indifferent to the fact that it has been "exploded." If that were the case, I should be quite unworthy of any literary confidence. I have read, I believe, every word that has been written against that chapter. In particular, I have twice gone attentively through Dr. Hall's article, which I believe is regarded as the ablest that has appeared on the opposite side of the question; and I did so with the purpose, I might almost say the hope, of finding occasion for the modification of my judgment. I found, on the contrary, not a single point brought up which I had not carefully considered before, as could be shown if the chapter and the article were printed side by side. Dr. Hall reaches one conclusion, I another. I venture to say that this is possible without my being arrogant or unwise. It is not the first case in the annals of literature in which arguments thought to be overwhelming by those on whose side they were used were regarded as not at all so by those against whom they were directed. Let abler and more learned men than I decide this question—say, for instance, George P. Marsh. Mr. Marsh has denounced the phrase in question as "the clumsy and unidiomatic continuing present of the passive voice," which originated "not in the common-sense of the people, but in the brain of some grammatical pretender"; and he gives six pages to its condemnation. Now, I agree that if Mr. Marsh will say of my eleventh chapter that, in his opinion, Dr. Hall, or any one else, has exposed its fallacy, or has exploded it, I will not only revise and correct it, but improve it off the face of my book.

Apropos of this view of the case, there is a good passage in the "Essay on Criticism":

> "'Tis with our judgments as our watches, none
> Go just alike, yet each believes his own."

The *Nation*, with calmness and catholicity of tone, seems to remember this on some subjects, but to forget it on others.

Your obedient servant, R. G. W.

New York, March 8, 1873.

THE DANGERS OF RESUMPTION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Will you permit a few remarks in reply to your article of February 27th, entitled "Public Opinion and the Currency"? Without differing from you in the least as regards the importance of a return to specie payments, I still think you do not attach sufficient importance to the objections so often brought forward against the measure, more particularly by the Western people. Your simile about the plunge into cold water is only so far correct as it relates to a perfectly healthy man, for certainly no one would recommend such a proceeding to a sufferer from smallpox, scarlet fever, or any other disease. I would argue, therefore, that a return or even an approach towards specie payments may be made the cause of far more suffering to the people at large, if attempted when the finances of the country are not in a healthy condition, than a depreciated and fluctuating currency can possibly be.

In preparing to take such a step, the first and most important question to be asked is: What will be the effect upon the business community? Now, every one will admit that a decline of fifteen per cent. on the value of all merchandise, which is after all the meaning of a return to specie payments, is a very serious matter for merchants to contemplate; but this is not all they would have to bear, for, unless the condition of trade happened to be in a peculiarly fortunate state, the mere prospect of declining markets would be sufficient to so reduce the demands of consumers that a stagnation in business, culminating in a financial panic, would be the inevitable result.

Since the close of the war the mercantile community have been passing through a very severe ordeal. As if the ordinary business risks were not sufficient, they have had to contend against all the evils of a fluctuating currency, against the most reckless proceedings on the part of Congress with regard to the tariff, and against singularly bad management of the Treasury Department. That these have not been without their effect, I think no one familiar with the workings of commerce will for a moment deny, and

that the merchants as a whole are in a more precarious condition to-day than they have been at any time during the past ten years, is a fact which most business men are forced to acknowledge.

Hence it seems to me that if the question of specie payments resolves itself into a contraction of the currency and a sudden decline in gold, then the present time would be a most unfortunate one to choose in which to make the experiment.

But is there no way of attaining the desired object without all this attendant chaos? Cannot the country be put upon a specie basis even without resumption on the part of the Government? I think it can, and that without legislation of any kind. What would be needed to put the plan into active operation would be united action on the part of merchants and the banks to encourage the buying and selling of merchandise for gold instead of currency. If what is now done in this city on a small scale could be gradually extended all over the land, there can be no doubt that specie payments would not, as now, be a constant terror to the people, but could be discussed with the calm deliberation so important a subject requires. Once succeed in getting merchants to transact their business on a specie *basis*—for it is, after all, not necessary that the specie should be actually handled—and I believe opposition to resumption by the Government will speedily vanish. Gold being then the *par* and greenbacks at a discount, it will become the interest of the very men who are now most outspoken against specie payments to encourage any measures that will tend to enhance the value of the paper money.—Respectfully yours,

MERCHANT.

MARCH 3, 1873.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. will reprint 'Walks in Florence,' by the Misses Horner; and have also in press 'Our New Masters,' by Thomas Wright; 'Political Portraits,' by an "Eminent Journalist," who may possibly be Mr. John W. Forney; and a novel, 'Her Majesty the Queen,' by John Esten Cooke. ——Porter & Coates announce 'The American's Hand-book to Vienna and the Exhibition,' by C. W. De Bernardy, illustrated, in two styles; and 'Men of the Third Republic,' sketches supposed, say the publishers, to have been written by a prominent English statesman.——'The Best of All Good Company,' in four parts, telling of a day with Dickens, Scott, Thackeray, and Jerrold, will be published by Shepard & Gill, Boston.——Martin's 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1873 (New York: Macmillan) adheres closely in plan and substance to the editions of former years, while showing in all its parts that it has been more or less worked over and brought up to date. Thus, under the United States the new Congressional apportionment and various revenue changes are inserted. Under Europe, the recent censuses of Germany and France are given, the latter showing a falling off in population since 1866 amounting to 1,964,273, of which, however, 1,597,219 stand for Alsace-Lorraine. The first Indian census ever taken is also given, and there are several other new features.——The New York Hungarian Society commemorates "the day of Pesth" (March 15, 1848) by a festival and ball at Irving Hall on Friday, the 14th instant.——A writer in the Boston *Transcript* enquires after the true orthography of the name of the author of 'Smoke,' 'Liza,' 'On the Eve,' etc. The variations—Tourgenieff, Turgénieff, Turgeneff, Turgenef, Toorgenef, Turgenew—are due to the various attempts in different languages to copy the sounds of the Russian original. Another distinguished member of the family (the late Nicholas T.), having made himself a Frenchman by residence, used to write his name Tourgueneff, as may be seen at the end of a communication from him on p. 237, of Vol. I. of the *Nation*. Giving the Italian value to the vowels, this would be more simply written as Turgenef. There being no ambiguity, in English, in the pronunciation of the final syllable (*ef*), the doubling of the final *f* is not necessary (as it is in Gortchakoff, for example), but of course is not wrong.

—Mr. Sabin, bibliopolist, and of very high authority in such matters, says that too much has been said in the newspapers about the loss inflicted by the fire in the late Mr. Forrest's library. He remarks concerning Mr. Forrest's copy of the "first folio" Shakespeare, that by no means was it worth $5,000, the price set upon it by the reporters. Mr. Forrest bought it from him thirteen years ago for $375, and its value now cannot be more that $500, if so much. It was a "made-up" copy—that is to say, its title-page and last leaf were printed in facsimile, the originals of those pages having been wanting. We suppose Mr. Sabin's doubts about the damage done by the fire may be somewhat overstrained. He observes that books do not burn easily, and that it is "somewhat remarkable that $20,000 worth of books should be destroyed by a fire which was put out by 'a fireman and a policeman.'" But a Philadelphia correspondent of the *Athenæum*, who himself examined the library after it was burned, corroborates the newspapers as to the thoroughness with which the fire did its work, though he makes no estimate in money of the loss sustained. He however leaves the reader inclined to believe that the loss in Shakespeariana was in no sense irreparable, though, of course, much to be regretted.

—Mr. William F. Poole's essay on 'Anti-Slavery Opinions before the Year 1800,' has been converted into a handsome book by Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, enriched by copious notes and addenda, and a fac-simile reprint of Dr. George Buchanan's anti-slavery oration of 1791, of which a copy, it will be remembered, was preserved in Washington's library and led to Mr. Poole's researches. In its present form this essay gives perhaps not a complete, but certainly a just view of the state of public opinion on the subject of slavery at the close of the last century, especially at the South, among men prominent in laying the foundations of the Federal Government. It establishes beyond question the fact that before the glittering generalities of the Declaration and the Constitution had lost their glitter, it was possible to speak, write, and organize at the South in opposition to slavery; but it does not show a single Southern name that ranks with Franklin, Rush, Jay, or Hamilton—to mention no other officers of Northern anti-slavery societies—associated voluntarily or on request with an organization which seriously contemplated emancipation. This was already forbidden by the very conditions of society in the planting slave States of that day; and while the humane and even fervid expressions of Washington, Jefferson, Henry, and Mason could be tolerated—"all Europe" still having its eyes on the glittering generalities—a practical alliance with downright abolitionists would have been regarded and treated as treachery to their order. However, the planter's endurance of incendiary speech and doctrine still remains something wonderful, and Mr. Poole uses it to give the South its due for carrying on anti-slavery agitation long before it took the shape of the *Genius of Universal Emancipation* or the *Liberator*. For this curious chapter of our history, his book will serve as a most useful source of condensed information. There is, in a foot-note on page 5, an *obiter dictum* touching the "questionable morality of Gen. Washington's motto" (which he took from his ancestors) that perhaps calls for remark in the interest of the Father of his Country. The classical *Exitus acta probat* can hardly be said to be tinctured with a "Jesuitical association," or to be correctly translated by "the end justifies the means." Mr. Lossing, adopting this version, praises the motto, on the grounds that the aims of the Washingtons were lofty and sought by legitimate means. It was enough for them, however, merely to assert their own independence of character, trusting to the result to vindicate actions regarded before the event as rash, impolitic, or singular.

—The first five numbers of the new daily evening paper, the *Graphic*, lie before us as we write, and furnish, we imagine, a fair measure of the aims of its conductors and of the artistic capacity of their new photo-lithographic process. The illustrations occupy the first, fourth, fifth, and eighth pages—what would technically be called the "outside form"; half of the eighth page being given up to advertisements, which are, however, treated like the pictures in being printed at one impression from stone and not from metal types. The inside pages are printed in the usual way, and contain the editorial articles, news of the day, and other reading departments of the paper. The pictures fall into three classes—original designs, etched probably on a photographic plate; reproductions from woodcuts; reproductions from lithographs. These are all exhibited side by side on page 5 of No. 2 of the *Graphic*, the effect being decidedly incongruous. None of the copies of wood engravings are so good as the originals, and it is safe to predict that they never could be made so by this process. They are, however, when not marred by imperfect distribution of the ink, good enough to make the *Graphic* a serious rival to the weekly illustrated newspapers in the field of reproduction from foreign sources. The etchings are more successful and more interesting, though here also experience will doubtless bring about some improvement. They are chiefly caricatures, some of which show clever draughtmanship. Current events have been illustrated in pictures of the inauguration festivities—including street scenes, portraits, views of buildings, interiors, etc.—in a single police incident, and one view of a fire (from a lithographic drawing). These indicate that the process is not yet equal to the task of reproducing photographs from nature, but only from black and white; and apparently we have still to wait for Herr Albert, Mr. Woodbury, or, in this city, Mr. Rockwood, to perfect their processes to suit the needs of a daily publication. That this perfection will be reached we have as little doubt as that the attainment of it would ensure absolute success to an enterprise like the *Graphic*. Success this paper very likely has met with already. It is readable, its news department has improved since its first issue, and to a great many families it can hardly come too often in coming once a day.

—Prof. Brewer's letter on North Carolina usages of speech has brought us a cloud of interesting communications, for which it is quite impracticable to find room. Some of our correspondents are at pains to show that the peculiarities noted are good old English words, still heard as provincialisms in the mother country, and not excluded from Webster's Dictionary. This is true, but their survival in North Carolina is none the less curious. Others point to the fact, also pretty well known, that North Carolinians who have migrated have carried their favorite locutions with them. Southern Illinois and Southwestern Indiana were settled by the "refugees," as they call themselves, from the Carolinas, Tennessee, and Kentucky; and as the district lies between the northern railroad routes, on the one hand, and the Ohio River, on the other, they have remained unmixed and uncontaminated. Here they always speak of "them *mollasses*"; use the adjective *pretty* as a noun—as, of a handsome watch, "Let me look at your pretty"; mean soda-biscuit when they say *bread*; use *grocery* to designate a place where liquor is always sold, generally in connection with a small amount of staple articles—idiomatic for a "saloon"; call any collection of household chattels and utensils *plunder*, etc., etc. If this suggests a theory that there are what might be termed "isothermal" lines in our American usages of speech, it should not be forgotten that a very large proportion of Prof. Brewer's examples are, or were not so very long ago, as familiar in Southern Pennsylvania as in North Carolina (Scotch-Irish Presbyterians being colonists in both these States); and that a smaller but still considerable portion (like *rense* for rinse, etc.) are common throughout the United States. "The fact seems to be, that our inter-State migrations, the late war, and the newspapers have spread our dialect vocabulary so evenly over the country, that one who should now find a true provincialism that is not national, or semi-national, would be entitled to rank as a discoverer." At least one might say so, remembering the confusion of *shall* and *will* even in New England, and the extent to which one hears *like* used with a verb for *as* in the Middle States.

—It remains to be seen whether any act of the late Forty-second Congress will cause it to be remembered more gratefully, or by a greater fraction of mankind, than will its "Act revising and amending the laws relative to the mints, assay offices, and coinage of the United States," which was passed and approved last month. In a communication last week to the New York Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Samuel B. Ruggles had the pleasure of reporting the entire success of his endeavors—in which he had the cordial support of the Chamber itself and of the National Board of Trade—to bring about a metric assimilation of our silver coinage with that of Europe. The act whose title has just been quoted discontinues the coinage of the silver *dollar* as a part of the currency of the United States, but internationalizes the silver *half dollar* "by fixing its weight at 12½ metrical grammes, so that two half dollars will be precisely equivalent to the five-franc silver coin of Europe and its equivalents, and will circulate by their side on terms of perfect equality in all the nations of the world using the franc system." "The wide diffusion and popularization of this international coin," continues Mr. Ruggles, "extending through nearly one hundred and fifty degrees of longitude, from the Golden Gate on the Pacific to the mouth of the Dardanelles, will moreover exert an efficient and beneficial influence in hastening the necessary reform in most if not all of the other silver coinages of the world." That it is also a most important step towards the eventual unification of the different coinages of gold, cannot be doubted; and "the friends of international coinage may now reasonably indulge the hope, that the enlightened nations of the European world will all unite, ere long, in carrying into practical effect the memorable and emphatic declaration at St. Helena, by the first Napoleon, more than half a century ago, that 'among the civilizing agencies most needed in Europe was *a common money*.'"

HAZARD'S SANTO DOMINGO.*

THE merits of this book may be summed up in a few words. It gives a condensed history, borrowed from a great variety of sources, of both parts of the island of San Domingo; and it describes in a readable manner the author's experiences of travel there in 1871, on the heels of, and partly in company with, the United States Commissioners. The illustrations are of a really helpful sort, many being reproduced from rare and curious works; there is a tolerable map of the island (not so minute or so distinct, however, as that which accompanies Redpath's 'Guide to Hayti'), and a copious bibliography, in which we may note, in passing, the insertion of James Montgomery's poem, 'The West Indies,' and the omission of Miss Martineau's 'Hour and the Man'; and, finally, the appendix contains sundry documents and statistics which decidedly heighten the value of the book for purposes of reference. Read merely for entertainment, it will disappoint in the historical portion by a want of clearness, and in the narrative by a certain awkwardness of style and grammatical carelessness, of which the following passage will serve as an example (p. 174):

"For here it might truly be said that *the aspect of nature* is beautiful and grand, and, seen in all its magnificence of luxuriant tropical vegetation that reaches to the very mountain-peaks, is *the place where* apply those hymn lines so familiar to us all—

'Where every prospect pleases, and only man is vile.'"

When we inform our readers that Mr. Hazard is a warm advocate of annexation, they will readily infer from the line of poetry quoted by him (and they will not be mistaken) that he is frank and honest. But if we would be the same, we must add that he formed a much better opinion of the Dominican of to-day than is expressed in Bishop Heber's verse, which, for the rest, he repeats to himself on shipboard before landing. To the *bon naturel* of the population he constantly bears witness, without concealing aspects of their character and daily life which hardly invite a closer acquaintance and political alliance with them on the part of the people of the United States. Thus, near the capital, he visits a village school (p. 223):

"Between each pupil I was astonished to find a gamecock attached to a sort of perch; and on my asking the children for an explanation, they said, 'Oh! they belong to the schoolmaster, who fights them on Sunday.' This functionary was out, but I afterwards met him, and found him to be an intelligent colored man, highly amused at my surprise at such new means of education, he explaining by a shrug of the shoulders and the remark, 'Cosa Dominicana.'"

Before he left the city, Mr. Hazard's surprise was somewhat tempered by the following adventure (p. 229):

"As we desired to satisfy our curiosity with a view of the Dominican cockpit, we paid a visit there in the early afternoon. The place was crowded, the pit being only a small place or circle of about fifty feet radius, much humbler than those of its Cuban neighbor. We mounted up to the top seat by means of a ladder, for a standing place; but on Damion Baez, the brother of the President, perceiving us, he very kindly offered us seats below in the select part; but, as we only wished to stay a few moments, we declined his offer."

At the church in Cotuy our author is again shocked, though somewhat differently (p. 299):

"As showing the utter simplicity of the religion of these people, we noticed there was placed in the curtained niche of an alcove a wax figure, nearly life-size, of Christ bearing the Cross, which of itself was horrible; but in the midst of other decorations, of bits of gold paper and paper flowers, a highly-colored gorgeous label had been taken from a vermicelli box and pasted at the foot of the figure of Christ. If this label had been in some foreign tongue, it might be supposed that it remained there in utter ignorance by priest and people of what it was; but there it was in Spanish, as fine an advertisement as I ever saw, that Farrell & Son, Barcelona, made fine vermicelli for soups."

A portrait of President Baez—the ruler, by the way, of a state having about the area of Ohio, with fewer inhabitants than an eighth or tenth-rate city in the United States—is given on page 215, and he is further described as "a courtly, pleasant man, of medium height and agreeable appearance," who impresses Mr. Hazard "as a perfectly upright man, and that seems to be generally the impression made." His integrity, however, has survived some strange mutations; for, being already in exile, he forsook his country during the Spanish occupation (1861–65), took the oath of allegiance to Spain, and was made a General of Division; then turned patriot once more, combining with Cabral (who had executed a like tergiversation) to offer Geffrard, of Hayti, part of the territory of San Domingo in return for aid in expelling the Spaniards; then, when Cabral had come uppermost, and had, in his distress for money, offered to lease the Bay of Samaná to the United States, denounced him (1868) in a revolutionary manifesto for proposing "the sale of your country"—"to sell you to the foreigners, Dominicans!" Being made President again, he at once prepared to sell out his country to the same foreigner, and, failing in his negotiations with the Government of the United States, in which a severe moralist might detect some obliquity but for Baez's imperfect familiarity with the English language, he has at last, in a wholly unprecedented manner, sold out the substance of Dominican nationality to a company of traders, speculators, and philanthropists, who are doubtless particularly impressed by his uprightness.

If Mr. Hazard were a mere advocate, which he is very far from being, he would have suppressed those passages in Dominican history which exhibit the periodic attempts, during the past quarter of a century, to attach the island to some power, American or European, strong enough to deliver the inhabitants from themselves. The "Republic" was but five years old, and Baez had just been elected President for the first time (in 1849), when, as is

* 'Santo Domingo, Past and Present; with a Glance at Hayti. By Samuel Hazard, author of "Cuba with Pen and Pencil."' Maps and numerous illustrations. New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

stated in Chapter XIV., "he was waited on by a deputation from the Cibao district, bearing a petition signed by the most prominent men of all classes, asking him to open negotiations with the United States for the purpose of annexation." This measure was opposed by Baez, on the sufficient ground that the United States was a slave-holding country. His successor, Santana, in 1856, endeavored to lease the Bay of Samaná to the United States, and a treaty was actually prepared by the agent of President Pierce; but this measure excited so much discontent that Santana retired to make way for Baez again. When the latter was driven into exile, Santana reappeared at the head of affairs, and, "suddenly and almost without consultation, either of the people of Dominica or their rulers, threw himself into the arms of Spain, giving up to its authority, in May, 1861, the entire possession of the Spanish part of the island." Spain was not, however, his first choice. "Santana seems to have been really desirous of annexing the island to the United States; but in this, it is said, he was frustrated by the threats and opposition of the French Consul-General at Port-au-Prince, Maxime Raybaud. He then offered it to France, and finally to Spain." When the offer was accepted, he called the district commanders together, and instructed them "how they were to treat the people in regard to securing their votes." The people, after making the desired plébiscite, naturally found themselves deceived and "betrayed," *more Latino;* and then began a dreadful conflict between tyrants and rebels, before the termination of which, as we have seen, Baez and Cabral were planning to make a Nice-and-Savoy exchange of a valuable province for a military saviour. A few years later, Cabral, denounced by Baez, again put up the Bay of Samaná in the United States market; and a twelvemonth later still, Baez, denounced by Cabral and Luperon as an infamous traitor, exercised the same authority for identically the same end. Here are seven distinct attempts in twenty years to alienate the territory or to sink the nationality of the Dominicans, government all the while succeeding government with the rapidity with which sharks' teeth are renewed, in "the way governments are made in this famous island. A few hundred people gather together, and shout 'Vive Cabral!' 'Vive Polanco!' and the fortunate chief declares himself the government."

As Baez kept the country districts advised of the coming of the United States commissioners, it would not have been difficult for him to manufacture "public sentiment" as Santana had done before him. It would, nevertheless, have been quite unnecessary, to judge by the glimpses which Mr. Hazard gives of their procedure. Always declaring their official character, being treated as national guests wherever they moved, and travelling as rapidly as the miserable state of a tropical country without roads permitted, they courted deception even if they avoided it. That they did not avoid it —that they were deceived themselves as to the nature of their mission—is to us perfectly clear from Mr. Hazard's interested account. This is what took place at Cevico—"a congregation of thatched huts around an open space called a plaza; and the statistics of the town are complete," says Mr. Hazard, "when I state there are fifteen houses and seventy-five people." The narrative continues (p. 283):

"Orders were immediately given to gather the people of the village together before our departure in the morning, in order that the Commissioner might hear their views. Bright and early, therefore, next day came a perfectly black negro with more clothes on than most of those we had seen. He informed the Commissioner that he was the 'Commandante.' . . . Seating himself in a hammock, he, in an extremely consequential manner, was proceeding to give us an idea of his great importance, when he was abruptly cut short, and told to allow the people to come in, as the Commissioner wished to see them and not the dignitaries. A number of all classes then came in, to whom Mr. White made an address, and they showed themselves very enthusiastic at the idea of *having perpetual peace given them*, some being affected even to tears," etc.

It would be singular if any "people" in a similarly distracted condition should not weep at the prospect of such a gift; but it is not a little surprising that the Commissioner should have felt himself authorized to promise it, or considered it his mission to do aught else than ask questions with the view of ascertaining how widespread and genuine a desire for annexation *already existed*. We might suspect Mr. Hazard of giving, in the phrase we have italicized, rather his own equivalent for "annexation" than an exact summary of Mr. White's eloquence; but elsewhere (on p. 334) he speaks of Mr. White's sense of the "responsibility" resting upon him, as if it were responsibility different from that of a trusty reporter, and gives an abstract of an address in which he "spoke feelingly of the wealth and happiness that would be produced naturally by their alliance with some strong power; and *he hoped, for their sakes, it would be with the United States.*" This, we submit, was not exactly the neutral attitude of an enquirer after facts; nor was "explaining fully the nature of our Government," however kindly an act, one required by the duties imposed upon the Commissioners. The "one cry" which Mr. Hazard heard, "Give us peace and safety, and good roads," was doubtless answered satisfactorily by declaring that the United States would furnish all these desiderata; but it is not manifest that any power capable of giving the same assurances would not as soon be the object of a longing for annexation.

Peace, we need not remark—especially "perpetual peace"—is by no means one of the blessings which the extension of the United States' authority to San Domingo would bring in its train. The acquisition of the island has been termed by President Grant "an adherence to the Monroe Doctrine," and that doctrine is worthless if it does not mean a resort to war in case its application is resisted. It would be much more correctly predicated of the seizure of Cuba, and that this would not be one of the consequences of the occupation of San Domingo, furnishing a new base for filibustering, no man can foretell. The United States and their new citizens must therefore prepare for naval warfare with Spain, and also border warfare with the Haytians, who, stimulated by Cabral and Luperon, would doubtless not readily relinquish their claims to the upper course of the Artibonite. Not only must new forts be built and old ones repaired for the defence of what would become one of the weakest strategical points in the American Union, but so long as the island owned a divided allegiance, the occupation of San Domingo must needs be a military one, of which the burdens and the active service would certainly interfere with cockfighting and the cultivation of plantains. More or less clumsily we should have to ape the "imperial" system of colonial administration, and how well fitted our civil service is for this sort of business, is unfortunately not conjectural. In place of Spanish pro-consuls and carpet-baggers, we should have Northern, Western, and Southern—the South might probably experience a temporary relief. We should have violations of the Haytian frontier, smuggling in both directions, and inevitable collisions. Sooner or later we should overrun the western end of the island, annexing a still more degraded population, a depreciated paper currency ($400 to $1), and a debt to France. Mr. Hazard, indeed, says "God forbid," as "it will take years of missionary enterprise and instruction to prepare the Haytians for the blessings of civil liberty as enjoyed by us"; but he and the Commissioners expect the annexation of San Domingo to "develop among its dusky neighbors a desire to share in the blessings and advantages which it is the boast of Americans that American institutions bring."

There would be no end to the objections that might be raised against annexing a people which has thus far shown itself incapable of self-government—the *sine qua non* of a healthy expansion of our political system; and we shall only direct the attention of our readers to the curiously complicated land tenure, which would open up such a fine field for gentlemen of the legal profession. It is, apart from the difficulties it presents to rapid colonization, a very profitable study of the way in which one Latin race has evaded the equal division of property, to which the French with their *partage forcé* have succumbed. We conclude our review by expressing our conviction, fortified by the reading of Mr. Hazard's work, that the annexation movement has been most powerfully promoted in this country and most heartily seconded by persons peculiarly susceptible to the charms of natural scenery, and that what they are anxious to annex is not rather indifferent mineral deposits, or a convenient naval station, or a hundred and fifty thousand creoles and negroes of all shades, but the superb landscape of the "Vega Real." The vista of annexation which this principle of selection opens up to us is so formidable that we may congratulate ourselves on having few "venerable cosmopolites," like Dr. S. G. Howe, who, on receiving a serenade from some Dominicans, said (p. 494):

"People too often overlook or forget the good they have, and think only of their sufferings and wants. Since I have been here people have been talking continually to me about the disadvantages under which they labor—of the convulsions, and civil wars, and oppressions, and all that. *There is another side of the picture. I find myself in danger of having my reason carried away by my senses.* All my senses are, as it were, subjected by the surroundings. I find the most beautiful island I have ever seen. The balmy atmosphere, the mild, even temperature—everything addresses itself to my sense *de bien-être*. My eyes are dazzled by the beauty of enchanting scenery. My sense of taste is gratified by the luscious and abundant fruits that are everywhere around us; and now comes your music, and so charms away my sense of hearing that I find all my senses enlisted and carried away in your favor; and although I may not say what I shall advise my countrymen to do on the subject of annexing the Dominican Republic, I feel strongly inclined to annex myself and my family to this beautiful island."

MILITARY AND RELIGIOUS LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES.*

THE amateurish sort of people, the dilettanti who prize their picture-book just as the infant does his primer, may thank with rather uncommon ardor their benefactor, the Bibliophile Jacob, for adding his 'Vie Militaire et Religieuse au Moyen Age' to those former beautiful works of his,

* 'Vie Militaire et Religieuse au Moyen Age et à l'Epoque de la Renaissance. Par Paul Lacroix (Bibliophile Jacob).' Paris: Firmin Didot Frères. New York: F. W. Christern.

the 'Arts au Moyen Age,' and the 'Usages et Costumes au Moyen Age.' The luckiest collector, he who tenderly keeps in his best inlaid cabinet a few brilliant vellums, can show but specimens of a style; but this author and his publishers exhibit the selected proofs of historical fact, a sum of real evidence and testimony whose style is but an incident, and whose documentary value is what makes collecting a respectable pursuit. The present work seems to be even more rich and attractive than the 'Arts au Moyen Age'; the publishers have filled it with curious booty from the richest libraries of Europe, most minutely and expensively reproduced. They have turned loose into the commonwealth of literature the choice of such miniatures, carvings, and illuminations as are treasured in ancient capitals and locked up by kings. To copy even faultily such curious records would be to piece out the usefulness of a limited and perishable kind of material; how perishable, we are reminded by the explanation to one of the pictures here given, an ancient view of the Place de Grève at Paris, with Notre Dame before the loss of the central spire, and a Procession of the Host—a picture now perpetuated only by this engraving, the original having been given by M. Ambroise Firmin Didot to the city of Paris and involved in the burning of the Hôtel de Ville in 1871. But the reproduction is by no means faulty, being managed by Messrs. Firmin Didot Frères with all the art of modern color-printing. Chromo-lithography, in the hands of Paris artists, lends itself to counterfeiting old painting in minium and gold with a cunning that takes away all the vulgarity from an art formerly known by its infelicities only; and the woodcuts, repeating old etchings and block-work, assume the guise of the middle ages with absolute fidelity. Cuts requiring such enormous care as Dürer's "Knight and Death," for example, are boldly grappled with, on a reduced scale, by the wood-engraver; not with perfect success, indeed, for a comparison shows "Death" to have lost the vague ideality of Dürer, and "Sin" its sublime unconsciousness of good, but still with a kind of wholesale and general transference. We wonder how many hundreds this single print would cost an American publisher, at the hands, say, of Mr. Linton. The chromo copies are still more elaborate, and only yield their assumption of smooth faultlessness on a pitiless confrontation with their sources. We apply, for example, one of the photographs brought over by any tourist of Orcagna's "Triumph of Death," at Pisa, to its colored imitation in this work. It would not do to say that the strange intellectual attraction of the fresco, a grand picture-poem executed before the introduction of oil-painting in Italy, is quite to be found in this miniature; the faces are tame and cast in a feeble mould, the Amazon queen who leans upon her hand is wanting in the fine reverie of Orcagna's heroine, the hermit is less earnest, the horses are less expressive, the skeleton shrinking from the worm is tame in movement; but we should consider the reduced scale and the prosaic vehicle, and not expect Orcagna's epical quality in mechanical work, which does, after all, satisfy us beyond the photograph in matters of color, neatness, and convenience of multiplication. In wood-engraving, the transfer of so critical a masterpiece as Holbein's "Dance of Death" is very ably carried out. The chromos themselves are much less inadequate than some with a higher aim in other volumes in which Paris bookmakers have tried to convey to us, by a process of forcing the Genie into the bottle, the splendors of canvases from the Louvre. The frontispiece to the work is a bewitching bit of lithography, a prim and delicate portrait of Queen Anne of Brittany, from her *Heures;* a brilliant chromo is an "Embarkation of Crusaders," from a fourteenth century Neapolitan miniature; another most refined in color is that from the Psalter of René of Anjou, representing the king humbly walking in the streets of Aix after the Sacrament; one of "Angels presenting the Elect" (who stand on the angelic shoulders) is a curious rapture of Memling's; one unmatched for simplicity shows the Chevalier of the Gray Arms, Noble Heart, disputing in a tournament at Basle for the immaculateness of Mary's conception—finally unseating his adversary, and thus proving the dogma to the satisfaction of both; a very careful one, filled with figures, is the copy of part of Fra Angelico's "Paradise," the same picture which Mr. Arnold, covering it for a momentary purpose with an excess of irony, has libelled with so ludicrous a description: "The elect," says the ex-professor of poetry, "are going round in a ring on long grass under laden fruit-trees; two of them, more restless than the others, are flying up a battlemented street—a street blank with all the ennui of the Middle Ages." One cannot be cruel to angels and their brother, the Frate, with impunity, and the faces, even in this lithographed copy, strike a terror into the spirit, making a man afraid lest he be in their sight merely cultured and blasé and literary.

We may not indicate with even a word the riches of the book in mere curiosities, the havoc of many a collection. There is the curious *grafita* from Rome, the earliest representation, in fact, of the Crucifixion, showing the Christian Aleximenes adoring a horse-headed caricature on a cross; there is the true semblance of Prester John, after Cesare Vecellio; there are Christopher Columbus's own sketches, in scrawls representing his ships and his discovery of the Antilles; there are the direful-looking giants constructed in the sixteenth century to scatter arrows or overrun an army; likenesses of the Virgin, whether by Saint Luke, who shows her like a Roman priestess, or by the Byzantine panel-painters, who show her like a mulatress; the strangest of portraits, exhibiting Godefroy of Bouillon overwhelmingly crowned with the instruments of the Passion, and passively cantering to his oriental throne like a market-woman of Brussels, where the picture was invented; the veritable Inscription on the Cross, as found by Helena; and many more such rarities, here brought to the eye in one sweeping harvest, by images often quite as authentic as the so-called originals, treasured with infinite jealousy in many an odd corner of the world.

The volume will be oftener skimmed for its relief of embellishment than penetrated for its chain of argument. It is, however, an able and superlatively neat and shapely arrangement of facts bearing on mediæval history. It shows the genius of the Middle Age at its divine task, rearranging a world of ruin, correcting pagan profligacy by its religious spirit, and pagan insubordination by its military spirit, and ordering both through its two great faculties of fidelity and strength. It is not here that we shall see, as we seem to see in Mr. Lecky and in some of the materialists, the Church presented as crushing civilization. M. Lacroix, in a more tranquil estimate, shows her as she really was, the placid envelope and fosterer of science in times of shock. At the fated overflow of the North and East across the Roman Empire, the powerful Church was able to carry art and letters into her retreat, and hide them there, not cut off, but suspended. It is a pity, though—for it repels at once whole classes of his readers—that M. Lacroix has thought it his duty to make his presentment so very official. With him the Papacy is the blameless Hind of Dryden. The "réformation prétendue" is only a sum of villanies. Calvin, of course, is a sanguinary recusant, murderer of the physician Servetus and the poet Gruet. Luther's Reform is disposed of in the chapter called "Heresies," and while there are many pictures of Protestants torturing Catholics, there are none of Catholics punishing Protestants. The Huguenots, in power at Angoulême, are pictured as starving Romanists until they bite one another. "Even Protestant writers" (the example being Mr. Cobbett) are cited as condemning the "violences inouïes" of the filthy rebel Henry VIII. The Spanish Inquisition is treated as a wholly political institution, a system rebuked by Rome; yet M. Lacroix, with a little inconsistency, boasts of the institution thus condemned by the Church as being blessed with complete success: "The purpose, quite political, of the Spanish monarchs was carried out; for the maintenance of religious unity"—a rather soft phrase, that, for the torments of the office—"saved this kingdom from the bloody wars which at the time were desolating France and England. . . . In the Netherlands," adds the writer, safely, "the Inquisition had not the same success." The Low Countries, on their setting up for themselves, "surpassed Spain in the refinement of cruelties invented against the Catholics"; and a print is given of John Jerome of Edam, in the hands of the "gueux de Hollande," his belly lacerated by tortured dormice. As for Luther, the engraving of him, like those of all the Reformers, is supernally ugly, giving one the impression that the devil must have returned the inkstand upon the monk's own countenance; and his literary labors are thus described:

> "The indefatigable, the inexhaustible Luther, by turns a Demosthenes, a Petronius, a peasant of the Danube, a beer-pot comrade, has diluted, through the course of fifteen thousand folio pages, the inanity of Protestant views—a chaos of eloquence, poetry, visionary passions, evident truths, daring lies, gall, hate, jealousy, and mire."

There is surely a little too much feeling here. It is very well for the Bibliophile Jacob, writing in France a national and a partially educational work, to uphold the national religion. The Church is half his subject, and the Church he might properly defend amid the profound courtesy of such Protestant readers as will use his work for reference. But if he could have taken the philosophical, rather than the merely orthodox, aspect of his theme, his chance of living as a reputable authority to the end of the century would be better. Opinions, even balanced and studied opinions, are dying around us, in this sharp age, like locusts in a storm; but opinions on the Infallible Past of the Immutable Church are rather specially of the nature of ephemeras, and flutter down to the ground before we can singe them, particularly when they are winged with the modern eloquence we should expect from a feuilletoniste writing in the back office of M. Veuillot's *Univers*.

Proportional Representation; or, The Representation of Successive Majorities in Federal, State, Municipal, Corporate, and Primary Elections. By Charles R. Buckalew, late U. S. Senator from Pennsylvania. With an Ap-

pendix, by John G. Freeze, Counsellor-at-law. (Philadelphia: John Campbell & Son. 1872. 8vo, pp. 300.)—Ex-Senator Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, is one of the very few among our public men who look upon politics as a science which needs to be studied—not a mere scramble of empirical usages; and, what is better, who has not merely studied carefully, but actually succeeded, by his own personal influence, in introducing political reforms—on a small scale, it is true, and in a narrow sphere, but of genuine value, and whose future power may be exceedingly great. The volume before us consists of his reports, speeches, and addresses. It is no disadvantage—although it may be a little misleading—that the scope of the book is less wide than its title. It is not a complete discussion of Personal Representation, but only of that one form of Personal Representation known as the cumulative vote, which is especially associated with Mr. Buckalew's name.

It must, after all, be admitted that, in spite of the theoretical perfection of the Hare plan, and the many advantages of the "Free List," or Geneva Plan, it is the Cumulative plan that the American people have decided to try first; everything which can make its theory complete, and help to elucidate its workings, is therefore to be welcomed as the most timely contribution to the discussion. In regard to the theory, we will here simply call attention to the felicitous term "Successive Majorities" used by Mr. Buckalew. The average voter, who has firmly fixed at the bottom of his political creed the doctrine that "the majority should rule," is somewhat repelled, or, at least, indifferent, when one proposes the representation of the minority; he has to be argued into recognizing its justice, and even then he suspects a concealed trick. Mr. Buckalew says nothing about representing a minority, but shows that when the bare majority has obtained one member, it is just that the next member should be returned by the majority of those that remain unrepresented; and so on in successive steps. This is an argument that will reach many minds that are obtuse to Mr. Mills's and Mr. Hare's reasoning.

The most interesting part of the book, however, to those at least who are already familiar with the discussion, is the chapters which give the statutes already in operation in Pennsylvania and Illinois, and especially which describe their workings in practice. It is easy to point out—as we have ourselves done—the theoretical objections to the Cumulative plan, and to show that it still renders possible an undue representation of the majority and even of the minority. But, after all, we must confess that when any community has gone so far as to recognize the evils of the present methods, and set seriously about amending them, such a community is likely, in this very process, to develop a political morality which will demand fair play; and we must confess further, that with political morality a bad system will work well, and without it the best system will fail. So far as it has been tried, the Cumulative system appears to have worked very well, both in Illinois and, especially, in Pennsylvania. On this head we get some very interesting facts. It is, by the way, not generally known that the "Bloomsburg plan" has been applied, by a general statute, to all the boroughs in the State. In an election in Bloomsburg, April, 1870, there was a simple majority vote for President of Council, in which the successful candidate had 11 majority: of the six councilmen, the Democratic party (the majority) obtained 3, the Republican 2, and an irregular "People's" ticket obtained the sixth by cumulation. At a second election, in October, all offices but one were to be filled in pairs. Consequently, it was quickly recognized that they were to be divided between the two parties, and the only contest was upon a single auditor, in which the Republican was elected—"showing," says the author, "that, under the old plan of voting, the party ordinarily in the minority would have swept all the offices voted for except one constable"—a very popular officer, who received a very large vote. This experiment is satisfactory, as far as partisanship is concerned; it does not give us any clue, however, to the character of the officers, and there would certainly be room, where a party was sure of electing its men, for careless or corrupt nominations. To meet this point, we have an election in the same month in Northumberland borough. Each party nominated three candidates; but one of the Republican candidates was considered to have got his nomination unfairly. The friends of the disappointed candidate bolted the regular nomination, voted a "plumper of six votes for their friend, and carried him through the contest triumphant" (p. 252).

So far, we have everything as satisfactory as could be desired; and in the "Columbia County Rules of Nomination" we have the same principle applied to the caucus. These rules are given at length, p. 257, and appear to be excellent. As they were adopted two years ago, they must be already in operation, and we wish that the volume contained an account of their practical workings. This is quite as important as the other, for in nine cases out of ten it is the caucus, not the election, that determines our rulers. Of course, a few experiments, when a system is new, cannot be taken as a criterion of its future workings, but we have every reason to be encouraged by those instanced.

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Owing to misunderstandings incident to the beginning of such an enterprise, the January and February numbers were not ready as early in the month as there is every reason to hope later ones will be.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MARCH 10, 1873.

THERE is no change to report in the condition of the money market. Borrowers on stock collaterals have paid as high as seven per cent. per annum, and one-eighth per cent. commission in addition. These rates softened for a time after the Comptroller's call, for a statement, showing the condition on the 28th of February of the national banks, was published; but the softening was temporary, and the close of the week saw the rate quite up to one-eighth per cent. per diem.

The report that $44,000,000 legal tenders would be reissued caused considerable comment on the Street. We are glad to say that the proposition receives little favor from business men in this city. Beyond the fact that an inflation of the currency is in itself an unsound measure, and of doubtful legality, the idea prevails that any relief afforded to the money market would be ephemeral and more than offset in its benefits by the increased cost of all productions. We sincerely hope that all the talk about a "right" of the Secretary of the Treasury to inflate the currency at pleasure is merely for the purpose of justifying Mr. Boutwell in what he has already done, and, if any "right" really exists, that he will look further into the propriety of such inflation than he has apparently yet done, and will cease listening to the clamorous voices of men imprudently expanded in their business, and now, when in trouble, rushing to the Government for aid. It is really time that the Treasury Department adopted a policy and lived up to it; and, as the present Administration has another four years' term before it, and all parties admit that return to specie payment is desirable, it is certainly useless to seek to accomplish that result by giving the people any more irredeemable paper.

The weekly statement of the city banks is favorable, mainly so on account of the decrease of their deposits. The national banks, which are obliged by law to hold 25 per cent. in legal tenders and specie against their liabilities, are in better condition actually than the statement would show, because this also includes the reports of the largest State banks.

The total liabilities of the national banks are $200,474,300, against which they hold $51,242,300 in legal tenders and specie, or $1,123,725 in excess of the arbitrary amount required.

The following is the statement of the New York City banks for the weeks ending March 1 and 8:

	March 1.	March 8.	Differences.
Loans	$281,344,900	$280,351,300	Dec. $993,600
Specie	16,370,500	17,149,600	Inc. 779,100
Circulation	27,601,300	27,801,200	Inc. 199,900
Deposits	202,066,100	199,508,700	Dec. 2,557,400
Legal tenders	40,724,000	39,473,000	Dec. 1,251,000

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	March 1.	March 8.	Differences.
Specie	$16,370,500	$17,149,600	Inc. $779,100
Legal tenders	40,724,000	39,473,000	Dec. 1,251,000
Total reserve	$57,094,500	$56,622,600	Dec. $471,900
Circulation	27,601,300	27,801,200	Inc. 199,900
Deposits	202,066,100	199,508,700	Dec. 2,557,400
Total liabilities	$229,667,400	$227,309,900	Dec. $2,357,500
25 per cent. reserve	57,416,850	56,827,475	
Deficiency in legal reserve	322,350	204,875	

The following table shows the relative condition of the National and the State banks:

	Loans.	Specie.	Legal Tenders.
State	$38,583,100	$1,541,700	$3,838,600
National	241,768,200	15,607,900	35,634,400
Total	$280,351,300	$17,149,600	$39,473,000
		Net Deposits.	Circulation.
State		$26,792,600	$43,000
National		172,716,100	27,758,200
Total		$199,508,700	$27,801,200

The leading features of the week in the stock market were the recovery in Panama, the fluctuation in Pacific Mail, and the rise in Harlem. Panama opened at 106¾ on Monday, rising to 113. On Thursday it touched 119, and on Saturday the closing quotation was 122½ bid, after selling at 123½ during the day. The stock of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company early in the week made a still further decline to 49, which proved "hard pan." The necessities of the leading operator in the stock caused the selling of a large amount at low prices, which, at the decline, passed into the hands of stronger parties, and at the close of the week the price was 56¾. Harlem advanced on Saturday to 139 from 127 on Monday. The speculation in this stock during the latter part of the week was quite active, especially so on Saturday, when the prices fluctuated between 133¾ and 139. The general market has been fairly active, and the feeling generally in favor of higher prices, especially for the better class of stocks, like Central and Hudson or Lake Shore. We see no reason why the general market should go higher under existing circumstances. It may be that in the Vanderbilt stocks something is going on, at present unknown to the public, likely to increase their value, but what incentive people have to buy such trash as "C. C. and I. C.," Boston, Hartford, and Erie, and Union Pacific, we can't imagine. Pacific Mail and Western Union are enormous foot-balls to be knocked about, and as they pretend to have some intrinsic value, and the former has recently declined about 54 per cent., it is not to be wondered at that people buy them. Taking prices as they are, and looking at the condition of the money market, the gold market, and the amount of foreign credit loaned to Wall Street, our advice to those outside of speculation who contemplate entering it is, "don't do it," at least not now.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending March 8:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales 8h's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101¾ 102¾	101⅝ 103¼	102⅞ 103⅝	102⅞ 103⅝	103⅜ 104½	104¼ 105½	141,100
Lake Shore	91⅜ 92⅝	91½ 93½	93¼ 94⅜	93⅛ 95	94⅝ 95⅜	94¼ 94⅝	274,400
Erie	62¼ 64¾	63⅛ 64¼	64¼ 65¼	65⅝ 66½	65¼ 65⅝	64⅜ 65¼	130,000
Union Pacific	34 34⅝	34⅜ 35⅝	35⅛ 35⅜	35¼ 35⅝	35¼ 35⅝	35⅛ 35½	58,100
Chi. & N. W.	81 81	81 82	81⅜ 82½	81⅜ 83	81⅜ 81⅜	.....	2,800
Do. prd.	88⅝ 89	89¼ 89½	89½ 89½	89¼ 89¾	89½ 89½	.....	1,100
N. J. Central	102⅜ 103¼	102½ 104	103¼ 103¼	103½ 104	103½ 104½	104 104¼	800
Rock Island	112 113¾	112¾ 113⅜	113⅜ 114⅜	113⅜ 114	114 115⅜	114½ 115⅜	50,100
Mil. & St. Paul	52 53	52 53	52⅜ 53	52⅜ 53¼	53 53¼	53 53¼	6,900
Do. prd.	73½ 73¾	73 73⅜	73½ 73½	73¼ 74	73¾ 73⅜	.....	1,500
Wabash	72 73	72 73¼	72⅞ 73¼	72⅞ 73½	73 73⅛	73 73⅜	5,400
D. L. & Western	100¾ 101½	101 101	101 101	101½ 101¾	101¼ 101½	101⅝ 101⅜	4,200
B. H. & Erie	8¼ 8⅝	8½ 8⅝	8⅜ 8⅝	9 9	9 9¼	9 9¼	9,800
O. & M.	44½ 45½	44⅜ 45⅜	45⅝ 45⅞	45⅝ 46	46 46⅜	45¾ 46¼	54,100
C. C. & I. C.	38⅜ 40½	36 38⅝	38¼ 40½	39½ 40½	39¾ 40⅝	39⅜ 40½	84,200
W. U. Tel.	85⅜ 89	85⅜ 88¼	84⅜ 87¼	84⅜ 86⅝	86 87⅜	85⅝ 86⅝	352,500
Pacific Mail	49 57	51½ 56⅜	54½ 57½	53¾ 56	55½ 57¼	54⅜ 57	285,300

The report of the president and directors of the Chicago and Alton R. R. Co. has been published. The following statements of the earnings for the past three years is given in the report:

	1870.	1871.	1872.
Gross earnings	$4,849,404 89	$5,278,910 23	$5,156,325 71
Expenses	2,786,105 85	3,080,824 77	3,277,178 27
Profit	$2,063,299 04	$2,198,085 46	$1,879,147 44

"The gross receipts from traffic were $122,584 52, or about $2\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. less than those of the preceding year. The net receipts were $318,938 02, or about 14½ per cent. less than those of the preceding year.

"The operating expenses of your lines (exclusive of taxes) amount to 61 per cent. of gross receipts; including taxes, $63\frac{6}{10}$ per cent. During 1871 the operating expenses were $56\frac{13}{100}$ and $58\frac{36}{100}$ per cent. respectively.

"The causes that have produced this unsatisfactory result may be mainly traced to the 'Chicago Fire,' and are, therefore, exceptional. During the greater part of the year, owing to the destruction of warehouses, it was impossible to obtain storage for grain arriving at Chicago on your line, without resorting to very expensive expedients, the cost of which was charged in the account of Operating Expenses. For a considerable portion of the year storage could not be had at any cost. Traffic in grain to Chicago ceased, and was forced by different channels to other markets."

The above explanation of the unsatisfactory results of the year's business will answer for that of other railroads running westward from Chicago, all of which have been more or less affected by the want of storage accommodation, since the fire, for grain brought to the city.

The Treasury programme for the month includes the purchase of $1,000,000 5-20s on the 5th and 19th and $500,000 on the 12th and 26th. On Wednesday, the 5th, the offers of bonds to the Assistant-Treasurer amounted to $3,097,250, at prices ranging between 113.53 and 114.15. The million was taken at 113.60 and under. The price of gold at the time the awards were made was 115⅛. The market for Governments has remained steady during the week both here and in London. Prices have changed but little, and the list has presented no interesting features.

The Treasury will sell during the present month $1,000,000 gold, on each alternate Thursday, making $4,000,000 in all to be sold. Just now the gold market is in a very peculiar position. The price has been advanced to a point at which it actually pays to ship coin from abroad to this country, and the operations of the "clique" engaged in advancing the premium will be watched with interest. The "clique" are reputed to hold $20,000,000—their control of a large amount being clearly shown on Saturday, when, by withdrawing a portion from the loan market, they were enabled to force borrowers into paying $\frac{1}{8}$ and $\frac{3}{16}$ per diem for its use. Fortunately, the mercantile community are not largely short, having very generally purchased, when they needed coin for their business operations, at current quotations. The "clique" is said to be under the leadership of Jay Gould. During the week the price has ranged between 114¾ and 115¾.

The total shipments of specie from this port since January 1, 1873, amount to $11,067,800, against $3,168,100 for the same time in 1872, $9,833,900 in 1871, $5,946,700 in 1870, $7,258,500 in 1869, and $14,087,700 in 1868.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 20, 1873.

The Week.

MR. DAWES has been defeated by Mr. Boutwell, who becomes Vice-President Wilson's successor in the Senate. Mr. Dawes's defeat is due to various causes, but he made so good a fight after the affair was generally supposed settled in Mr. Boutwell's favor that it appears as if but a very little more weight in his scale would have turned the beam in his favor—perhaps it would have been enough if he had kept himself out of the Crédit Mobilier business and had not equivocated when McComb's memorandum came out. If so, his failure is another reading of the lesson that a little thin-skinnedness, where personal honor and delicacy are concerned, may sometimes turn out as valuable to a public man as the most pachydermatous toughness. Mr. Bayard, for example, makes no bad showing beside Mr. Colfax, even regarding the thing as one of good policy alone. Some friends of Mr. Dawes, who adhered to his cause to the end, felt from the beginning that his record in the matter was badly against him. Every member from Massachusetts west of Worcester County, and about half the Worcester County members, voted for him, giving him half the total number of votes that he obtained. But a line drawn through Charles Street in Boston is said to divide the population of the State into two parts nearly equal, and the east of the State was strongly for Boutwell. Suffolk gave Dawes but 15 to Boutwell's 35; Middlesex stood 10 to 35, and Essex 11 to 22. Mr. Boutwell goes out of the Treasury with all the respect due in these days to a man who has remained pure and above reproach under no ordinary temptations.

Mr. Boutwell having passed the Senate, the vacant place in the Treasury Department has been filled, in spite of divers rumors about other gentlemen, as was anticipated, by Mr. Richardson, the Assistant Secretary. The objections to him are that he is an obscure man, who has not as yet given evidence of ability in any department; that he is a friend of General Butler; and, although last not least, that he holds firmly to the theory that the Secretary of the Treasury has the right to expand the currency of the country to the extent of forty-four millions of dollars, in his discretion. He carried out this theory to a limited extent last fall, and for so doing was severely reproved by a Committee of the Senate in language which public opinion found none too strong, and which ought to have rendered his further tenure of even the subordinate office he then held impossible. In appointing him therefore to a seat in the Cabinet, the President not only disregards the opinion of the Committee of the Senate but public opinion on this important matter, and adopts the Richardson doctrine.

Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson have themselves shown their disregard of the report of the Committee by issuing two or three millions of greenbacks within the last fortnight to meet appropriations made by Congress, and hold, we believe, that where any doubt exists as to the right to do this, it is to be presumed that the Secretary possesses it. The Forty-second Congress, which had time enough to vote itself "back pay," had not time enough to settle this most important question, and Mr. Richardson goes into office armed with a power over the property and contracts of the people of the United States such as nobody but a despotic ruler in the worst times of European or Asiatic history has ever claimed. We see in this, in spite of the separation of the executive and legislative branches of the Government, the necessity created by the increasing complications of modern life for thorough knowledge, on the part of the President, of human experience on great economical problems.

Mr. Richardson was for some years a judge of probate in his native State, and in his own and Mr. Boutwell's county of Middlesex, and we do not know that he had held any other office till Mr. Boutwell called him to Washington to be Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. This place and his judgeship he continued to hold at one and the same time, in spite of public comment on conduct felt to be somewhat indecent, Massachusetts being still tender on the subject of judicial dignity as well as judicial probity. At length somebody introduced in the Massachusetts Legislature a resolution which, if we recollect right, was passed, enquiring whether any judicial officer of the State, etc., etc.; whereupon Mr. Richardson sent in his resignation of his judgeship and kept his secretaryship. In this latter position he is best known for his connection with the famous Syndicate affair, in which, however, he acted as the agent and messenger of his chief.

The last week or two has finished a chapter in the history of civil-service reform which we shall sum up without note or comment. When the Surveyorship of this port was vacated by the resignation of Mr. Cornell, Mr. Benedict, who has filled the Deputy-Surveyorship for a great many years, was nominated by the President, and all the leading papers warmly applauded this adherence to "the rules," and the Administration organ called attention to it as an illustration of General Grant's fidelity to his promises. While Mr. Benedict's name was before the Senate, the members of the New York Ring began to proclaim that he would never be nominated, and finally one of them declared positively that the President had promised to withdraw him. A week later, he did withdraw him, which at first looked badly, but cavillers and doubters were silenced by the announcement that the place would still be filled "under the rules," inasmuch as the next best man for it would be selected from the other Custom-house employees by a committee of examination consisting of Messrs. George William Curtis, Jackson S. Schultz, and Collector Arthur. To an arrangement of this sort it was impossible to refuse confidence, so we waited patiently. No examination or report by the committee, however, was heard of, and last Friday Gen. Sharpe, the Marshal of this District, and an active politician, was nominated for the place. On Monday morning there appeared in the *Tribune* a letter, evidently written by Mr. Curtis's authority, declaring that the committee "had never, to the knowledge of Mr. Curtis, taken any action in the premises whatever"; and that if they had done so, "it was without consulting him, and against a specific promise of one of them"; and that "if 'Marshal Sharpe had been apointed in violation of the rules,' it was without his [Mr. Curtis's] knowledge or consent," and adding significantly that "men do not willingly consent to be thus publicly snubbed." The Postmaster here has resigned, too, and his place been filled by a Custom-house officer.

The rule under which this odd performance has taken place prescribes that, when a vacancy occurs in the Surveyorship, "the Secretary of the Treasury shall ascertain if any of the subordinates in the customs district are suitable persons qualified to discharge efficiently the duties of the office to be filled, and if such persons be found, he shall certify to the President the name or names of those subordinates, not exceeding three, who in his judgment are best qualified for the position, from which the President shall make the nomination to fill the vacancy." If no subordinate be found qualified, or the nomination be not confirmed, the place can be filled at the discretion of the President. The general impression left by the whole affair is that the Ring has got complete control of the patronage in this city, and laughs heartily at "the rules" over its "poker."

The civil-service news from New Orleans is not very cheerful either. Casey the Collector, who has been one of the main insti-

gators of the trouble there, and to whose gross misconduct in office we have made frequent allusion in these columns, was "investigated" by a Committee of Congress last year, and a very damaging report made on his performances. The report was withheld for a good while, apparently in the expectation that he would resign, and a rumor was spread abroad that he had resigned. If he ever sent his resignation in, however, he withdrew it, and went back to his post from Washington with unblushing front, and he has just been reappointed for four years more. Mr. John M. G. Parker, Mr. Ben. Butler's brother-in-law, has been appointed Surveyor of the port. Parker was one of five "arbitrators" recently appointed to settle the terms on which the city should purchase certain water-works from a private corporation. They fixed the price at $2,000,000, and recommended the purchase, which was accordingly made. Soon after, they made a demand for compensation for their services, which the city refused to pay, and they thereupon sued it, and it was brought out by the evidence of the president of the water-works corporation that he had paid them $15,000 at the close of the negotiations. The plaintiffs then meekly and calmly discontinued their suit.

Governor Dix has, as we anticipated he would, disregarded the decision of the extraordinary tribunal described by us last week on the degree of Foster's guilt, and has refused to commute his sentence. We trust Foster's fate will be a warning to all roughs. We will take the liberty of adding that we hope his case will bring wisdom to a large body of clergymen, lawyers, and kind-hearted persons generally, who are in the habit of signing petitions for pardon. To the ministers in particular who mix themselves up in these matters, we would say that their conduct is very mischievous. In the first place, their letters and petitions are not candid and truthful, and hardly can be, when the writers are acting as pleaders, and this brings discredit on their profession. In the next place, they help to create distrust of the law and its administrators, and to confuse the moral notions of the poor and ignorant, by the notorious fact that the cases in which Protestant ministers and members of the wealthier class generally display their interest and "work" for pardons, are usually cases in which the offender has had every advantage, in the way of money and education, and is blessed or cursed with wealthy and "influential" relatives. Witness the Ketchum case, and the Foster case, and—we hope we shall not have to say—the Stokes case. On the other hand, when a poor devil who has had no teaching of any kind, and whom poverty and all its temptations have followed from the cradle, kills somebody, he is left to his fate without a murmur. No lawyers overhaul the statutes for him, no ministers pray for him or weep for him, no editorials rend the air on his behalf.

We would also advise all sensible men and women who have sympathy to spare, to pour it out in all murder cases first of all on the unhappy victim who has been taken off without a moment's warning, next on his poor family, and finally on the millions of decent men and women who throng our streets day and night relying on the law for security, their pockets filled not with "deadly weapons" but with the tools of honest trades and the hard earnings of honest toil, and their heads filled with dreams of affection and the plans and schemes of useful industry and economy. We cannot watch over them too carefully, and feel for them too tenderly; and it is only after doing our whole duty to them that we ought to go to the Tombs to save the men who have been cracking their skulls or shooting them down. We are told that the murderers now in the Tombs, who have for the last fortnight been very cheerful, became very "silent and thoughtful" when the news of Governor Dix's refusal in Foster's case arrived. This is very singular if it be true, as we are assured, that murderers dread imprisonment for life more than hanging; or more singular still, if, as we are also assured, they do not care when they commit murder whether they are hanged or not.

The contest between the people and the railroad corporations assumes novel forms in the West. In Illinois and Iowa, local organizations, known as Farmers' Clubs or Granges, are said to have been formed, and to have succeeded in making the railroad question more prominent than any which has occupied public attention since the close of the war. Large public meetings are held, and resolutions of the most emphatic character are passed, affirming the right and the duty of the State to control freight and passenger tariffs. There are many practical difficulties, however, in the way of this. Illinois has passed laws fixing maximum rates on all of the leading railroads, and forbidding discriminating rates for freight, on penalty of forfeiture of charter; but in the only case which has come to a decision in the Supreme Court of the State, the court has virtually declared the law worthless. It recognizes the right of the State to prohibit "unjust charges," but puts upon the plaintiff the burden of proof to show that given charges are unjust. The decision has called forth violent denunciation of the judge who gave it. As he is soon to be a candidate for re-election, his decision will probably cost him his position.

That the people have reason to complain is evident. It costs more to carry goods from Chicago a hundred miles into the interior, than from New York to Chicago, or from Pittsburg to Chicago. Wherever competing lines cross each other, or come in close competition, freights are cheap. Shippers of through freight to the East often save money by shipping *westward* forty or fifty miles to some competing point, and paying the local tariff on freight which repasses them on its way to the East. The "fast freight" companies, particularly the "Red" and "Blue" lines, are largely owned by stockholders of the road, and the local business of the towns is neglected to give preference to the favored lines, which are thus able to compel shippers to pay extra rates or to suffer vexatious delay. Meanwhile, abundant corn harvests are burned as fuel, and it costs farmers living east of the Mississippi the price of three bushels of grain to place one in New York. Wages are still high, and the habits and expenses of the people are still based upon the inflated scale which war prices made common. The distress in many communities is great, and never since the commencement of the war has money been so tight. This state of affairs is said to be producing its natural result in threats of violence, embodied in the Farmers' Clubs' resolutions. Parties of farmers tender the legal fare, and compel the railroads to take it. The "bloated Eastern aristocrat" is much abused, and members of the Legislature have been even forced to give up their railroad passes.

The operations of the Memphis, El Paso, and Pacific Railroad afford a good instance of the International Swindle. This road was incorporated by the State of Texas in 1853, and its history to the present time may be summarized as follows: 90 miles of track graded, 3 miles laid, and "loose rails dropped along the track a few miles further." Ten locomotives imported from France, and various lots of railroad iron seized in New Orleans and New York for nonpayment of duties and for debt. Stock issued, $40,000,000; bonds and land certificates, about $13,000,000; total length of road, three miles; total debt, $53,000,000. In 1866, General John C. Fremont began to take an interest in the enterprise, and a large number of bonds were sent to Paris for sale. By a judicious manipulation of the market, fraudulent representations that the bonds were guaranteed by the National Government, and a forged certificate that they had been admitted to the New York Stock Exchange, which was indispensable to secure their admission to the Bourse, some five million dollars' worth were sold to some "three thousand French peasants." The road then passed into the hands of a receiver, and the bonds are admitted to be worthless unless they are shouldered by Mr. Thomas Scott, who needs the Memphis and El Paso road as part of his Southern Pacific, which it is needless to say is a great transcontinental railway.

The New Hampshire election returns show that the reaction against the Republicans has evidently not set in as yet with great violence. Last year, when much stumping was done in that State, the sum of the Democratic and Republican votes was rather more than 75,000; this year it is (unofficial, partly estimated, but fairly reliable) 59,000. The falling off from last year's vote is, in the total, 16,345. But of this decrease of rather more than 8,000 apiece for each of the two great parties, the Democratic half is rather the heavier, and there was a lighter loss in the Republican districts than in those strong for the Democracy. And if the vote is compared with that of two years ago, the showing is still less unfavorable to the Republicans, for then they lost all three of the Congressional districts and now they have won back two of them. A heavy snow on the ground, bad roads, and stormy weather are sufficient to account for the lightness of the vote, and it appears reasonable to think that whatever Republican abstention and apathy there may have been—and it is necessary to believe that some there must have been—it was pretty evenly matched by apathy and abstention on the part of the Democracy, who are admitted to have been inactive. Apparently, however, they, in conjunction with an unusually large number of scattering voters of the Temperance and Labor Reform parties, have defeated at the polls the Republican candidate for governor; but a Republican House and Senate will elect him. On the whole, it is for the Republicans somewhere near a drawn battle, and, under the circumstances, not discreditable to their discipline.

The news of the defeat of Mr. Gladstone by a small majority, and his consequent resignation, arrived last week just as we were going to press. The interval which has since elapsed has been passed in efforts thus far fruitless to find a successor for him, both Mr. Disraeli and Lord Derby having declined to form a Cabinet, and for the best of all possible reasons—the impossibility of securing a good working majority, and Mr. Gladstone has again agreed to stay in. The fact is that Mr. Gladstone still possesses, in a probably greater degree than any other man, the general confidence of the House. On Thursday, the day after the vote, notice was given of a motion that the vote on the University Bill was not, and was not intended to be, a vote of want of confidence. The University Bill we have discussed elsewhere. It appears to have fared worse out-of-doors than in the House of Commons. Every sect and party condemns it. The Catholic bishops, who are enraged by its offering no endowment for the Catholic University, while Trinity College, the new university, and the Queen's Colleges are handsomely provided for, have passed resolutions condemning it; Trinity College and the Queen's University are equally hostile; and indeed not one of the institutions it affects has shown any disposition to accept it except a small Presbyterian theological seminary in Londonderry. Protestants generally are of course opposed to it from its concessions to the Catholics, and the dread that the new university would eventually pass into Catholic hands; while the Catholic clergy hope for a still more favorable settlement of their claims by the endowment of their university.

Just before the retirement of the Gladstone ministry, the *Pall Mall Gazette* brought against the Treasury the charge of "nobbling the press." To nobble is not to bribe; the process is much more indirect and subtle. A newspaper is nobbled when its support is gained by furnishing it with information. A Liberal Press Agency is set agoing, for instance, in London, to supply intelligence to independent provincial journalists, etc., the Government furnishing funds for the undertaking. Something of this sort the *Pall Mall Gazette* intimates has been done, and as the *Gazette's* article has been called to the attention of the Treasury by the *Times*, it seems probable that there was something in it. There are a large number of Christian statesmen all over the world, who think that nobbling the press—or, for that matter, bribing it—is one of the legitimate weapons of Government, just as there are a large number of financiers, railroad men, agriculturists, shippers, mine-owners, and others interested in commerce or industrial or money enterprises, who believe in "rigging the market." These practices, though admitted to be, in the forum of private morals, wrong, are defended on the broad utilitarian ground that unless they are resorted to the Government, the party, the mine, the railroad, the cargo, or the crop, will suffer. On political grounds, one of the chief objections to nobbling is that in these days the competition between newspapers is so great, and their scent for news so keen, that the nobbler is generally found out, and nobbling once exposed loses more than half its charm.

The British and Russian Governments are reported to have come to terms on the subject of the Afghan boundary on the north. The Ameer is allowed to push his frontier to the Amu as far down as Khodja Salih, a small place within about 100 miles of Bokhara, which gives him Badakhshan and Wakhan, and makes a very respectable "zone" between the two empires. This line was proposed by Earl Granville and accepted by Prince Gortchakoff, the understanding being that England will use her influence to restrain the Ameer within the limits thus laid down, and induce him to refrain from all aggression, and Russia is pledged not to make the occupation of Khiva permanent. Vámbéry has written to the papers, recommending as a definitive settlement of all questions pending between the two empires the permanent possession not of Khiva only, but of Bokhara, by Russia, in the interest of civilization, and the strengthening of Persia on the northern frontier, so as to put an end to the incursions of the Turcoman hordes and the accompanying slave trade.

The report of the Committee of Thirty in the French Assembly has recommended that the present Assembly should not separate until it has regulated the organization and transmission of legislative and executive powers; has provided for the creation of a second chamber, and has settled the limits of the "pays légal," or in other words the qualifications of voters. But it appears that it is the Government, or in other words M. Thiers, who is after all to draft and submit the bills which are to do all this work. In short, M. Thiers has managed in spite of everything to have his own way on all essential points. The Extreme Right is dissatisfied with the report, because it proposes to make a settlement which may interfere with the establishing of a monarchy, and it is accordingly reported to have broken with the Centre, which is more practical, and is willing to deal with problems as they arise.

The news from Spain continues to be conflicting. Successes and defeats of the Carlists are reported in about equal numbers. The fact of most importance, and best supported by evidence, is, however, that the Federalist Republicans are gaining ground. Of the political vitality of the provinces, and of the strongly-marked differences between them, there is no sort of doubt. But the opinion grows that this vitality and these differences are so great that a Federal union would be the weakest possible bond, and that if attempted Spain would disappear rapidly from the list of nations. It appears to be still plainer that the national credit, at all events, if such a thing can be said to exist, would be killed by it at once, and it would render the maintenance of a national army impossible. The uncertainty as to their future, resulting from this state of things, is naturally producing its effect upon the troops, whose adhesion to the Government is apparently becoming more and more doubtful. To meet the dangers thus created, the ministers are resorting to the desperate expedient of "arming the people" with breech-loading rifles. Considering the wide diversity of opinion which prevails among the "people" concerning even the basis of a social organization, there is a fair prospect, by the time everybody is armed, of an anarchy which will make the Parisian Communists pale with envy. The Carlists, in the meantime, are trying to raise a loan in London, and are levying taxes all through the Northern districts, and promise the Government a "lively time" as soon as the spring opens. Conscription has been abolished, and the army is to consist hereafter wholly of volunteers.

THE MINISTERIAL CRISIS IN ENGLAND.

THE fate of the Gladstone Ministry can hardly be called very important politically, inasmuch as if Mr. Disraeli or any other Conservative should undertake the task of forming a Cabinet, which at this writing seems very unlikely, he would have nothing new in policy or principle to propose. There is not now, and has not been since the passage of the last Reform Bill, any difference between an English Liberal and Conservative which is capable of detection or appreciation by a looker-on from a distance. In fact, it might be almost said with safety that a Liberal is simply a man who hates Disraeli, and a Conservative a man who hates Gladstone, and that Gladstone as a legislator differs from Disraeli in having a more fertile and constructive mind. With relation to what is called "progress" they stand in about the same position. The spirit of change has secured a sufficiently strong hold on the English mind to make it impossible for any minister to stand still. Disraeli would move and alter and tinker as well as Gladstone, but he would do it with less "effusion" and with a less solemn air of responsibility.

But the Gladstone Ministry has been overthrown on a question with which, however little general interest it may have, the Conservatives are honorably associated. They were the founders of non-sectarian education in Ireland—perhaps the greatest boon conferred by English legislation on that unhappy country. The foundation of the "national schools" (common schools) opened in 1831 to all children, was the work in large part of the late Lord Derby. When it was felt necessary to complete this work by founding a university on the same principle, it was Sir Robert Peel who undertook and carried it through by the establishment of the Queen's University, with its three colleges of Cork, Galway, and Belfast. This university was at first accepted by the Catholic clergy with more or less cordiality, as its foundation (1847) was coeval with the prevalence of considerable liberality in the Papal policy, and preceded the ascendancy of the Jesuits and the initiation of what is commonly called the "Ultramontane policy" in all parts of the Catholic world. By the time the new colleges had got into working order, the liberal Catholic archbishop, Dr. Murray, had passed away, and his place had been taken by Cardinal Cullen, who was bred at Rome, and was apparently sent to Ireland with the express mission of pushing the claims of the Catholic prelacy against the state to their last limits. The tolerant, kindly, loyal, enlightened, and somewhat secular tone assumed by the bishops and priests after the Emancipation was laid aside for one of arrogant and menacing hostility, and the Government was speedily given to understand that, on the subject of education, there could be neither compromise nor co-operation between church and state. The Queen's Colleges were dubbed "godless," and denounced fiercely, by synodical address and Papal rescript, as places which no Catholic youth could frequent without danger to faith and morals, and the prelates went to work to raise funds for a purely Catholic university, to be managed by themselves, at the head of which they put John Henry Newman, and began to press the Government for a charter for it, and have contrived ever since to wage vehement and relentless war on the whole system of non-sectarian education, by all the arts known to a clergy exercising complete sway over a large body of ignorant, excitable voters.

Now the Liberal party have always been pliant to the point of weakness towards the Catholics. Their political conscience is undoubtedly tenderer than that of the Tories; they have been far more deeply impressed with the responsibility of England for "the wrongs of Ireland" than the Conservatives have ever made any pretence of being, and have always been ready to accept the Catholic clergy as to all intents and purposes the public of Ireland. Accordingly, the clerical abuse of non-sectarian education has gradually told on them, and they have been led, little by little, at the very time when nearly every other state in Europe is placing more and more stringent restraints on Papal pretensions, into a course of concession which, as everybody who knows anything of Papal history knows perfectly well, can have no limits. There *are* no limits to the demands of a Catholic theologian, except the government of the community itself by a board of bishops.

Accordingly, the crusade against the Queen's Colleges produced little direct effect on them. In so far as it injured them, it injured them by working on the mind of the public, and exciting doubts as to the permanence of their organization. The number of students increased steadily until 1851-2, when the Catholic Synod of Thurles officially denounced them. It then declined, but only for a year or two, and rose steadily during the bitter warfare which followed until 1856-7, when as a result of this warfare a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into their condition. The report was very favorable, and the number of students increased more rapidly than ever until 1864-5, when the Government gave way partially to the clamor by granting a supplemental charter to the Queen's University, enabling it to affiliate sectarian colleges, and grant degrees on examination to non-resident students. Some of the graduates thereupon raised a fund by subscription, and filed a bill in chancery, and obtained an injunction prohibiting the senate to accept the supplementary charter. During this process the attendance declined, and continued to decline until 1870, under the influence of continued apprehension of fundamental changes in the Irish universities. That these apprehensions were fully justified the bill lately introduced into the House of Commons shows. A more extraordinary measure has rarely been submitted to an enlightened legislature, as it really involves a sweeping surrender of the principle of unsectarian education, at the demand of the most arrogant and bigoted body of priests in Europe; at the very time, too, when Germany, France, Italy, are devising means to tie their hands, and narrow the sphere of their meddling.

The new bill abolishes the Queen's University, and substitutes for it a new one, of which Trinity College, Dublin, is to form the nucleus. Twenty-eight persons named in the bill are to form the Council of the new organization, and this Council, after performing certain preliminary duties, is in 1875 to assume complete control, ousting the Provost and Fellows of Trinity College for that purpose. It then enters on a second stage, by receiving into the Council representatives from certain colleges named in the bill, and in addition to this it will begin to affiliate such other colleges, denominational or not, as may ask for it, and will receive from each of such colleges one member of the Council if it contains fifty matriculated students, and two members if it contains one hundred and fifty. Now, the question which not only all Protestants, but all friends of non-sectarian education, are asking themselves, not in Ireland only but in England, is, how long would it take before the new university, including not only the Queen's University but Trinity College, with its "just and old renown," passed completely into the hands of the Catholic hierarchy? Not very long, everybody believes who knows of what sinful games those reverend gentlemen are capable when the interests of the Church are to be promoted. There are in six Catholic colleges in Ireland already about 1,250 students. Out of these, it is estimated, eleven colleges might be made, having each 150 students, and thus entitled to twenty-two representatives in the Council, or they might be made into thirty-five colleges of fifty students each, with a representation of thirty-five members in the Council; and that funds and "matriculated students" would be wanting to increase the number to any extent that might be necessary to give the Church the control of the Council, no thoughtful man believes. It is no wonder, not only that Trinity College, which has just thrown all its honors and emoluments open to all creeds, and the Queen's University, which has, in spite of all opposition, enjoyed the steady support of the Catholic laity, but that men of all classes who believe that the battle of free education and free thought has to be fought out with the Jesuits, not merely in Ireland but everywhere, and might as well be fought first as last, are opposed bitterly to a scheme of this sort, and that they have combined to defeat it, no matter at what cost.

There is one feature in it, however, which will probably, in the eyes of all lovers of learning and of free enquiry, reflect more dis-

credit on Mr. Gladstone's reputation than his other compliances towards the Irish prelates. To please them, he has actually provided that the new university shall give no instruction in mental or moral philosophy or in modern history, and that no examiner "shall attach any disqualification to any candidate in any examination by reason of his adopting in modern history, moral or mental philosophy, law, medicine, or any other branch of learning, any particular theory in preference to any other theory." The object of this is, of course, not only to avoid offending the Catholic bishops by teaching anything of which they are not likely to approve, in some of the most important fields of research, but to furnish them with the imprimatur of a great university for those peculiar views of the foundations of belief, and the basis of legislation, and of the great events of the last three centuries, which are taught to Catholic "seminarists" by their spiritual instructors. Fancy an examiner accepting as good the answers of a young priest, taught under the superintendence of Cardinal Cullen, to questions on the rise and origin of the "Subalpine Kingdom" or of the German Empire! Moreover, a university without philosophy is of course in our day a monstrosity. One of the greatest of living thinkers has said that the sole use of a university is to keep philosophy alive, and even those who are not prepared to accept this high standard must admit that a seat of learning which banished from its curriculum the consideration of the laws of the human mind and of the tests and sanctions of right living, would be an institution for which in our time it would be hard to find a place. The day for that sort of compromise has, fortunately or unfortunately, passed away.

THE SUBSTITUTE FOR HANGING.

THE prevalence of murder in this city, and the exceeding difficulty of getting anybody brought to justice for it, as illustrated in three such glaring cases as those of Foster, Stokes, and Scannell, is causing more than the usual amount of discussion about capital punishment, and is strengthening what is really the strongest argument of its opponents—viz., the impossibility of making its infliction certain. Their other arguments really have thus far had very little weight. The experiment of doing without it has never been tried long enough in any community of lawless habits to make the result of much value. As a matter of fact, the objection to it on the part of the public is found to be strongest in those countries in which respect for human life is lowest, although of course its enemies are found in greater or less force in all countries. Moreover, some of the facts occasionally produced against it—such as the occurrence of murders in spite of the hanging of murderers—really tell against all punishment for murder in an equal degree, inasmuch as we presume nobody doubts that, in this State for instance, murders would occur if every murderer who was caught was sure to be imprisoned for life.

Our present object, however, is not to discuss the propriety of hanging murderers, but to impress once more on the opponents of capital punishment the desirableness of providing a substitute for it before they do anything more to disturb the public mind about it. They have thus far confined themselves to denouncing it as unwarrantable, and cruel, and ineffective; but this is simply demagogue's work. The reformer is bound to go further, and when he declaims against one form of punishment—provided he believes in punishment at all—to say what it is he proposes to put in its place, and to give his reasons for thinking that the substitute would prove efficacious. The result of their labors in this city, and the only result that we can see, is the creation of a mental and moral confusion about the crime of murder, which has not only transferred popular sympathy from the victim and his family to the murderer and *his* family, and has made it all but impossible to get juries to convict in capital cases, but has rendered the public indifferent and blind to the importance of regular and efficient judicial procedure or healthy and rational judicial habits. What better proof of demoralization could be offered than the efforts made to save Foster from the gallows—consisting as they did of a kind of rehearing of the case by a large crowd in the street? If that had succeeded, the propriety of having murder cases tried by "the people," through the newspapers, and the verdict rendered by ballot on a separate ticket at the November election, would have been a fair subject of consideration.

We would now beg to inform those who thought Foster ought to have been imprisoned for life, and that all murderers ought to be treated in the same way, and that if they were, murders would be much rarer, that there is really no such punishment as imprisonment for life in this State, or in any other in the Union; and that if the punishment they propose to substitute for hanging be what passes under the name of "imprisonment for life" in this State, they are either talking about what they do not understand, or are asking the community to make an experiment of a most serious kind without explaining its nature. In other words, anybody who maintains that, when General Dix commutes a murderer's sentence to "imprisonment for life," the murderer will remain shut up in jail till he dies, is either deceived himself or is trying to deceive others. We have pointed out more than once that the average duration of a life sentence in Massachusetts, in which prison management is perhaps better than in any other State in the Union, is seven years. Let us now look at the experience of some other States on the same subject. We have before us a medical report made in 1868 on the Auburn State Prison, which has for fifty years been one of the glories of New York. Between 1818 and 1868, 214 persons were committed to that prison under life sentences. Of these, 34 died from natural causes; 8 went mad; 2 committed suicide; 1 escaped; and 10 were transferred to other prisons; leaving 159 to be accounted for. Well, of these 159, twenty-five remained in the prison at the date of the report, and 134 had been pardoned. Perhaps, however, they were pardoned after long years of suffering, and were discharged when age or confinement had made them harmless? Nothing of the kind; their average period of servitude was six years and six months. In other words, when a man is sent to jail for life in this State, he has over sixty-three chances in one hundred of liberation inside seven years. This experience is very much that of all the States. In Massachusetts, 50 per cent. of the life prisoners are pardoned; in Pennsylvania, 13½ of the whole number imprisoned for all periods; in Ohio, 40 per cent. of the life prisoners; in Wisconsin, 33 per cent. In short, we repeat that imprisonment for life is, to all intents and purposes, an unknown punishment in this country, and the machinery for inflicting it does not as yet exist. When we are asked to agree, therefore, that what is called by this name shall be substituted for hanging as a protection against murder, we are really invited to try whether the desperate scoundrels by whom we are surrounded in all our great centres of population will not be deterred from knocking us on the head by the chance of having to serve six years in the State prison.

What, in point of fact, is the effect of this sentence on the mind of criminals now? What is its value as a deterrent against the commission of other offences? On this point weshall quote ano ther report, not yet printed, now lying before us, and we ask for it the attention of all thoughtful men:

> "The unanimous testimony of the wardens of the State prisons is that the hope of pardon is well-nigh universal among convicts. This occupies their thoughts by day and fills their dreams by night; to the attainment of it their best energies are given, as well as the greater part of the money they can earn by overwork, or can command, for the race of pardon-brokers is not yet extinct. . . A person convicted of murder in the second degree, attended by the most aggravating circumstances, who has powerful friends, and is plentifully supplied with money, has tenfold more chance of pardon than a poor wretch found guilty of petty larceny."

If Dr. Dimon had had Foster's or Stokes's case in his mind when he wrote this last sentence, he could not have said anything more strikingly applicable; so that the argument of uncertainty which is so strongly urged against capital punishment can be urged with still greater force against imprisonment for life. Against the former, the prisoner has the chance of escape from arrest, and that of the failure of evidence and of the disagreement of the jury; but if he is hanged, there is an end of him. Against the

latter, he has not only all these chances, but the chance of pardon or escape during a series of years, which is worth tenfold as much as the others put together. The influences which now operate, even after conviction, to save a murderer from the gallows, do not cease with the commutation of his sentence. The money and affection which were used to save his life, would be used just as energetically to get him his liberty. Lawyers would be got to split hairs, clergymen to entreat, Sunday-school teachers to pray and bless, just as fervidly, if Foster were in jail under a life sentence as if he were waiting for death. The pity of his case would be full as great. It would surely be as great a shame to shut a pious, inoffensive, modest youth up in a dungeon during his whole life for having, while slightly intoxicated, struck a hot and impulsive blow, as to hang him by the neck till he was dead; and this estimable though misguided citizen would be back among us in 1879 once more, the pride and admiration of his pastor and his old playmates.

A life sentence, too, it ought to be said, would have no great advantage on the score of humanity over a death penalty. If it is certain, or if the criminal can be got to believe that it is, it is terrible. On this point the reports tell a dismal tale. Insanity is fifteen times more prevalent among life convicts than among the others. Death or insanity, it is estimated, disposes in four years of twenty-seven per cent. of life cases. If you put 100 men in jail for life, and took away all hope, the statistics warrant us in believing that in fifteen years there would not be a man of them left; so that our much-sought-for "commutation," if it were really what it professes to be, would be the substitution of death by slow torture for death at one stroke.

No one should lift up his voice against capital punishment, or "work" for commutations for murderers, without thinking on these things. The question of punishment for the graver offences against the person or property is a question which becomes daily more serious. It is not solved by erecting fine jails, as we all thought thirty years ago, or by shutting a man up for life, as some of us think now. It is no great gain to humanity to drive a man mad instead of hanging him, and no great gain to security or morality to threaten him with any penalty which he has one chance in two of escaping. For it ought not to be forgotten that the tendencies of our day help to rob all penalties of their terrors which require prolonged periods of time for their infliction. As we see in the delays which attend our murder trials, the reluctance to inflict any penalty at all increases with the distance of the crime in point of time. A fortnight after a man has been slaughtered, everybody is willing to have the assassin executed; in two years, a large proportion of the community would be willing to "let him run." So also, if he is imprisoned for life, carelessness as to whether he is kept in or not, and even doubts as to whether he ought to be kept in or not, grow as the years roll on, and under precisely the same influences; and though the public gets lukewarm, friends and relatives do not tire. The effect of the democratic experiment of the last forty years, besides depriving the thoughtful class—that is, the class which looks farthest back and farthest forward—of much of their influence on politics, has through its system of short terms, numerous elections, and want of responsibility to determinate bodies of persons, promoted indifference to remote consequences in an extraordinary degree, and stimulated the tendency to live from day to day, and let the devil take the hindmost. That some of the worst effects of these things are seen in our administration of criminal justice is not to be wondered at. No art is more difficult and delicate, in none are the results of any policy slower in showing themselves, and on none of the affairs of the state do the happy, prosperous, and well-to-do, as long as they are not themselves put in serious peril, bestow less attention.

Let us hope that one of the great results of the reform movement which is now spreading over the country like a flood, will be a calmer and more serious investigation of the best mode of repressing crime than it has yet received. We trust that the Constitutional Commission now sitting at Albany will not separate without drawing up some plan of rendering the conviction of criminals more certain, and making punishment something more like the action of society defending itself with inflexible will, than of a mob roused to passion by a repulsive spectacle.

FAILURE OF THE LEGITIMIST FUSION.

PARIS, February 28, 1873.

ALL hope of a fusion between the two branches of the royal family of France must now be abandoned. This reconciliation has been tried somewhat against hope. The principles of the Bourbons and those of the Orleans have never been the same; many memories rise like phantoms between the representatives of the divine right and the representatives of the Revolutions of 1789 and of 1830. But after the terrible misfortunes of France, a sort of conservative instinct inclined many to try to bring revolutionary France back to its old traditions. Many who had hardly allowed themselves to think of the Comte de Chambord, remembered that his ancestors had conquered the provinces which France had just lost; they remembered that what is now called France had been, so to speak, constructed by that family which first seized power in Paris, many centuries ago, in the Isle de France, and slowly and patiently destroyed all the forces of feudalism; they remembered that sixty princes of this noble house died on the battle-field. There was in this movement towards what was called a *fusion* something almost poetical. And this was well seen on the 21st January, when the Princes of Orleans went to the chapel erected in memory of Louis XIV.; many witnesses were in tears, and an old gentleman approached the Princes and said: "Thank God! France will now be saved."

Alas! there is little poetry in life, and especially in politics. A correspondence has just been published which shows that the Comte de Chambord is not animated by other feelings than the last Stuarts were, and that he will make no sacrifice to his pride and to what he considers as his right. In order well to understand this correspondence, you must be aware that the tricolor flag has been denounced by the Comte de Chambord as the flag of the Revolution; and that, to all the overtures made to him by friends of the Orleans family, the Comte de Chambord has always answered that he could enter into no negotiations of a political character till the Comte de Paris had made him a visit and recognized him as the head of his family and as his king. "Unconditional surrender" was his motto, not only with regard to his cousins, but with regard to France. The Comte de Paris said that he had come back to France determined to accept the decisions of the majority of Frenchmen; that he was not himself a pretender, and, in case the constitutional monarchy was restored, he would consider the Comte de Chambord as the only representative of this monarchy. The Duc d Aumale, at the same time, had made at the tribune of the Assembly a declaration in favor of the tricolor flag. It seemed easy enough to arrange these differences, as the Comte de Paris really made a great sacrifice in not bringing forward his claims as son of the king of 1830; some ingenious people had discovered that at one time the king had his own flag and the army another.

The union in the Parliament between the Right and the Right Centre—that is, between the Legitimists proper and the Orleanists—had become very close; these two fractions together formed a strong majority, and checked completely the policy of M. Thiers's last message, which had assumed, notwithstanding the promises of Bordeaux, a decidedly republican character. A commission of thirty members was named at the end of last year, in order to reorganize the relations between the executive and the legislative powers. This commission was almost wholly composed of members of the Right and of the Right Centre. It had very vague and indefinite powers, and its mission could easily have extended even to the preparation of a definitive constitution. The history of its discussions would appear rather futile to an American mind, but it must always be understood that the commission was really speaking and discussing against time; the negotiations for a fusion were meanwhile going on, and the final resolutions of the commission depended on their result. What this result was will clearly be understood if I cite a few lines of a letter addressed by Bishop Dupanloup to the Comte de Chambord on the 25th January:

"When one has received from Providence the mission and the duty to save a people, and when under one's eyes this people perishes, I believe, and many of your friends believe with me, that in a question of fusion there are reciprocal duties. For this question of a fusion is not only between the Princes of Orleans and your person, it is between France, them and you. This is the truth; and it means that in this question all have their duties and their responsibilities. And if ever a forlorn country has asked from the man whom Providence had reserved as its supreme resource kindness, clear-sightedness, all possible sacrifices, it is France, sick and dying. To err on such a question, to construct for one's self, even from a noble sentiment, impossibilities which before God would not be impossibilities, would be the greatest of misfortunes."

This was noble and patriotic language, which loses much of its pathos in

my translation; it was also the language of reason. If, as the Bishop said, a son of Henri IV. had come to France, sick and dying, and exclaimed: "Here I am, I come from a long exile, I am not impatient to wear a crown which could only be a crown of thorns, but if I can be of any good to my people, if you believe that my name is still a force, use me, use me as you like. I will sign with both hands any constitution which may be offered to me by the National Assembly"—this attitude and this language would probably have touched a people which has generous instincts and has never been insensible to whatever has a poetical and imaginative aspect.

On the 8th February, the Comte de Chambord from Vienna wrote to Bishop Dupanloup a letter in which he expresses his regret not to be able to follow the counsels dictated to the Bishop by his patriotism. "You seem to attribute to chimerical scruples, of which God will ask of me an account, the non-success of the efforts so often tried in order to procure a fusion of the two branches of my family." The Comte says that his pretensions have never been an obstacle to such a reconciliation. He has no prejudice against persons, but his duty is to preserve in its integrity the hereditary principle: he is the guardian of this principle. He assumes the situation of the head of a family in a patriarchal state; he evidently looks upon the Orleans princes as insubordinate members of the family; he would have them not only pay him homage but take his orders in everything. Under the old régime the king had an absolute power over the members of the royal family; they were in a more subordinate condition than vassals before their lords. But they had their own domains, their places of surety, their own regiments, and many of them fomented civil wars and made alliances with foreigners. Surely, such a state of things cannot be restored and ought to belong to the past. All traces of feudalism are now effaced, and the civil law does not give any authority to the eldest branch of a family over the younger branch. The hereditary principle which the Comte de Chambord represents, gives him no moral authority over his cousins, and, as the Bishop well says, it would be idle for him to be reconciled with his cousins if he was not reconciled with France. But he does not propose to himself to become reconciled with France; he says again that he will not adopt the tricolor flag, and calls it the symbol of the revolution. "I have, therefore," he says, "no sacrifices to make nor conditions to receive. I expect little from the power of men and much from the justice of God. When the trial becomes too bitter, a look on the Vatican reanimates courage and fortifies hope. It is at the school of the illustrious captive that one can learn firmness, resignation, and peace; that peace which is assured to whoever takes his conscience as a guide and Pio Nono as a model."

This declaration places the Comte de Chambord out of the horizon of vulgar politics, on the top of a Sinai. He is more Catholic than the most Catholic of bishops, more French than France. The *émigrés* of 1815 were often accused of being more royalist than the king; but I defy any Legitimist of our time to become the subject of this criticism. The Comte de Chambord has taken dogmatic and theological views of his own position; he is the absolute head not only of a family but of a nation; and to all that is said to him he replies "*non possumus.*" This formula can be understood in intellectual and religious matters, but the relations of the executive and legislative powers, of the king and the parliament, belong after all to the category of worldly things. Monarchy is a human contrivance, or, if it can be considered as divine, it is not in any other sense than a tree or a flower or anything else.

I am not, I confess, of those who admire this extraordinary absoluteness —I don't know if I may use the word—of the Comte de Chambord. I cannot help suspecting calculation in this affectation of simplicity. A courage which destroys the hopes and expectations of thousands of honest and faithful partisans is not the sort of courage I admire; I see nothing noble in the attitude of a man, whoever he may be, who says to a suffering people, "Ask for pardon, and I will see if I can grant it." I make every allowance for the natural affections of a man; I know what dreadful memories the Comte de Chambord can find in the history of the last hundred years; but is there one man now living who had any part in the execution of Louis XVI., in the assassination of the Duc de Berry? And if the Comte de Chambord cannot forget this blood, let him remain in exile, and abdicate. But to keep his rights simply not to use them, as the key of a forbidden treasury, is conduct which is neither generous nor just. On a subject which is so grave, I almost hesitate to tell an anecdote which presses itself on my memory. During the Terror, several men were carted away in the famous *charrette* to the guillotine. They were all quiet and silent, except one, who wailed and screamed and was in a terrible excitement. He became so noisy that one of his companions turned round to him and said, "You don't like the guillotine—well! I understand that; but you should not disgust others with it! (il ne faudrait pas en dégoûter les autres!)" The Comte de Chambord does not mean to rule over France, but he stops the way for those who would have been willing. The Republic will naturally profit by it; it will first be M. Thiers's Republic, and there is just now a sort of an enlarged *constitution Rivet* made for his own personal use. After a personal Republic, will the day of a real Republic ever come? This is a question of which the solution depends on so many elements that it is hard to answer it. M. Thiers is a curtain which conceals an unknown future. Under the name of republic, the Conservatives will endeavor to establish a sort of constitutional monarchy, in which the king will be elective, and not wear a crown. Self-government, federalism, are conditions which exist in America and in Switzerland, the only two countries where there are real republics. France is centralized, and centralization will for a long time to come give a monarchical character to all its institutions, even if the word Republic is painted on all its monuments.

Correspondence.

IMPROVED BANKING FACILITIES BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CHINA.

[House Document No. 159 consists of a letter from Secretary Fish covering one from Mr. David H. Bailey, United States Consul at Hong-Kong, on the above subject. It is too long for us to print entire, but the following extracts are a fair summary of its views, which Mr. Boutwell has pronounced "of great importance," particularly worthy the attention of American bankers:

"At present, all the vast sums of money passing between America and Asia are paying enormous tribute to London. . .

"We have thus: 2 per cent. London banking commission; ½ per cent. to 1 per cent. profit or charges of the banks in China and India; ½ per cent. to 1 per cent., at least, additional expense on treasure; say from 3 to 4 per cent., at the very lowest, which our importers and consumers of Eastern produce pay to England for negotiating American bills drawn in China, India, etc., on London. I think, however, that, on an average, 4 per cent. is nearer the mark than 3. . . .

"If a banking profit has to be made on exports to the United States, American banks and bankers can and ought to make it, and do the business more cheaply than it can be done by way of London. . . .

"The plan that suggests itself is for a powerful American bank or company of bankers to establish branches at all the chief places of trade in the East, and issue credits and buy drafts direct on New York, San Francisco, and other centres, and thereby get the control of the American-Asiatic trade. . . .

"As a corollary to the banking or exchange question, I may suggest the great importance of a coinage by the Government to meet the requirements of the Asiatic trade, or more especially that of China."

On this scheme and the reasoning which supports it, a valued correspondent furnishes the subjoined comments, to which we would call the careful attention of all Congressmen and other persons who have been giving any heed to the views and opinions of our Secretary of the Treasury or our Consul at Hongkong. Since his letter was written Congress has ordered the coinage of a silver trade dollar, weighing 420 grains, and exceeding the Mexican dollar in value by 27-100ths of one cent.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Mr. Bailey's letter, while indicating his zeal to serve his countrymen, is founded on misconceptions so palpable that he cannot live six months in Hongkong without discovering for himself the futility of his suggestions. If the officers of the Government to whom he wrote had taken the pains to refer to the New York Chamber of Commerce, or to any merchant of general experience of foreign trade, the useless printing of the letter would have been saved.

His proposition is, in simple words, that English capitalists insist upon furnishing the money to American merchants for the silk and tea required for the United States; that they charge about 4 per cent. for doing so; and that American merchants tamely submit to this arbitrary treatment, "because it is the way in which the business has been done for years."

The actual facts are these: A New York merchant wishes to buy teas in China. His first care is to provide the wherewithal for buying. He finds at the moment there is no merchandise that will sell in China without a loss greater than the current rate of exchange. He finds further that if he sends out silver, the loss in freight, interest, and insurance is also more than the loss by exchange. Perhaps, being an ardent American, he then enquires for some fellow-countryman in China who has ready money in that country, and will be willing to receive it back in New York when the teas reach home. He discovers that no American capital goes to China for such purpose, and that his fellow-countrymen there are all in the same box with himself, and all

want money. He enquires what they do, and learns that some of the English residents have surplus funds, and that the American (as well as other English) buy of them at rates of exchange which rise and fall with the scarcity or abundance of such surplus, as anywhere else in the commercial world. He then does likewise. Mr. Bailey would here say that he knows all that (though his letter by no means intimates that he does), but that his point is that if American bankers would "issue credits and buy drafts," then there would be American capital in China ready for this national demand.

To follow that idea: One cannot issue credits and buy drafts to much effect unless he sends hard cash to the desired point to buy with. To send hard cash to China and purchase drafts involves going without interest for eight months (voyage out one month, waiting upon the market one month, transit of mail home one month, issuance of drafts on New York, which must be five months to match the six given on London), besides insurance and freight out, at the least 1 per cent. The lowest interest at which American capital could be procured for the business is 7 per cent. Therefore, the loss by interest and expenses to be made up by the buyer of the money is 5⅔ per cent. The English money in China is mainly from the sale of imports, and not only lies there ready for use without charge of interest, but has, to the other side of the account, the saving in insurance and freight home, amounting to 1 per cent. At home there is to the seller six months' loss of interest from the usance on the bills, which are at six months' sight, at the rate of 5 per cent. a year, say 2½ per cent., from which deduct 1 per cent., and loss to be made up is 1½ per cent. The English competitor for furnishing money would therefore be in the field on a basis 4 per cent. better than Mr. Bailey's powerful American bank, and it will be allowed at once that the patriotism of the most ardent American would not stand the test of such a difference.

Owing, however, to the demand for money to pay for the tea and silk to England and America (the first fivefold the latter), the rate of exchange ranges higher than the simple loss on sending home money derived from the sale of imports, and in point of fact the average of the year leaves a small margin over the cost of importing silver itself from California and Europe. That the margin is very small is shown by the fact that silver is actually shipped to England from China in the same years in which it is exported. The well-known facts of the case are: that exchange fluctuates greatly at those distant points; that the rate sometimes shows a profit on importing silver from England or California, sometimes a loss; that the condition of the import market for cotton fabrics and for opium affects it beyond the possibility of calculation; that the English banks, for the chance of an exceptional rate, are always ready to import silver at a very small margin on cost, counting interest at 4 to 5 per cent. If an American bank undertook to supply the funds needed for purchases of exports over and above the amount provided by sales of imports, which is what Mr. Bailey advocates, in the increased competition for bills which would follow it would at once have to face the 4 per cent. disadvantage above stated.

The simple explanation of the whole matter is, therefore, that England has an abundant surplus capital, and is willing to lend it to the United States to move across the ocean the Eastern products which she needs. That she does so at rates of interest and charges of commission which make it quite impossible for American capital to compete, if any offered for the purpose. That none offers for the purpose, if only for the other reason that the United States is only too happy to have some one else furnish the funds for the great Eastern trade, as she needs all her own money at home. Probably there are not many even here who object to a little British gold to aid their industrial enterprises.

I am able to prove beyond dispute the fact of the charges being low. When I first lived in China, 20 to 25 years ago, the prominent houses, notably one American, did a flourishing exchange business; that is, they acted as intermediaries between less-known houses and British capital, by buying the drafts of the former on London, giving them currency by their endorsement, and then selling them to the holders of British hard money. There was then but one English bank, and its business was often less than some one of the mercantile houses in its own department. Free trade, however, greatly increasing the volume of commerce, attracted cheap capital, and more and more banks established themselves, always cheapening rates, until the mercantile houses were entirely pushed from the business, the remuneration not being sufficient to pay clerk hire, except on a very heavy business.

With regard to shipments of silver from California direct instead of via England, as it is nearly all English money that comes to China from *either* place, it is a matter which concerns the English more than it does us. But it may console Mr. Bailey to learn, as he can if he enquires, that the English are already alive to the saving, and, as far as the complicated affairs of commerce allow, do now avail themselves of it. Mr. Bailey's view, that it is a monstrous thing that when the United States is already in debt to England every year for direct transactions, she should add $50,000,000 to that debt for her Eastern purchases, is specious but shallow. For of course it is only mutual advantage that could lead to such an otherwise unnecessary proceeding.

His second suggestion is, that the United States should coin a dollar of the same value as the Mexican. This step, well managed, might lead to valuable results. It has been several times considered in England, and rejected on account of the cost. It is quite useless to expect the least aid from the Chinese Government. It has not the power, if it had the will; for a Government which cannot establish a coin of its own can do nothing for a foreign coin. In lumps of silver the Chinaman finds a surety of value not to be had in anything endorsed by his Government. If, however, the United States will issue an unexceptionable dollar of uniform standard and value with the best Mexican, and sell them, with the loss of all expenses for ten years or so, and something below the value of the pure silver in them for the first five, very likely they will become current in Chinese outports, to the great convenience of every one there. It would cost the country a million or two of dollars, perhaps, and all the first would be melted up on arrival in China, but it would at last bear fruit to some one, if faithfully carried through.

EDWARD CUNNINGHAM.

Notes.

THE *Publishers' Weekly* has a useful department called "Index to Book Reviews," in which the classification is by publishers, and British journals are marked with an asterisk.——'Rouge et Noir,' from the French of Edmond About; 'The Hemlock Swamp, and a Summer at the White Sulphur Springs,' by Elsie Leigh Whittlesey; and a complete edition of Swedenborg's works, are among the announcements of Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger.——George Gebbie will publish shortly the fifth edition of a 'Biographical History of the Fine Arts,' by S. Spooner, M.D., with a supplement.——The March number of the *American Naturalist*, besides much interesting matter, contains Prof. O. C. Marsh's description of the "Fossil Mammals of the Order Dinocerata," with two plates of the curious skull of an animal which to the lay mind suggests a cross between a walrus and a rhinoceros, which carried three pairs of horns with tusks to boot, and which in other respects would be classed with the elephant and mastodon.——Petermann's *Mittheilungen* No. 2 of the present year gives a map of the disputed boundary in the San Juan or Haro Archipelago; and, to show the insignificance of the subject-matter of a quarrel between two great nations, adds for comparison a map of Malta on the same scale, the relative area being as 8 to 5.——G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their announcements of spring publications the following: 'Tylney Hall,' by Thomas Hood; 'Modern Magic,' by Prof. M. Schele de Vere; 'Facts and Fancies,' by Miss Sedgwick; 'Rejected Addresses,' by Horace and James Smith, illustrated; and 'The Vicar of Wakefield.'

—Mr. E. Steiger, the well-known German publisher and bookseller of this city, has devoted himself to the preparation, for the Vienna Exposition, of a complete collection of American periodicals, accompanied by an explanatory catalogue showing the characteristics of each periodical represented. As if this labor of love were not sufficiently arduous, Mr. Steiger has concluded to append to his catalogue a list of Original American Works (including translations, but excluding all reprints) and an index "in which the subject-matter of each will be found registered, so that on looking for any special subject one would be referred to the various publications treating of the same." Accordingly, he offers to furnish publishers and authors who wish their works so entered with the necessary blank forms, to be filled up and returned to him. We infer from a circular of his that our publishers have been rather indifferent to this gratuitous advertising, and that if the authors themselves do not come forward, his scheme stands in danger of being thwarted. We need not say that this would be greatly to be regretted. Mr. Steiger may have the poor consolation of knowing that Mr. Leypoldt has been equally unsuccessful in his endeavors to get complete returns from the publishers of their current issues. It is one more argument against the common notion that self-interest and self-seeking are distinctive American traits.

—Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., of the Massachusetts Board of Railroad Commissioners, has recently made an argument on behalf of the Commission before the Legislature of that State, in favor of the purchase by the State of what may be briefly described as the Fitchburg and Hoosac Tunnel lines of road. The purchase would include the Vermont & Massachusetts and the unfinished Massachusetts Central. His argument is this: The experience both of this country and of all others shows, in the words of Stephenson, that in

industrial enterprises "where combination is possible, competition is impossible." Railroads furnish the best illustration of this economical law, and the rate at which railroad combination all over the country is going on we all know. The only way in which the principle of competition can be introduced is by the ownership and management of part of the railroad system of a state by the state itself. This experiment has been tried in Belgium with great success, the effect of the economical official management on the minds of the managers of the private roads having proved very beneficial. To quote from a recent report on the subject: "The state, though always acting on a footing of equality in matters of rates, facilities, or purchase, has been able to lead or drive the companies to adopt its principles without putting in force parliamentary powers, or having recourse to anything but the moral influence of its position. For in spite of the hostility and criticism of its opponents, the state has been able to carry through its measures, and has made a fair financial success, inasmuch as the present year (1872) will probably show a net return of six per cent. upon the invested capital." This system the Massachusetts Commissioners wish to see adopted, and they think it far preferable to the present system of State supervision or regulation. Under this system (now in vogue throughout the United States), the State first gives the railroad to a number of private individuals, and then undertakes to regulate the profits. Now, the inevitable effect of this separation of ownership from supervision is that the corporation soon finds out that it must control the supervising power—the legislature; in other words, the supervising power left in the hands of the State is very soon regarded by the corporation much as an outstanding encumbrance, which must be bought up. Hence the lobby and many other iniquities.

—If, however, the ownership and the supervisory power were united in the same hands, Mr. Adams thinks there would be no more trouble; and he points to the case of local water-boards, where the water-supply is controlled by the local government itself, and asks, Who ever heard of a water-board lobby? The objection that governments have no business to meddle with private enterprises is disposed of very easily. Mr. Adams admits the principle, but says that there are exceptions to it. Whenever any business becomes at once a monopoly and an unendurable monopoly, he thinks the state justified in interfering. This is the present case of the railroads. One difficulty with the experiment Mr. Adams does not seem to have considered, and that is, that in case of the assumption by Massachusetts of one or two roads, and a really honest attempt at railroad reform, through a railroad board, the other unpurchased lines would at once attempt a combination with the board itself; they may not do this in Belgium, but they would in Massachusetts. Still, the principles of the argument are sound, and, in view of the history of the Hoosac Tunnel, the Hartford and Erie scandal, and the Marginal Freight business, any experiment commended to the public by so much ability and study as this Commission has given is worth trying.

—In the death of Dr. John Torrey, on the 10th inst., New York lost its most eminent man of science. He was born here, in the year 1796, has been connected with its institutions of science and learning from his earliest manhood, and here, in quiet perseverance, nearly all the work of a long and most industrious life has been done, and well done. His earliest publication —a catalogue of the plants inhabiting the vicinity of his native city—was almost the work of his boyhood, and of a time when good botanizing ground was found as low down as Canal Street. He lived to see his choicest botanical stations near home covered with brick and mortar, and to extend his investigations, first through the Northern States east of the Mississippi—producing, in the precious years which intervened between the taking of his medical degree in 1818 and his call to professorial duties in 1824, a volume which placed him at the acknowledged head of American botanists; then, in elaborating Dr. James's collections made in Long's expedition, he opened up the botany of the Colorado Rocky Mountains, to the highest peak of which a grateful pupil and ardent explorer has since affixed his name; and in due time, annexing Texas and California scientifically before they became politically ours, he bore the foremost part in the development of the botany of the continent. We need not here enumerate his writings, a large part of which are in the scattered papers, reports, etc., in which discoveries are first recorded; but the complete and elaborate 'Flora of the State of New York,' in two quarto volumes, and the unfinished 'Flora of North America,' should not pass unmentioned. Nor should it be forgotten, in estimating his labors, that, although from botany came his earliest honors and an enduring fame, his livelihood came from chemistry, which he pursued, if not with equal devotion yet with genuine love. Science is a jealous mistress, in our days more so than in former times. The highest peaks are single, and one must choose which to surmount; but the high table-land from which they rise may be more widely traversed. The circumstances of the time and situation prescribed, all but imperatively to Prof. Torrey, as to most of us, his line of duty, and required that the larger portion of his time and energy should be given to the work of instruction and to the practical applications of science. In the year 1824, soon after his marriage, he accepted the Chair of Chemistry, Mineralogy, etc., at West Point; in 1827, he was translated to that of Chemistry and Botany in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in this city, to which, a few years later, were added the duties of a similar chair at Princeton College. About twenty years ago he relinquished the latter, upon an urgent request from the then Secretary of the Treasury (who knew his value) to take charge of the Assay Department in the Government Assay Office. After this he soon gave up his duties at the Medical College, but was made a trustee of Columbia College, of which the Medical School became a department, and to which he gave not only invaluable services, but also his vast botanical collections and choice library. To these useful and needful services he gave his days—his nights to botanical researches quite to the last. Up to a few weeks ago, his light could be seen until near midnight in the herbarium of Columbia College. Up to Monday week, as we are told, he signed, although with feeble hand, the official report of the daily work at the Assay Office, faithful to every duty and every detail to the last; and then, at set of sun, and as peacefully, he went to his final rest. He was not only an eminently useful, but an eminently good man; and it is pleasant to know that his simple, unpretending, and spontaneous goodness was appreciated, had some of its reward even in this world, and so verified the Scriptural warrant—not, indeed, in houses or lands, or other worldly goods, for which he cared too little, but in that "good name which is better than riches," and in the esteem and affection of all who knew him. Never was man more entirely loved. Indeed, if only those to whom he has been helpful, even those upon whom he has lavished precious time and disinterested service, could gather this day (March 13) at his funeral, there would be a large concourse of mourners.

—The death of James Savage at Boston on the 8th inst. brings forcibly to mind the extent and value of his work as an antiquary. The more active part of his life was passed before the memory of the present generation begins. Born July 13, 1784, graduated at Harvard in 1803, admitted to the bar in 1807, chosen to deliver the Fourth of July oration in 1811, a member of the Legislature, Councillor, etc.—these are dates hardly associated with one whose greatest work appeared in 1862. Mr. Savage, however, was a man of amazing vitality, and at fourscore his heart and brain were as healthy and vigorous as at twenty. The numerous tributes to his memory which have appeared are full of testimony to the fact that for more than sixty years he impressed his individuality strongly upon all who met him. Honest, fearless, truthful, earnest, all of these great words were rightfully applied to him. His literary career more properly concerns us here. Mr. Savage had always a scholarly turn. He contributed papers to the *Anthology*, the *North American Review*, and other magazines. Some fortunate chance turned his energies to historical subjects, and he became the editor and annotator of Winthrop's 'History of New England.' The work was the corner-stone of New England history; the method of the editor was an example and incentive to all later students. Still later, he commenced giving form to his chief work, which was a genealogical register of all the settlers in New England before 1690, tracing their descendants for three generations. The book was finally published in 1860-1862 in four volumes, containing 2,500 pages 8vo. Such a work is without a rival. It is true that the materials were ample and the subject lay within unusually well-defined limits. The records of the early colonists were carefully preserved, and every facility was cheerfully given to the investigator. Still the patient labor, the unfailing energy required, the mere persistence for twenty years in the daily collection and arrangement of facts, were enough to hinder ordinary students. Mr. Savage was exceptionally brave in undertaking the task, as he was unusually fortunate in living to complete it. His work was of national value, for he traced the beginning of the most powerful section of that English race which has indelibly stamped its features upon the country. It is useless to say that the work of preparing the register was well done, for there has been no dissenting voice on this point. Mr. Savage did alone for the entire population of New England that service of classifying and preserving its ancestral records which a score of writers in other countries have done for a section of the aristocracy. As a literary feat in this branch of letters, it can best be compared with Dr. Johnson's Dictionary when contrasted with the work of the French Academy. A single author has succeeded in doing the work of a multitude.

—In one of Dr. Büchner's recent letters to the *Gartenlaube* written from this country, there is an amusing example of what to the unscientific mind might appear as one of the chief dangers of careless scientific observation. He is speaking of an evening party at which he noticed that the ladies in the round dances moved with a more gliding step than do their sisters in Germany. And this fact he explains by those laws of race which

gave the Indian his crafty, silent footfall as he approached the slumbering village in order to murder the innocent inhabitants. In the same way, might not the supper at parties in this country be an unconscious imitation of the orgy with which, in all probability, the victorious red man diverted himself after his victory? In the same letter the distinguished writer gives indication of almost equally acute political insight. He says of the Massachusetts Congressmen that they are, as a rule, among the most intelligent and advanced members of that body. This letter should be translated for the benefit of the inhabitants of North Easton and other places in that State.

—Mr. Tobias Lear, of Portsmouth, New Hampshire, was an early specimen of that class of New England youths who carried their education and thriftiness to the South, seeking and finding their fortunes. In 1783 he graduated at Harvard College, and at the age of twenty-three and after graduation returned to Portsmouth, where his father was a shipmaster, and afterwards a well-to-do farmer. At this same time General Washington was in want of a private secretary, who should also be the tutor of Mr. Parke Custis's two children, and he applied to General Lincoln for assistance in the matter. Lincoln, with the Rev. Dr. Haven, of Portsmouth, selected young Tobias Lear, who at once took up his residence with Washington's family, and became in all respects one of them, marrying for his second wife a niece of Mrs. Washington, and retained Washington's entire confidence during his life. Jefferson, on his accession to office, made Colonel Lear Consul-General in San Domingo, and afterwards to the Barbary powers. Coming home thence in 1812 on account of the declaration of war, he became an accountant in the War Office, and died while holding that place in 1816. What brings this old time office-holder to the surface again at this day is a letter of his recently printed by a relative, in which Private Secretary Lear gives some account of Washington's farming ninety years ago this month. "We are now enjoying the sweets of spring," he says, writing to a friend in Portsmouth, where, no doubt, the wind from the Isles of Shoals was far from being bland in the last week of March, if indeed the snow was not white upon the ground. "My General," he says, "is one of the greatest farmers in America; and I don't think I should be much out if I was to say in the world. . . . The General possesses in one body, where we live, near 10,000 acres of land. We employ upon it constantly upwards of 250 hands. We raise none of that pernicious weed called tobacco, but follow the more rational employment of providing for man and beast. . . . We are obliged to live at so great an expense" [although the General employs no overseers, and the farms are every day, "unless it is absolutely stormey," visited by the General himself] "that it brings in no profit. The negroes are not treated as blacks in general are in this country; they are clothed and fed as well as any laboring people whatever, and they are not subject to the lash of a domineering overseer—but still they are slaves." Mr. Long's note to the Boston *Transcript* adds that "Lady Washington" gave to Mrs. Lear some of her own and Washington's hair, with which, after the fashion of that time, Mrs. Lear wrought on a sampler of black satin these inscriptions:

"*This is worked with our illustrious and beloved General George Washington's hair:*

"Which covered his exalted head,
But now enrolled among the dead,
Yet wears a crown above the skies,
In robes of bliss which never dies.

"*This is worked with Lady Martha Washington's hair, relict of our beloved General.*

"I pray her honored head
May long survive the dead,
And when she doth her breath resign,
May she in heaven her consort join."

—A late *Athenæum* contains a story which ought to seem entirely incredible, but which, unfortunately, will not seem so to anybody conversant with the official mind in its lower forms of development. To the end of the world people will kill other people by pointing "unloaded" guns at them, and will fling into the fire, or store in leaky garrets and dripping cellars, records and books and pictures almost priceless. When the government of India was assumed by the Imperial Parliament, the Honorable East India Company's old quarters in Leadenhall Street were at once swept clean of the records there stored. No less than three hundred tons of these documents are said to have been sold to a paper-making firm, and vast quantities of history were at once converted into pulp; for instance, the whole history of the Indian navy perished in this way—and it was a formidable fleet that once sailed under "John Company's" flag, and one which habitually gave a good account of itself. From one of the cartloads of these records on their way to the tanks, an old leaf happening to blow down was picked up by a gentleman, who has laid it before the editor of the *Athenæum*. It is a brief letter written by the famous and infamous Villiers, first Duke of Buckingham, the favorite of James I., the companion of Charles, and the victim of Lieutenant John Felton, and is addressed to "My very loving friends, the Governors and Company of the East India Merchants." These gentlemen endorsed upon it the date of its writing and of its receipt, "November 28, 1619," and "December, 1619"; and further made a note of its contents: "My Lord of Buckingham about resigning his interest in my Lord of Warwick's goods." It runs as follows:

"After my heartiest commendations. Whereas his Majesty by his former letters, about the beginning of the last summer, signified unto you that he was pleased to bestow upon me that part which belonged to him out of the forfeiture incurred by the Earl of Warwick: Yet since he hath likewise been pleased to write also in my Co (*sic*) (Cousin?) of Warwick's behalf, I have thought fit to signify unto you that I do willingly remit to him likewise all my interest and . . . that I had therein by his Majesty's said warrant. And so I rest, your very loving friend,

(Signed) "G. BUCKINGHAM.

"NEWMARKET, 28th November, 1619."

The cousin referred to was, as we suppose, the Sir Robert Dudley, self-styled Earl of Warwick, who fled the country with his mistress, and a part of whose confiscated estates Buckingham, then in the height of his power, of course secured. This same Buckingham—not as yet a duke, however—also figures in another newly unearthed document which, as it happens, is mentioned in another part of the same journal. The "Addenda" to the 'Calendar of State Papers' (domestic series) for the period between 1580 and 1625 gives us a glimpse into Buckingham's house by means of a list of payments made by Mr. Endymion Porter at his lord's command. Among the sums disbursed is one of £303 "to the Lady Marquis." Another entry is "Alex. Brett, for pearl, £30 10s.; another sets down £1,000 to Sackville Crown for house expenses; another, £10 to a musician who presented a set of books; another, no less than £500 to Sir John Suckling, the poet; another, £200 to Lady Purbeck; and the list concludes rather provokingly with a mutilated entry: "given to Vandyke, the picture drawer—" ——.

—We find in the Shanghai *Budget* an account of a new Chinese periodical after the European model, called the *Ying-hwan-so-ke*, or *Monthly Magazine*. It consists mainly of reprints from the daily paper from whose office it is issued. In the second number, the subjects treated take this order: (1) comparative physiology; (2) the building of the steamer that first carried the telegraph wires from England to America; (3) humorous sketches from Japan; (4) ten sketches illustrating various phases of European and Chinese life; (5) five articles on Chinese literature, religion, customs, etc.; (6) two dissertations on style, etc., etc. The contents occupy 50 pages, and the magazine sells for 80 cash (about 7 cents) a copy. Japan, however, by far outstrips China. Twenty-four books were published in Yedo last year, of which nearly all were translations. "With one exception," says the *Japan Gazette*, "they relate to what were once foreign subjects. Seven are translations of foreign elementary works on chemistry or physics, four on geography, two on American history, and three on civil law." One gives the Japanese text of all the treaties of Japan with foreign countries; another, a full list of all Japanese officers above a certain grade; and a third is on the "Principles of Freedom." Meantime, the old-rags industry has sprung up, those now cast off being largely from stuffs of foreign make, whose coloring presents no obstacle to bleaching; and alongside of the hitherto exclusive manufacture of paper from mulberry bark, rice-straw, and similar fibres, the production of paper from rag pulp is now being tried under native auspices. A Japanese resident in London has begun the issue of an illustrated paper printed in Japanese (*Tai Sei Shimbun*, or *Great Western News*), designed to reflect, for the benefit of his countrymen at home, the opinions of those who have seen the world and learned European languages.

NEW WORKS ON BIBLE REVISION.*

ONE of the few creditable actions of James I. was the patronage he gave to the preparation of the Authorized Version of the Scriptures. It appears that this Solomon among kings was partly moved to this step by offensive expressions respecting popular rights contained in notes of the Geneva Bible, which was then in common use. The fact that the progress of philological study and changes in the English language imperiously call for another revision—for King James's Version was only a revision—is now practically acknowledged, even by the conservative class; and a British and an American committee, in co-operation with one another, are fairly at work on this important undertaking. Dr. Schaff has brought together valu-

* 'The Revision of the English Version of the New Testament. By J. B. Lightfoot, D.D., Canon of St. Paul's, etc.; Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin; C. J. Ellicott, D.D., Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol. With an Introduction by Philip Schaff, D.D.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.

able essays having relation to it from three of the most eminent English scholars, Lightfoot, Trench, and Ellicott, and has introduced them with an extended, instructive preface from his own pen.

On one point the plan of the present revisers will be conceded to be wise. They do not propose to make a new translation, but limit themselves to the correction of the old. The merits of the Authorized Version are too great to justify changes of a wider scope; while any rule less sweeping would leave untouched a portion at least of its grave and manifest defects. Two things are essential to a good translation. The first is an adequate acquaintance on the part of the translator with the languages which he has to employ in his work. This is the philological qualification. The second is that sympathy with the very life of the book to be rendered, by which one reproduces, so to speak, its living essence. The old English translations of the classics, even when they are grossly incorrect, often have this latter excellence in a most remarkable degree, and are in striking contrast with not a few accurate but colorless and lifeless products of more recent scholarship. Professor Goodwin did wisely in correcting the old version of Plutarch's Morals, instead of making a wholly new one. The idiomatic, racy flavor of that early translation, full of blunders though it was, is something almost impossible to produce at the present day. It is a style full of marrow and blood. There was a ferment, a profound religious agitation, in the sixteenth century, which discloses itself in all the literature of that day, and out of which grew the inimitable excellences of the translation of Luther and of the old English versions of the Bible. This peculiar pith, naturalness, and idiomatic life it is possible to preserve, at the same time that advantage is taken of the great advance made since in textual criticism and in the grammar and lexicography of the original tongues.

Of course, an enterprise of this kind has to contend against strong prejudices. Jerome, when he was preparing the Vulgate, was assailed, as Dr. Lightfoot shows, by the same objections which have been alleged lately against any alteration of the English Bible. It was said that common people would be perplexed by the variety of renderings, and their religious views would become unsettled. Even so great a man as Augustine participated in these scruples. Here we may indicate what we conceive to be the principal danger that besets the learned bodies to which this business has been committed. They will have to resist a pressure, emanating in part probably from some of their own number, to retain forms of expression which are known not to represent truly the original, but which have attracted to themselves, from long association, a sentiment of attachment. The plain duty of the revisers is to eliminate errors of every kind, wherever they are discerned. If the decision of all questions were left to the scholarly authors of the essays before us, in particular to Dr. Lightfoot, we should have no apprehension on this point. Nothing can be more sound and judicious than his exposition of the rules that should govern in the cases referred to. But there may be reason to fear that a majority even of the English committee may not be always found willing to abide by these principles. We will take a strong example in order to illustrate our meaning. The doxology attached to the Lord's Prayer (Matt. vi. 13) is acknowledged by competent critics to be an interpolation. This is the view of Lightfoot (p. 44) and of Ellicott (p. 122). It is a liturgical phrase that probably crept into the text from the margin. The revisers are manifestly bound to leave it out, and must do so if they would be faithful to their own professed canons. Yet we can easily conceive that objections may be raised to the omission of a phrase so identified in the popular mind with the Paternoster.

Dr. Lightfoot presents a convenient classification of the changes which the revision will effect. The first head is that of False Readings. The very defective character of the *textus receptus* will necessitate numerous changes having their origin in this cause. Some of these, as will be seen from the instance just given, are important. Most of them make no material alteration in the sense. The pericope of the woman taken in adultery (John i. 8–11), and possibly the close of Mark's Gospel, are, as Dr. Lightfoot wisely judges, cases to be treated by themselves. They are so incorporated with the literature in all languages which has grown up in connection with the Bible, that for this, if for no other reason, they cannot well be utterly dropped. The best course may be to include them in brackets. Possibly the doxology in the Lord's Prayer might be dealt with in a similar way. This, however, appears to us hardly necessary. The doxology is wanting in the other Evangelists; and how many of those who are accustomed to pray for the forgiveness of their "trespasses" know that they are taking a term, not from King James, but from the Prayer-Book? It is a curious sign of the strength of Anglican conservatism that in the Prayer-Book the phraseology of the earlier translations has been retained where it is not conformed to the Authorized Version. This, however, is not a more curious mark of ecclesiastical inertia than the erroneous printing of the Nicene Creed in the same manual of devotion; the epithet "holy" being omitted from the Nicene phrase, "one holy Catholic Apostolic Church." At first, probably, an error of transcription or of the types, it has been perpetuated; perhaps because an act of Parliament might be required to correct it.

From the consideration of textual errors, Dr. Lightfoot passes to the artificial distinctions created in the Authorized Version. The same Greek word is rendered, not unfrequently in the same verse or chapter, by different English terms. Examples are afforded by the use of "pity" and "compassion," in Matt. xviii. 33; "children" and "sons," in Matt. xx. 20; "separate" and "divideth," Matt. xxv. 32; "everlasting" and "eternal," Matt. xxv. 46. In all these, and in numerous other instances, an identical word is represented by several English words instead of by one. This strange proceeding serves to perplex the ordinary reader, by suggesting distinctions of idea where none exist. The reason which is given by the authors of our present version for pursuing this course is even more singular than the fact which they attempt to explain. They say that to adhere to one English word in such circumstances would savor "more of curiosity than wisdom," and that they might be charged (by scoffers) with some unequal dealing towards a great number of English words, if they took one to the exclusion of another. To us it would seem that the course which they adopted, arbitrary and misleading as it is, is much more adapted to excite "scoffers" than if they had given a correct and uniform rendering to the original text. The same rendering of different words, by which real distinctions are obliterated, is an equal blemish in the present version. In John x. 16 the same word *fold* stands for two Greek words, one of which signifies *flock*. The point of the passage, which depends on the distinction between many *folds* and one *flock*, is hence entirely lost. The confounding of the Greek words *to be* and *to become*, which pervades the translation, is not only an infelicity, but in many cases materially affects the sense. Faults of grammar, which are very numerous, can generally be corrected with ease. The ignorance of the translators with regard to tenses is one of the most conspicuous features in King James's Version. The failure to discern the precise meaning of the aorist, and the confounding of this tense with the perfect, is a fruitful source of confusion. The argument or train of thought of the sacred writers is, in some cases, hopelessly obscured from this cause. Examples are Romans vi. 1 seq.; Col. ii. 11 seq. Another striking instance is 2 Cor. v. 14. "If one died for all, then were all dead," says the received version. The Apostle says: "If one died for all, then all died"; that is died—potentially, or in idea—when He died: and this rendering is required by the context. Rom. v. 12 is, we think, a parallel instance. It should read, in the last clause: "for that all sinned"; that is, when the first man sinned, and not "have sinned," as our translators have it. There has been a world of theological discussion on original sin, which has connected itself with this verse, but the irrelevancy of which is seen the moment the signification of the aorist is perceived, and its distinction from the perfect. The neglect or mistranslation of the definite article, and the want of discrimination in the rendering of prepositions, will afford to the revisers an important field for the introduction of improvements. In lexicography the errors to be eliminated are fewer in number, although some of them are quite serious. In the treatment of proper names and official titles there is great room for revision. As Trench observes, how much more vivid is the impression made in the reading of Matt. xvii. 10, if in the room of *Elias* we substitute *Elijah:* "Why then say the Scribes that Elijah must first come?" It was the old prophet himself whom they expected to reappear. Our English Bible, as is well known, being not a fresh translation, but the product of a revision—as the title-page says, "with former translations diligently compared and revised"—presents the English language in the state in which it was at a still earlier day. Hence the number of archaisms to be weeded out is proportionately large. The substitution of a single word for another that is obsolete in the sense required will, in many instances, dispense with the need of a commentator's note. One benefit of the revision, it is humbly hoped, will be its tendency to shorten commentaries. Put *urgently* for *instantly*—which no longer has the meaning wanted—in Luke vii. 4, "They besought him instantly," and the true sense of the passage is at once visible. "Strain *at* a gnat," for "strain *out* a gnat," is a typographical error which has kept its place, no one being authorized to remove it, even if the majority of readers had so desired.

In these remarks we have confined our attention to the New Testament, to which alone Dr. Schaff's volume relates. The problems to be solved by the Old Testament Committees of Revision are, in some respects, quite different. They have more mistakes and blemishes to remove, but they are saved from much labor in the way of textual criticism; since unhappily, the materials for such an undertaking, however desirable it would be, do not exist.

RECENT POETRY.*

IN his new poem Mr. Morris has given his admirers new reason to admire, and the rest of the public some reason for being thankful to him, for, superficially at least, "Love is Enough" is unlike the narrative poems of which Mr. Morris's muse has lately been so prolific. It is more elaborately constructed than anything else that Mr. Morris has done of late years, and indeed we at the moment recall nothing in the 'Defence of Guenevere, and Other Poems,' highly finished and artificially skilful as was the workmanship in that set of poems, which shows more intricacy of elaboration than this poem. It is a "story which is told by way of a morality before an Emperor and Empress newly wedded," and shows forth the history of a certain King Pharamond. Pharamond the Freed, the playmaker styles him, because, having left crown and kingdom to seek her love of whom he has dreamed, and having, for the sake of her love, lost both the kingdom and crown, he finds that Love alone, and Love only, is enough, and that in his servitude and that of Azalais there is perfect freedom. The Emperor and Empress are in love with each other; they sit in presence of their burgesses, who fear lest the mutual love of their lord and lady should divert from their subjects the love the Emperor had formerly shown them; two lovers, whose love is in its early summer, serve to introduce the pageant by talks about it between them as they walk into the town from the peaceful farm beyond the walls; two lovers whose love is in its golden spring enact before the company the story of Pharamond and Azalais; between the scenes Love himself enters as a sort of chorus, and the music of love-songs is played

What the play sets forth is King Pharamond's love towards his people; the love passing that of brethren borne Pharamond by Master Oliver, his best knight and best counsellor and second father; and, finally, the love with which Pharamond is inspired by Azalais, whom Love shows him in many visions, and Azalais by Pharamond, whom also Love guides in dreams.

The main story is simple and common; but our brief synopsis will serve to show that Mr. Morris has surrounded it with accessories skilfully designed, which make the poem quite a masterpiece of artful workmanship. Add that, departing from his so-called Chaucerian verses, Mr. Morris has, in "Love is Enough," adopted a loose imitation of English alliterative verse, which admirably answers his purpose of steeping the scene in an atmosphere of mediævalism—of Mr. Morris's mediævalism, that is to say; of the mediævalism of those middle ages when life was made up not as life has been in every age known to history, but quite otherwise; when it did not mainly consist of the great facts of birth, and death, and land-travel, and seafaring, and marriage, and the love of children, and the hard necessity of earning salt to one's porridge, and hope, and ambition, and disappointment, and sunshine, and rain, and affliction, and disease, and the fear of death, and the consolations of religion; but when it consisted mostly of high-waisted maidens standing about in what Alice in Wonderland calls "Anglo-Saxon attitudes"; and of knights who either traduce these maids or ride safely across the portcullis in time to save their mistresses' character; and of walled towns with red-tiled roofs; and of shaveling priests; and of granges about which

"Deep green water filled the moat,"

while, within, three sisters pine for three knights who have returned no more

"Since the *Sword* went out to sea,"

and of haubergeons, and great store of other properties.

In the essential spirit of the poetry, in the range of feeling, and the depth of feeling which it addresses and arouses, and in the amount of permanent satisfaction which it gives, 'Love is Enough' will not be found different from the other poems of its author. It is true of him, under whatever concealments of carefully wrought surfaces he works, and whether he is professing simplicity and Chaucerian naturalness, or is abandoning himself with his eyes shut to a reverie of Norse life or of Greek life, that he is nevertheless always and everywhere the same. The passion of love, or rather a tranced and languorous dream of the sexual passion, dreamt by one who as yet knows neither men nor women, nor the workings of the human heart, this is always to be found in him; the equally dreamy and more apathetic philosophizing, to call it so, about the vanity of human activity, unless "love, still love," prompts it and is its object and its end, this is equally sure to be found; and so is the pensive and melancholy acceptance of the destiny of man—

"Man that passes by
So like the gods, so like the beasts that die"—

a destiny which is never protested against, and which one is never beguiled or thrilled into forgetting. Very surely, too, as every reader of Mr. Morris knows, does one find marvellously skilful picture-painting, and with one of these pictures we shall bid good-by to the book. It is a book, we may say, which we do not profess to have read with complete satisfaction. The pleasure given by Mr. Morris's poetical skill and his highly developed taste is a pleasure of so high and so poetical an order, that at once the reader applies to him a very severe standard. We demand of a poet so well furnished for the plying of his vocation, that he shall produce in us those inspiring and delighting and elevating effects produced by the best poetry of the poets,

"Who on earth have made us heirs
Of truth and pure delight by heavenly lays."

This Mr. Morris does not do, and the reader is too apt to become ungrateful for what he does get, and to grow weary—although it may properly enough be urged that Mr. Morris has given the reader other reasons for being weary than the one which we have mentioned, and we may all be glad for everybody's sake that the narrative poems are, for the present at least, at an end. The passage which we were to quote is the one following. There are prettier things in the book, but this contains an entirely characteristic "decorative" picture, and the verse illustrates the metre chosen for the body of the poem. Azalais, walking out in the May morning, prompted by Love, who has brought Pharamond to the shores of her land, finds the King sleeping on the turf, and far spent with the toils of his wanderings:

"—Not death, for he sleepeth; but beauty sore blemished
By sorrow and sickness, and for all that the sweeter.
I will wait till he wakens and gaze on his beauty,
Lest I never again in the world should behold him.
—May be I may help him; he is sick and needs tending,
He is poor, and shall scorn not our simpleness surely.
Whence came he to us-ward—what like has his life been?
Who spoke to him last—for what is he longing?
—As one hearkening a story I wonder what cometh,
And in what wise my voice to our homestead shall bid him.
O heart, how thou faintest with hope of the gladness
I may have for a little if there he abide.
Soft there shalt thou sleep, love, and sweet shall thy dreams be,
And sweet thy awaking amidst of the wonder
Where thou art, who is nigh thee—and then, when thou seest
How the rose-boughs hang in o'er the little loft window,
And the blue bowl with roses is close to thine hand,
And over thy bed is the quilt sown with lilies,
And the loft is hung round with the green Southland hangings,
And all smelleth sweet as the low door is opened,
And thou turnest to see me there standing, and holding
Such dainties as may be, thy new hunger to stay—
Then well may I hope that thou wilt not remember
Thine old woes for a moment in the freshness and pleasure,
And that I shall be part of thy rest for a little."

Among all the books in verse which we have looked over recently—and the number of such "has increased, is increasing," etc., as fast as ever before—we believe the one best adapted to please is the unpretending compilation called 'Songs for Our Darlings.' We are glad to recommend it to all parents who have on their hands young ladies and gentlemen now just beginning to commit poetry to memory; or for whom it is designed that some such employment shall speedily be provided in the interest of peace and quietness, and lest a worse thing should befall them. There is hardly one of these pieces that is not excellently fitted for its purpose, and the quantity of them is bountiful. Many old favorites we observe in turning over the pages, but also many new ones drawn from recent English and American writers, such as Miss Marion Douglas, the author of 'Lilliput Levee,' and the numerous other writers for children who have been so successful in their task, that we are constrained to admit that while we think Cowper's rose,

"Just washed in a shower
Which Mary to Anna conveyed,"

ought to be in every family, we are persuaded, too, that room should be made for these scores of new-comers also. It is not a painfully pious collection, we may add, but good-natured, and playful, and spirited. Yet the parent will find in it a very good body of morality on such subjects as that of fighting the cat; of stealing jam; of being greedy about tarts, and afterwards suffering from pain in the stomach; of being generous with your plum-cake, and consequently saved from the not dangerous but painful complaint just mentioned; of untidiness in dress; of unwillingness to put one's doll to bed, and be dressed for "company tea"; of precipitancy in bringing home pies from the baker's and breaking the pie-dish; of assaulting and slapping one's smaller sister; of waking the baby; of crying because one's face is to be washed; of playing truant, and coming to the county jail at last; of rudeness to old ladies, and of many similar topics, all of which are handled freely and forcibly.

Here is an apostrophe to chastity, from a poem entitled "The Vendetta," which is the work of Mr. Thomas B. Peacock, a Western poet, who

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* 'Love is Enough: or, The Freeing of Pharamond. A Morality. By William Morris.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1873.
'Songs for our Darlings.' Boston: J. E. Tilton & Co. 1873.
'Poems. By Thomas B. Peacock.' Independence: Kansas Democratic Publishing House. 1872.
Rhymes Atween-Times. By Thomas MacKellar.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.
'Garnered Sheaves: The Complete Poetical Works of J. G. Holland.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong, & Co.

appears to reside far inland, in Missouri, but whose poetry deals much with the ocean and pirates:

"Chastity! thou that long hath held
The World's existence on in Virtue's modest cheek,
Man owes to thee in heart, joy knell'd,
For little pure that's saved from Vice—Corruption's wreck—
Warm thanks to surface ever gurgling up,
As o'erflows th' boiling sparkling chaldron cup."

Here is a much warmer passage, taken from the same poem, descriptive of the person of the Countess Inez Galvo, afterwards mistress of the sea-rover "Gonzailes":

"Ah! here's what allures—here's what entices—
Leads man to virtue or deep into vices—
No sylph nor nymph more graceful could be
Than Inez th' beautiful Pearl of the Sea.
A pearl she was if perfection implies,
Her lips were carmine, dark lustre her eyes;
With brow as fair as lily which blows,
Or airy flake on the mountain's repose;
Carnation cheek, smile of love, teeth of pearl,
A being look'd she from Heavenly world.
Hair hue 'twixt hyacinth and raven's plume—
From Paradise an angel stray'd—Fate's doom!
Like a pearl she was found on the dark rolling sea,
And the only one saved from the wreck of the *Bee*."

'Rhymes Atween-Times' is a formidable three hundred pages of verse, written "in the between-times of a busy life," by Mr. Thomas MacKellar, and which, "yielding to the suggestion of his long-known, large-hearted friend, Mr. George W. Childs," Mr. MacKellar now collects and publishes. He mingles with these some poems which have appeared already before, in book-form, for in the course of his life he has published several volumes of poems besides this one. We make no mistake, however, when we say that one poem of Mr. MacKellar's is better known than all the many others put together, for Mr. MacKellar is the author of the song beginning, "Let me kiss him for his mother," a performance of which the authorship is perhaps known to one in twenty-five thousand persons who have heard the music. This is a literary fate with which we should think Mr. MacKellar might well enough rest content; though we confess we have read only a hundred or so of his pieces, and something fine may be laid up for whoever explores the rest. Here we give a fair specimen of Mr. MacKellar's productions:

"'Twas pitiful the girl
Lay in a pauper coffin:
Her cheeks were like the pearl,
For tears had wash'd them otter.
Ah me! her lot was sad and wild,—
A fallen mother's hapless child.

Some children seem, when dead,
As though they are but sleeping;
Her eyes, so woe-bestead,
Were sunken, as if weeping
Had emptied out the fount of life
In streams of agony and strife.

Her fingers were as thin
As starving want could make them;
Mere bones encased in skin,
The feeblest strain might break them;" etc.

'Garnered Sheaves' is the title under which Doctor J. G. Holland has collected all his poetical works, from the latest back to 'Bitter-Sweet.' Many years it is since the late Mr. Edward Everett's commendation, printed in the back of the volume, we think, induced us to read that poem; and what with the commendation of such a man, and what with the native fitness of the poem itself to please the taste of some readers, we were pleased with it in a degree which we have not found equalled as we meditated it a second time in these pages before us. But the book sells; and after that there is nothing more to be said about it—except that the charge of platitude has been known to be brought against the thinking in it, and of falseness and feebleness against the sentiment. A middle-aged district schoolmaster in school-hours its thinking will always suggest to some persons; and to these the sentiment will perhaps continue to suggest the same gentleman after school-hours, when some of the larger girls are to be reasoned with. 'Kathrina' remains the least pleasing of this author's works, and 'Daniel Gray,' and one or two of the shorter and later poems, the best. These latter have a genuine merit as character sketches, well felt and well expressed, and they are not weighted down as the more ambitious pieces are. A steel engraving of the poet adorns the front of the volume, which many of his readers will be glad to look upon, and there are half-a-dozen other illustrations.

MANUALS OF LITERATURE.*

PROFESSOR HART'S "Manual" he has made to cover the whole field of English literature from the "Brut" and the "Ormulum" down to the London *Times* and Tennyson. He designs it as a text-book for use in schools and colleges, and also as a book of reference for the common reader. It appears to us to be fairly well adapted to serve both purposes, and we should be unwilling to say more than fairly well. A reader turning to the general index may perhaps look up the title of 'The Ring and the Book,' and be referred to p. 512. There he will find 'The Ring and the Book' mentioned at the end of a list of the poet's works, and thus remarked upon: "The poem last-named is his largest work, and the one in which all his qualities, good and bad, are most strongly marked." The whole notice of Browning which the school pupil is expected by the author to learn is as follows: "Robert Browning, 1812—stands conspicuous among the poets of his day, being inferior to Tennyson only." Then for the more advanced reader there is this notice of Browning's "Career": "Mr. Browning was educated at the London University. He was married in 1846 to the poetess Elizabeth Barrett, since which time he has lived on the Continent." Next we are told that his first publication was 'Paracelsus,' that the critics commended it, but that it met with little popular favor; that it was followed by the tragedy of 'Strafford,' which somehow did not succeed, though good judges thought it should, and though presented on the stage by so eminent an actor as Macready; that "so has it been pretty much with all Mr. Browning's works," which a few persons ardently like, but which repel the many by their studied obscurity. The list of the poet's works from which we have quoted is then given, and the sketch closes with six lines of critical remark quoted from Mr. E. P. Whipple, and embodying the fact that in the belief of Charles Dickens "'A Blot on the Scutcheon' is the finest poem of the century." This, it will be seen, is neither an extremely good nor an extremely bad account of Browning. A few more dates will be asked for by those who want a book of reference and somewhat less of excessively commonplace criticism taken from all kinds of sources; while as for the pupils who are to use the manual as a text-book, it is not plain that their coarse print is going to give them anything at all to carry away, nor that they will be much the better for what some of them may get from the fine print intended for their elders.

Uncontemporary authors, especially the more important, and those about whom there has for some generations been common consent and settled opinion, of course fare better at Mr. Hart's hands, and the book becomes more satisfactory the further back one goes. It is evidently proper that the young man should be taught that Jonson was called Rare Ben, and that Jeremy Taylor was the Shakespeare of Divines, whatever we may think of his learning, that, in the opinion of Mr. Theodore Tilton, "swords have not keener edges nor flash brighter lights than the sudden similes drawn by Mrs. Barrett Browning." And of this useful and well-established information the six or seven hundred pages of Mr. Hart's volume contain a vast deal, tolerably well condensed and arranged. We should add that one or two features of the work are unusual in such compilations, and for that and other reasons valuable. Thus, there is a good history of English hymnody, and a full account of the origin of the English Bible and Book of Common Prayer and of the Assembly's Shorter Catechism. Divines and theological writers are very profusely enumerated, though the sketch is apt to be bald enough in individual cases, and the enumeration to include writings which once were, rather than now are, parts of English literature. A volume of the size of this may easily be at once much too full of this kind of matter, and not nearly full enough. Indeed, the general criticism to be passed upon the book in all its departments is that there should be either a great deal less or a great deal more of its minute comprehensiveness; and, quality considered, less would have been preferable to more.

If Mr. Hart's 'Manual of English Literature' suffers from what may be called the obviousness of its criticisms, Mr. F. H. Underwood's 'Handbook of American Literature' is now and again open to another and opposite objection, the editor's comments being occasionally marked by a certain vivacity which gives summons to the reader's sense of the becoming. Occasionally they are of an absoluteness of statement which would not be out of taste in an inspired writer—Isaiah or King David; still it is not to be denied that they entertain. Speaking of Mrs. Stowe's works, for example, Mr. Underwood remarks of 'The Minister's Wooing' that "the scene is laid in Newport in the last century, and that the characters (excepting Aaron Burr, whom the author, very properly, did not know much about) are among her finest productions."

*'Manual of English Literature. By Prof. J. S. Hart.' Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1872.

'Handbook of English Literature. American Authors. By F. H. Underwood, A.M.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1873.

'The Normal Debater. Designed for the use of all Common Schools, Academies, and Colleges; as well as a Guide for Teachers' Institutes and Business Meetings in General. By O. P. Kinsey.' Cincinnati: J. Holbrook. 1872.

'A Manual of American Literature. Designed for the use of Schools of Advanced Grades. By N. K. Royse.' Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.

'English Literature: a Historical Sketch of English Literature. By Richard Malcolm Johnston and William Hand Browne.' University Publishing Co.: New York and Baltimore. 1873.

'A Manual of the Art of Prose Composition, for the use of Colleges and Schools. By J. M. Bonwell, D.D., President of the Wesleyan Female College, Macon, Ga. Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.

This approval of the lady for keeping away from evil communications and bad companions is a stroke which it would not have occurred to most persons to make, however desirous of being civil to Mrs. Stowe. Burr, by the bye, comes in for another pat from Mr. Underwood. When Mr. James Parton's biographies are up for discussion, Mr. Underwood remarks of the 'Life of Burr' that "not even Mr. Parton's plausible art can satisfy those who know the history of the last century that Burr was not a thoroughly depraved man." Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Jefferson, are other historic personages whom Mr. Underwood evidently regards with some liveliness of feeling, and in contemplating whom he perhaps would find it both difficult and distasteful to maintain that philosophic calm which confers such gravity upon the pages of Hallam, and which makes it, for some people, reposeful even. Mr. Underwood is of another creed: "It is especially true in Boston," he says, "and perhaps in other cities, that there is a tendency common to literary, pictorial, and musical art as well as in the manners and speech of 'society,' which controls the taste and shapes the manners of the time. This is the spirit which pronounces any direct and manly utterance vulgar, and prefers the *etching in* of a thought by some soft-voiced stammerer." In New York, on the other hand, a little more of self-restraint and cultivation would be good for us. We like pictures of large patterns, and are far from "the spirit which induces young authors to strive for concrete prettinesses and affectations, and to consider a sentence beautiful only when, as Turner said of Guido's Mater Dolorosa, it is polished to inanity."

With most of Mr. Underwood's opinions the opinion of the better educated half or three-quarters of our reading public will be in general agreement. The best quarter of this public will probably not feel under greater obligations to him than those under which he has put them by making a full selection of specimen passages taken from a majority of eminent and respectable American authors. This he has done with success. Every one will miss some pieces which he, had he been the compiler, would have inserted, and will wonder over the admission of some authors and the exclusion of others. We for our own part should not have admitted the late Alice Cary, if her sister Phœbe was to be excluded. Nor, if Mr. Grenville Mellen, Mrs. Prescott Spofford, Dr. Orville Dewey, and General Henry Jackson are to be included, should we know how to leave out some account of Mr. Bronson Alcott, Mr. Allibone, Dr. Hosea Ballou, Dr. Jacob Bigelow, who has written some very good and well-flavored things; H. H. Brownell, the battle-poet; George Calvert, Caroline Chesebro, Moncure D. Conway, F. J. Child, Asa Gray, W. D. Whitney, General Dix, Mrs. Follen, Horace Greeley, H. C. Lea, who has written one or two of the few American works creditable to our scholarship; C. G. Halpine, Richard Henry Lee, Madison of the *Federalist*, surely an important writer in American literature; Dennis Mahan, Lindley Murray, C. E. Norton, Schoolcraft, Dr. N. B. Shurtleff, William Swinton, J. H. Trumbull, Robert Kelley Weeks, Francis Wharton, William Wirt, Theodore Winthrop, and a dozen others, great and small, but any of them as worthy of a place in such a compilation as the late Alexander Everett or Mrs. Elizabeth Akers Allen—to take two names at random, without disparagement to the persons bearing them.

This volume, let us say, is one of two, the former being a 'Handbook of English Literature,' as this of American.

Mr. O. P. Kinsey, who has prepared a work called 'The Normal Debater,' says that he did so because he saw that there was great need of it. "It is painful," he says, "to behold how little the greater number of professed scholars, even graduates, know of the machinery of business meetings." In their literary societies and debating clubs they have been accustomed to a set of routine by-laws and rules, drawn up to meet the special demands of some particular organization, but these, says Mr. Kinsey, seldom have any points of harmony with the practice and demands of general custom. It appeared to him very necessary, then, that a body of rules should be provided, by a brief study of which any artisan or farmer called on to preside at a public meeting should know how to conduct its business as moderator, chairman, speaker, or what not, and, if not called on to preside, should be able to maintain his rights as a member, and prevent himself and his fellow-citizens from being duped. We confess to being in a condition something like that deprecated by Mr. Kinsey and those friends of his who urged him to publish 'The Normal Debater'; but so far as our judgment goes we should say that he has made a book which will be helpful to a good many persons. There is less than a hundred pages of it.

'A Manual of American Literature,' by Mr. N. K. Royse, is a good-natured book, which, on its twenty-second page and the two or three preceding gives brief characterizations of our "prominent poets—Longfellow, Bryant, Whittier, Poe, Holmes, Lowell, and Saxe"—saying of Poe that "even 'Annabel Lee,' his sweetest poem, is sadly marred by the fault-finding and despairing tone which pervades it," and passing similar undeniable judgments on Poe's companions. A foot-note to the twenty-third page adds to these names the thirteen following, as those of our best-known later poets: T. B. Aldrich, J. G. Holland, E. Hopper, S. W. Patten, T. B. Read, Theodore Tilton, R. G. White, Bret Harte, J. J. Piatt, Walt Whitman, G. D. Prentice, G. W. Cutter, and A. Pike—a not very Archilochian catalogue, but as Archilochian as the rest of the book. The selections, which are from Mr. Royse's "prominent writers" rather than other writers, make the volume a volume of good reading, although some of it seems a trifle antiquated.

Messrs. Richard Malcolm Johnston and William Hand Browne have made a modest "historical sketch of English literature from the earliest times," which we are disposed to think would be a good text-book in schools and academies for youths and young ladies. It is certainly a cleverly planned and well written sketch, not too compendious, level with good current criticism, not dry, nor goody nor dull, and seems to us very well suited to the end which was had in view—namely, to furnish "a faithful if meagre outline map of the wide and fair domain awaiting students who have just reached the point where they begin to take a genuine interest in the reading that enlarges knowledge and stimulates thought, an outline not difficult to fix in the memory, and serving to locate and elucidate subsequent irregular or desultory reading." We believe we should have enlarged the volume by making a freer use of quotations; but the teacher will know how to make some of the scholars' other pursuits supplement the text in this respect, and the text itself will sharpen the thirst as well as the relish for good literature.

Of the old-fashioned kind of "composition and rhetoric"—the treatise which begins by teaching the uses of punctuation and proceeds to teach the nature of the sentence, and so goes on to letter-writing and prosody, and the composition of invitations to dinner—we have in Dr. Bonwell's 'Art of Composition' a very favorable specimen. It covers all the field that such works as 'Quackenbos' used to cover and much more, and covers it much better. It begins humbly and at the very beginning, among the rudiments; and that is where such books should begin, even when they are to be used in nine-tenths of our colleges; it goes on with great fulness and with plentiful provision for extemporary and other exercises, so as to be a text-book for a two-years or three-years course if necessary; and at the end, and in its more difficult parts, it consists of an amount of logic and rhetoric which will make it a useful introduction to the more elaborate treatises, such as those of Campbell and Whately.

English of the XIVth Century, illustrated by notes, grammatical and philological, on Chaucer's Prologue and Knight's Tale. Designed to serve as an introduction to the study of English literature. By Stephen H. Carpenter, A.M., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the State University of Wisconsin. (Boston: Ginn Brothers. 1872.)—The running title of Professor Carpenter's 'English of the XIVth Century' promises, perhaps, a little too much; but when we read the title-page we find out exactly what it is; and it is a book which we are glad to see. It is a new evidence of activity in the philological study of English, and a new help to the study. It offers to our schools a neat edition of the Prologue to Chaucer's Canterbury Tales and the Knight's Tale; with a life, grammatical introduction, notes, and etymological glossary.

The notes are the special merit of the book. They are very numerous. Morris's notes are full, compared with anything we had before on Chaucer, and they answer very well; yet they make about 35 pages, while Professor Carpenter gives us 160. They are not merely explanatory, but discuss the words at liberal length, after the manner of Craik's English of Shakespeare, telling us interesting facts about the derivation, changes of meaning, historical suggestions, and the like, of the words in Chaucer and any of their kindred. There is a great deal of good work in them. Professor Carpenter has brought together a store of good things in philology from Trench, Marsh, Müller, Craik, and Abbott, and illustrative passages from old English writers, many of them taken with due acknowledgment from Tyrwhitt and Morris, but in great part the fruits of original study of other parts of Chaucer, Gower, Piers Plowman, the Wycliffite translations, and less-known authors. There are also frequent explanations of obscure idioms and other grammatical matters, by references to the Anglo-Saxon. Students who know little literature and less philology, and who will not give their days, much less their nights, to the study of scientific grammars and dictionaries, may here find plenty of attractive philological matter served up in such a way as to tempt their taste without much tasking their patience.

There is occasional indefiniteness of statement which might mislead beginners, and which we the rather notice because we have known that the examples of it in the first note have made an unfavorable and unjust impression about the book on casual examiners. The note is on *whan*, and reads:

"Adverbs of time, place, and manner are derived from the pronominal roots, and therefore have a conjunctive force; *e.g.:*" (Examples follow, and then) "Adverbs of *place* are derived from the A. S. dative (locative); etc." A few adverbs are so derived, and some of them have a conjunctive force; and some of the pronominal adverbs of place are from locatives, though *hence, thence, whence,* which he has just enumerated, are not.

We hope the book may be widely used, and brought to perfection by many editions. Every one who speaks English ought to study Chaucer.

An English Grammar and Reading Book, for lower forms in Classical Schools. By the Rev. O. W. Tancock, A.M. (New York: Macmillan & Co.)—Mr. Tancock's book contains a brief historical grammar, something more than a hundred pages of extracts for reading and study, and a full etymological glossary. The subjects treated in the grammar are well chosen, the method good, the language clear and concise. But prosody should be added, since many of the extracts are verse, and there is no topic on which the common grammars are more deficient. So far as we have tried the glossary, it is good with one exception. In obedience to the "bull of the illustrious and infallible Pope Freeman" and the *Saturday Review, Anglo-Saxon* is banished. That was to be expected in a book of the Clarendon Series. But Mr. Tancock does not even avail himself of Mr. Freeman's permission to speak of *Old English*. He calls all words from Beowulf onwards simply *English;* so that he gives us a glossary in which varieties of French and Old French are carefully discriminated, while Anglo-Saxon, English, and all the intermediate dialects make one promiscuous crowd.

The extracts for reading are of the best. One by one we recognize them as specimens of that which the critical judgment of England most cordially commends. There are selections from Longfellow; we notice none from any other American. As we glance through the book, we read or remember the extracts with unfailing pleasure; but when we lay it down, and recall our American Reading Books, we recognize in it a peculiar depressing tone and quality. These monotonous cadences of Morris with their dying fall, and these exquisitely finished verses of Tennyson wailing over the vanished life and heroes of Old Time, which run through the book and give its pitch, have a death in life in them, have about them the halo that hovers round decay, and they make a most striking contrast to the breezy, exultant, prophetic lyrics and orations on which Young America is fed.

Words and Places: or, Etymological Illustrations of History, Ethnology, and Geography. By Isaac Taylor, M.A. Third edition, revised and compressed. With maps. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.)—This excellent work, which in England "has already been adopted by many teachers, and is prescribed as a text-book in the Cambridge Higher Examinations for Women," deserves to occupy a similar place in this country. Acquaintance with it might properly be made a condition of admission to teach in any school where geography is studied, and it ought to form part of the school furniture along with the atlas and the globe. Tracing the origin of the names of places from common nouns, and, conversely, the derivation of common nouns from names of places, leads into so many fields of learning that it is of itself almost a liberal education. However, 'Words and Places' may be enjoyed in quite another way than as a text-book (in which use of it, by the bye, the teacher will do well to be as undogmatic as the author). As desultory reading it will prove abundantly entertaining. There are numerous notices of names in our United States geography, with some very just remarks on the "barbarous character" of a large proportion of them, as "utterly inappropriate, and fulfilling very insufficiently the chief purposes which names are intended to fulfil." One of the worst features of our nomenclature—the endless repetition of the same name—might be mitigated by combined action on the part of our State and our Post-office authorities; the former refusing to recognize any new town name already to be found in the gazetteer, and the latter withholding postal facilities till the name was exchanged for one which would not give rise to confusion. To make this action of the Post-office retroactive would probably be regarded as impracticable.

Chapter XVII., on the principles of name-giving, is followed by two very useful lists of some of the chief adjectival and substantival components of local names, duly classified. The seventh adjectival head is "Configuration," under which are instanced *Trebizond* and *Montevideo*, the two occurring side by side. We have had the curiosity to trace out both these names in the profound analysis to which Dr. Egli has subjected his 'Nomina Geographica'—a work of sufficiently different scope to be a desirable possession in addition to 'Words and Places.' They occur nearly eighty pages apart, and under different grand divisions, so to speak, affording a good illustration of German thoroughness:

a) INHÄRENZ: 1. Eigenschaften; B. Sondereindruck; II. Apriorisch; *c)* Raum; *β)* qualitativ: 'Form.' I. Körperformen; A. total; 2) bildlich; *b)* nach Kunstobjecten—*Trebizond.*

c) RELATION: 1. Räumliche Relation; B. Lage; II. Horizontal; *b)* Physisch; 1) standfrei; *a)* formell; IV. nach Bergen—*Montevideo.*

The Great Events of History from the Creation of Man till the present time. By William Francis Collier, LL.D., Trinity College, Dublin. Edited by an experienced American teacher. (New York: J. W. Schermerhorn & Co. 12mo, pp. 377.)—Mr. Collier's 'Great Events of History' will serve very well as a complement to Mr. Freeman's 'Outlines of History' lately noticed by us. It does not aim, like Mr. Freeman's book, to give a complete continuous history, but to present "a series of pictures" which shall fix in the mind of the learner the knowledge of the most important events. This is a desirable thing to accomplish, and it is very well done, in an interesting style—if frequently too rhetorical—and with considerable picturesque detail. The peculiar and most valuable feature is the assignment to each chapter of a "Central Point of Interest" about which the events are grouped. These are generally well selected, but, on the whole, we would rather have history group itself about great men than great events; would rather, for example, give William the Silent than the siege of Leyden, Gustavus Adolphus than the battle of Lützen.

The author shows good judgment in omitting British history in a book designed for English schools, in which, of course, the history of England is studied in detail, and we wish the American editor had shown equal judgment. It was very well, perhaps, to add the Franco-Prussian war at the end; but seeing that Mr. Collier had chosen to begin at the Christian era, we see no reason for prefixing twenty-nine pages of earlier history, of which fourteen are devoted to the people of Israel, about two-thirds of a page to Greece, and less than half a page to Rome. And there is certainly as good reason for excluding American history as British. The pupil will perhaps be rather bewildered by coming upon King Philip's War, illustrated by a passage from one of Everett's speeches, sandwiched in between the Fall of Granada and Luther's Reformation. Neither is this American part so well done as to justify its insertion. On page 314, we have a succession of eleven steps in the progress of the sentiment of disunion, the third of which is, "Mr. Quincy was here called to order by Mr. Poindexter."

Of Mr. Collier's false rhetoric we have already spoken. A few other defects may be mentioned. He asserts gravely, p. 58, that Julian the Apostate was prevented from rebuilding the Temple of Jerusalem by "balls of fire bursting again and again from the earth." On the next page, Theodosius is, by implication, commended "for having put down by rigorous laws the last remnants of Paganism and the Arian heresy"; for Mr. Collier goes on with a "but" to condemn his massacre of the Thessalonians as "a dark blot upon his fame." There is no intimation, by the way, either in text or chronological table, that Theodosius united the entire empire under his rule. On p. 56, the curials are called "men high in the magistracy," instead of the hereditary governing aristocracy of the towns; p. 359, Lorraine is said to have taken its name from the Emperor Lothaire, instead of from his son.

The book contains some very good chronological tables, lists of distinguished men, and a geographical appendix, one of its best features.

The Historical Geography of the Clans of Scotland. By T. B. Johnston and Col. James A. Robertson. (Philadelphia and New York: Geo. Gebbie.)—This is a thin quarto containing a large colored map of the Scottish clans, with the possessions of the Highland proprietors according to the acts of Parliament of 1587 and 1594—a period when, as is stated in the explanatory text, "most of the clans held their original positions, as the encroachments and oppressions of the stronger ones had not been fully effected." "The rotation and the numbering of the clans have been made exactly as they occur in the Acts of Parliament," and the map is offered to the public as the first and only properly authenticated one of its kind. The letterpress consists besides of statistics of the strength of the Highland forces in 1715 and the badges and war-cries of the clans. Then follows an itinerary of Prince Charles, the Pretender, from the time of his landing to his flight from the country, and a detailed account of the three important and decisive battles of his campaign on Scottish soil—Prestonpans, Falkirk, and Culloden, illustrated by plans of each engagement and a general map showing the routes of the contending armies. And finally, the Act of Parliament of 1746, for disarming the Highlands and restraining the use of the Highland dress, is reproduced in full. This work, therefore, has a decided value for the student of English history in connection with his other reading. It is handsomely printed and bound, but the punctuation has been surprisingly neglected.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
About (E.), Handbook of Social Economy	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
As She Would Have It	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Cooper (J. F.), The Pilot	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
De Liefde (J. B.), Galama; or, The Beggars, swd.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	$0 75
Draper (Dr. J. C.), Year-book of Nature and Popular Science for 1872.	"	
Duffey (Mrs. E. B.), What Women Should Know	(J. M. Stoddart & Co.)	
Dumas (A.), The Forty-five Guardsmen, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	1 00
Eiloart (Mrs.), Woman's Wrong	" "	1 75
Gibbon (C.), Robin Gray, swd.	(Harper & Bros.)	0 50
Hall (F.), Recent Exemplifications of False Philology	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 00
Hazard (S.), Santo Domingo, Past and Present	(Harper & Bros.)	
Huntington (Rev. F. D.), Steps to a Living Faith, swd.	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)	
Lester (C. E.), The Napoleon Dynasty	(Sheldon & Co.)	2 50
Lidell (Dr. J. A.), Treatise on Apoplexy	(Wm. Wood & Co.)	4 00
Medhurst (W. H.), The Foreigner in Far Cathay	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Mivart (St. George), Lessons in Elementary Anatomy	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 00
Moon (G. W.), The Soul's Inquiries Answered	(Shepard & Gill)	1 00
Pater (W. H.), Studies in the History of the Renaissance	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 50
Putnam (F. W.), Mounds at Merom and Hutsonville on the Wabash, swd.	(Salem)	
Peacock (T. B.), Poems	(Independence)	
Rivers (P.), Lyrics	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Rockwell (Mrs. M. E.), Rose Thorpe's Ambition	(J. C. Garrigues & Co.)	1 25
Speight (T. W.), Under Lock and Key	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 75
Saunders (C.), New System of Latin Paradigms	" "	
Taylor (B.), Lars: A Pastoral of Norway	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Thomson (Prof. C. W.), The Depths of the Sea	(Macmillan & Co.)	9 00
The "Old Catholics" at Cologne	(James A. McGee)	0 75

Fine Arts.

THE KENSETT RELICS.

THE quantity of work left behind him by the late J. F. Kensett is a matter of honest astonishment to the public, considering the apparent hesitancy of the supply when he lived. It was not an easy thing to obtain a specimen from Mr. Kensett. Intending purchasers were often disappointed, and the dealers who approached him with never so pathetic appeals knew well what it was to descend empty from the studio. The products of his toil thus kept an appearance of preciousness and rare estimation. People supposed that the flow of his art was difficult, as it was exquisite and pure. But what the living Kensett gave so sparingly, the dead Kensett gives in a cataclysm. A few dozen or a hundred posthumous works might perhaps have been expected by his admirers. But the collection at the Academy numbers vastly more than that. On the night of the private view, from which our impression is taken, the catalogues were not finished, but the paintings cannot fall far short of seven hundred. It is not easy to see why Mr. Kensett kept by him all these pictures, now filling to repletion our largest gallery. We must fancy that the painter, trying to adjust his work to the temperament of the purchaser, found in each case some incongruity which forbade his allowing the canvas to be borne away, though that seems strange, as occurring in a thousand cases; or else, that in every picture some keystone to bind the whole composition together was felt by his sensitive intelligence to be lacking. No lack, however, is apparent to the ordinary eye. The pictures will be called fair specimens of their delightful artist, most of them being as fresh in appearance as if painted yesterday, while only a few are sketches. They are a good deal alike, showing a kind of aristocratic recoiling from melodrama, while they exult in their keen, delicate relish for out-of-doors—a relish they have the faculty to impart. They never fail in expressing the limpidity of air and the severity and uncontaminated freshness of the sea. They are the pages of a rather wide painter's itinerary, ranging from Switzerland and Italy to England and home; with mountains in New Hampshire and in Colorado; banks of the Hudson and the Missouri; and our sea-coast from Maine to Connecticut. Occasionally there are views of famous places; among the best of these are the "Niagara Whirlpool" (400), the "Niagara" (227), and the "Rapids" (90), as they pour out of the horizon. Such a subject as Niagara the artist treats without forsaking his calm, like a cultured elocutionist who declaims the most impassioned text, never losing his high-bred balance. So his "Valley of Valmont, Colorado" (283), with a line of distant snow-peaks flashing like a pennon against the uttermost blue, is lofty and dignified, but not in the least dizzy. He is never oppressed by his subject. Artist-like, too, although he sometimes concedes to the public their favorite Murray's guide-book topography, and spares them an occasional Windsor Castle or View of Amalfi, he is not happiest in such scenes *à grande orchestre*. His virtue comes to him in those works where Nature is caught arranging her artistic motives, and which a man who knows what he is about finds almost anywhere. Nothing among these studies is better than his dark rocks threaded with veins of cataract in deep transparent shadow, such as 275 and 387; his plumes of palpitating birch and aspen trees, like 87, 264, and 267; or such a placid stretch of the Sound as this (100) seen from near his atelier at Darien, where the water is pallid with mist, and the horizon defined by one triangle of leaning sail. These, and many other such as these, show an interpreter looking at Nature in his own way, with perfect unconventionality, and with a sort of fearless gentleness. They remind us now and then of some fine period from Addison. Hung beside his own pictures are the little French landscapes he bought from time to time—a cloudy Troyon or a crisp Rousseau—and which seem in such a company to have something strangely rich and real about them, showing as humming-birds would show in a collection of cameos. The foreign pictures, it appears, are offered to the Metropolitan Museum of this city, in case a purchase equal to their value is made from among the Kensett paintings; but the published estimate of the European collection is not borne out by the specimens on exhibition. We shall be glad of any arrangement, however, which secures us a permanent gallery of Kensett's chaste and tender art.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MARCH 17, 1873.

ADVICES from Washington state that the currency has again been inflated to the extent of $1,059,000 up to Tuesday last; later in the week, $50,000 of this amount had been withdrawn. This further increase of the currency has been semi-officially explained by the Treasury authorities by the fact that the appropriation bills, passed by Congress, made immediate demand for a greater amount than could be met by the Treasury. The increased pay voted to themselves by members of Congress, before they left for their respective homes, took from the Treasury about $1,500,000 at one fell swoop.

The money market has remained stringent; the range of rates during the week being $\frac{1}{64}$ to $\frac{1}{16}$ in addition to the legal interest. The market for commercial paper continues to be affected by the monetary stringency upon call loans; the best names, having a short time to run, are quoted 9 to 10, and other paper of an inferior grade, but very good, sold as high as 15. An improvement in the condition of the money market can hardly be expected before the 15th of April, as considerable amounts of currency will be needed in Pennsylvania and other States during this interval.

The bank statement for the week shows no material change, the loss in legal tenders and specie being nearly offset by corresponding decrease of liabilities in the shape of deposits and circulation. The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	March 8	March 15.	Differences.
Loans	$280,351,300	$278,028,600	Dec. $2,322,700
Specie	17,149,600	16,946,700	Dec. 202,900
Circulation	27,801,200	27,610,400	Dec. 190,800
Deposits	199,508,700	196,095,400	Dec. 3,413,300
Legal tenders	39,473,000	38,715,500	Dec. 757,500

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	March 8.	March 15.	Differences.
Specie	$17,149,600	$16,946,700	Dec. $202,900
Legal tenders	39,473,000	38,715,500	Dec. 757,500
Total reserve	$56,622,600	$55,662,200	Dec. $960,400
Circulation	27,801,200	27,610,400	Dec. 190,800
Deposits	199,508,700	196,095,400	Dec. 3,413,300
Total liabilities	$227,309,900	$223,705,800	Dec. $3,604,100
25 per cent. reserve	56,827,475	55,926,450	
Deficiency in legal reserve	204,875	264,250	

The following table shows the respective condition of the National and State banks in the Clearing House:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$240,145,200	$37,883,400	$278,028,600
Specie	15,546,600	1,400,100	16,946,700
Legal Tenders	34,915,500	3,800,000	38,715,500
Net Deposits	170,079,800	26,015,600	196,095,400
Circulation	27,567,400	43,000	27,610,400

The stock market has been dull, and the dealings to any great extent confined to a few speculative favorites. As we have said before, prices are too high and money is too tight to tempt the general public to enter the vortex of speculation. "Those who are outside don't want to get in, and those who are in can't get out," as the late James Fisk, jr., replied to a committee soliciting subscriptions towards fencing a cemetery in his native town. A decline has taken place in Boston, Hartford & Erie, the ostensible reason being the lawsuit going on between the bondholders and the company; probably the real reason is that some 40,000 shares of the stock were thrown upon the market on Thursday and Friday.

Rock Island advanced to 117⅜ on Tuesday, and the old reliable point, that the Pennsylvania Railroad Company was seeking to secure a controlling amount of the stock, was freely used to induce purchases at the advanced price. At the close of the week the price dropped to 114½, closing at 115¼.

The Milwaukee & St. Paul stocks have shown rather more activity, and prices have advanced to 56 for the common, and 76¼ for the preferred. The better feeling in these stocks is due to a proposition recently submitted to the managements of the Milwaukee & St. Paul and the Chicago & Northwestern Railroad Companies, to put an end to the disastrous fight which for some time has been going on between the two roads in their competition for business.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending March 15, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	104⅞	106¼	105½	106¼	105¼	106	105	105⅝	105¼	10?½	101⅜	105⅝	98,400
Lake Shore	94⅜	95⅜	94⅜	95¼	94⅝	95⅜	95¼	96	95¼	96¼	94¼	95½	162,700
Erie	64½	65½	64½	65⅝	65	65⅝	64⅜	65¼	65¼	66	65½	66½	80,000
do. pfd	75	76½	75	76¼	75	77	76¼	....	74	....	75	75¼	
Union Pacific	35¼	35⅜	35⅜	35⅝	35¼	35½	34⅝	35¼	34½	34⅜	34⅜	34½	27,300
Chi & N. W.	82	....	81½	83	.....	.....	82½	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300
Do. pfd	89⅜	....	89⅜	....	89	89½	89½	89⅜	89½	....	89¼	89⅜	1,800
N. J Central	103	....	101	....	104½	....	103⅜	104⅜	103⅜	....	.....	.....	900
Rock Island	114⅜	116½	115⅞	117⅜	115⅜	116⅝	115⅝	116¼	114⅜	116½	114½	115¾	95,500
Mil. & St. Paul	58¼	58⅜	58⅜	54¼	54	54½	54⅜	54⅞	55	55⅜	55⅜	56⅛	13,500
Do. pfd.	73¼	74	74	75	74⅛	....	74⅜	75	75	75¼	75¼	76⅛	14,000
Wabash	73½	74½	73⅜	74⅛	74⅛	74½	73⅞	74¼	73¾	74⅜	73⅜	....	10,200
D. L. & Western	101⅜	101⅞	101⅜	102	101⅜	....	101½	101⅞	101⅜	....	.....	.....	1,800
B. H. & Erie	108⅜	109⅜	108⅜	109	109	109⅜	107⅜	109	106⅝	108¼	107¼	107⅝	50,500
O. & M.	46	46⅜	46⅜	46⅜	46¼	46½	46	46¼	45⅜	46¼	45⅜	46	38,300
C. C. & I. C.	40	41	40⅜	41⅛	41¼	42¼	41¾	41⅞	4	41½	40⅜	41	57,100
W. U Tel.	86⅜	88	87	87⅜	86	87⅜	85¼	86¼	85⅜	87⅛	86¼	86⅜	149,000
Pacific Mail	56⅜	60¼	60	62	58	60½	56½	58¼	56⅜	57½	56⅜	57⅜	269,300

The following is a synopsis of the report of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company at its annual meeting of stockholders on Tuesday. The receipts for the year from the roads owned or operated by the Company, east of Pittsburg, were thus reported:

From the Pennsylvania Railroad	$22,012,000
Philadelphia	3,984,000
New Jersey Roads and Canal	10,452,000
Total	$36,448,000
Operating expenses on above	25,431,000
Net income	$11,017,000
The lines west of Pittsburg operated by the Pennsylvania Company paid a net dividend upon the stock of this Company owned by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company of	240,000
Net income	$11,257,000

The Company paid during the year:

10 per cent. on capital and taxes	$4,711,000
Interest and lease charges	4,171,000
Balance to surplus account	2,375,000
Total	$11,257,000

The Company contemplates laying two more tracks between Philadelphia and Pittsburg.

The Government bond market has been steady and dull, with the market at the close a fraction "off" from the highest quotations of the week. The Treasury purchased $500,000 5-20's on Wednesday at prices ranging from 113.36 to 113.46. $2,342,100 bonds were offered at 114.94 and under, gold being 115⅛ at noon. The entire amount offered was under par.

The chief feature in State bonds has been the activity and buoyancy of Tennessees, the prices since our last having risen to 85. Business in railroad bonds has been very small. The different Union Pacific bonds, particularly the Incomes, are stronger, and there is a more settled feeling in them.

The gold "clique" took advantage of the generally prevalent feeling that a further issue of greenbacks would be made, to sell out a large part of their holdings. It is not at all probable that all the gold held by the "clique" was sold, and a sharp upward movement may be engineered at any time for the purpose of marketing the balance. The Treasury sale of $1,500,000 gold on Thursday was made at 114.92 to 115.07, the price of gold at noon in the open market being 115⅛. The price during the week has ranged between 114¾ and 115¾; the closing price on Saturday was 115.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 27, 1873.

The Week.

SEVERAL Senators tried, and some successfully, to shirk the responsibility of confirming Casey for the Collectorship of New Orleans, but a quorum was obtained. Mr. West, the only Senator now sitting from Louisiana, subsequently tried to obtain a reconsideration, but failed by three votes. The appointment is considered a great scandal in Washington, in view of Casey's conduct in office, the formal condemnation of it by a Congressional Committee, and his relationship to the President (brother-in-law), and the Liberal Republicans point to it as a proof that the President looks on his re-election, not only as absolution with regard to past offences, but as a plenary indulgence with regard to future ones. It may be that he does, but they have themselves to thank for it. They deliberately made up the issue for the late campaign, and if it did not contain the real points in the controversy, there is nobody else to blame. According to all appearance, the civil-service reform movement is gone by the board, though we believe the rules are enforced in the New York Custom-house. The "suspensions" of them everywhere else are so numerous as to make the "reform" a mockery and a snare. It reminds one of the Irishman who, having been invited by some wags to take a ride in a sedan-chair which had neither seat nor bottom, after trotting along inside for some distance, was asked by the bearers how he liked it, and replied that "if it wasn't for the name o' the thing, he'd as soon walk."

Quite as strong examples, or, at all events, strong enough examples of the kind of slap in the face which some of the appointments have given to all persons who believe in public services for public money, and public services by men of good character and repute, are furnished respectively by the appointment of the Rev. Dr. Newman and Mr. Holden. North Carolinians are to-day assigning as their reason for repudiating a part of their State debt, that it was imposed upon them by a railroad ring, of which then Governor Holden was one, and for being in this ring was impeached, convicted, and made incapable of holding any office. It may be imagined with what equanimity North Carolina legislators look on the appointment of Mr. Holden to the postmastership of their capital city. One would say that even if there were no equally honest and competent Republican to take office under the "civil-service rules," the comity which is supposed to exist between the National and State Governments might have dictated a better appointment than that. The other case to which we refer is the roving commission of Rev. Dr. Newman of Washington, the same who went to Utah and gave those Philistines an advantage. He is to "inspect consuls" in various quarters of the world, his means and abilities in the way of knowledge of business, and knowledge of languages, and knowledge of public law being all matters of conjecture. A possible justification that may be urged is that the relations of some of our consuls and countrymen to the heathen may need investigation, and the cause of religion be advanced by the round trip. Many Americans would not begrudge the six thousand a year in gold for the round trip should this be the case. But the fact is the presumption in the matter of appointments that have an ill look is not now in favor of the Administration. It is a very hard thing to say, and also it is an excessively trite thing; but there it is.

Latest returns from New Hampshire make the Congressional delegation stand two Democrats to one Republican, Mr. Bell, Democrat, being now understood to be elected by a majority of four votes. But this kind of news this year interests people in general about as much as next week's election in Connecticut does, and that attracts attention only so far as General Hawley is concerned. More interesting is the news concerning two of Mr. Bell's colleagues in the last Congress. While the election was pending, the "back-pay steal" was effected, and all three of the New Hampshire members stood out against it like "men of mould"; and, when they were on the stump, a week afterward, demanded credit and votes for their virtue. The particular attention of the Democratic press is requested to this fact, as it has a bearing on the question of how soon the people are going to take into favor the honest political organization which it represents, and also has a bearing on the question of whether the Democracy had better provide itself with another platform than its opponent's shortcomings. Of these gentlemen, one, Mr. Parker, a Democrat, was re-elected, and one, Mr. Hibbard, also a Democrat, was not, whereupon one of them, being dropped by his constituents, sent on for the wicked back-pay; and the other, being made safe for two years more in Congress, sent on for his back-pay, too. Anything is credible in these days—and, let us add, respecting such matters as these; for, thank Heaven, the political life is not the whole life of a country nor its better life—but if it were not that all things are credible, this would not be believed; and we may hope to hear the report contradicted by the men concerned. Yet, look at the hardened effrontery of Mr. Wilson of Indiana, who tells his constituency that had not the salaries clause been swallowed, the General Appropriation Bill would have failed. It only remains for the next Congress to pass a bill rescinding this salaries clause, and making it prospective, so as to take effect on the salaries of their successors in 1876. That would disgrace one more Congress, and would be one way of celebrating the anniversary of the Declaration of Independence.

In the *Nation* for December 12 of last year, we gave an account of the "Erie Reform" movement, headed by General Sickles, which ended in Gould's retirement from the directory. A committee of the Legislature is now engaged in investigating the whole subject, and has thrown more light on it. There are two or three names involved in the investigation which have been rather prominently before the public in connection with Erie, and as they are public property we propose to say a few words about them. In the first place, General Sickles, who was at the time Minister to Spain, was granted leave of absence to come over here and reform Erie. He was employed by Bischoffsheim & Goldschmidt. Bischoffsheim was at one time one of the members of the London Committee formed for the protection of the English stockholders, but he had another interest antagonistic to that of Erie reform, which lay in the possession of a quantity of the securities of the Atlantic and Great Western Road, a worthless concern, with an enormous debt, which the Bischoffsheim & Goldschmidt party wanted to saddle on Erie. As soon as this antagonism of interest became evident Bischoffsheim resigned (apparently being requested to do so) from the London Committee, and henceforward his party acted for itself. It was they who employed General Sickles, who came to this country. There were now two parties, both interested in getting control of Erie, both calling themselves reformers, both representing foreign stocks—one the Bischoffsheim-Goldschmidt-Atlantic-and-Great-Western-Sickles party; the other, that of the London Committee, generally known as the Heath and Raphael party, so-called after another London firm. The Heath and Raphael party were represented in this country by an agent named Swan, who retained as counsel the firm of Butler, Evarts, Southmayd & Choate.

As soon as the Heath and Raphael party began to move in the matter, they found that, under the laws of New York, no proceedings could be taken to remove the Gould directory unless by way of suit brought by the Attorney-General, and at first they were unable to

get such a suit brought, because the Attorney-General in power was on the Gould side. General F. C. Barlow, having been elected to the office of Attorney-General on the Reform ticket, undertook, at the request of the Heath and Raphael party, to bring such a suit. At the same time, he was applied to for the same purpose by the Sickles party, and both parties having the same immediate object in view, he agreed to act for both. The city judiciary being at that time in league with Gould, it was thought necessary to bring the suit at Albany, and to retain as counsel the lawyers there who had been most familiar with the previous Erie litigation. This was in December, 1871. One of the lawyers it was decided to retain was Mr. Henry Smith, who received a fee of $1,500. He expressed scruples as to taking this retainer, on the ground that he was probably going to be Speaker of the Assembly, and legislation might be needed to carry out the designs of the reformers. He was assured, however, that no legislation would probably be needed, and he took the retainer.

The money to pay these retainers came from Sickles, who tried to get General Barlow to take a fee himself; this General Barlow declined to do, although there seems to have been very good ground for holding that he might fairly have done it. Meantime the Sickles party had discovered what they had been probably trying pretty hard to discover all along, that it was a great deal easier to buy up Gould, and a number of the other directors, than it was to go through tedious proceedings in courts of law, and they found a convenient tool in Mr. F. A. Lane. By the payment of between seven and eight hundred thousand dollars they bought the resignations of a number of the directors, and then Sickles had his celebrated interview with Gould which resulted in the latter's "unconditional surrender." Gould got from Sickles a release of all claims on the part of the road, Sickles concealing from the new directors headed by Mr. S. L. M. Barlow that he had given any such release, and concealing from Gould the fact that he had no authority to give such release. With all these negotiations, and with this expenditure of money, whether for the purpose of influencing legislation or bribing directors, General Barlow had nothing to do, except in so far as receiving money from Sickles to retain counsel at Albany, and this money he has accounted for. In fact, he knew nothing of the Sickles *coup d'état*, which was carried on entirely in the dark, until it was all over. Throughout the whole case General Barlow's part has been that of a singularly honest and scrupulous man. As to Mr. Smith, we have on the one hand the statement of Mr. Southmayd and General Barlow, that they determined to retain him without any reference to the speakership, and without the slightest idea of influencing legislation, and on the other that of the New York *Tribune*, which says that it knows their motives were corrupt; though how it knows this, or why it should suppose that the paltry sum of $1,500 is enough to purchase the control of the body that was then sitting at Albany, we cannot understand. There is one thing, by the way, that we should like the *Tribune* to explain: why, if the Sickles Erie reform movement was in 1871, as appears from its columns, a grand moral effort, it is now in 1873, as appears from its columns also, a gigantic fraud.

Foster was executed on Friday, the last appointed day, the efforts to save him having been continued to the end. The latest consisted in a letter to the Governor from seven of the jurymen, declaring that they would not have found Foster guilty of murder in the first degree if they had not believed that a recommendation to mercy would save his life; that is, in plain English, they committed wilful perjury under a misapprehension as to the consequences of their act, and they call the confession of it "washing their hands of Foster's blood," which is a very fine name for it, but does not alter its character, particularly as it comes two years after the offence. Mr. Edwards Pierrepont made himself the transmitter of this appeal to the Governor, and supported it with a letter of his own—a proceeding, we think, really to be regretted on the part of so prominent a lawyer. Of course, if this revision of their verdicts by juries were permitted, few verdicts would stand, as Governor Dix pointed out in his letter to Dr. Tyng. Every criminal who had money at command would find the means of persuading some of the jurors to declare that they never would have agreed if they had not supposed, etc., etc., and as long as unanimity is required by law, the purchase of such a declaration from even one juror would be sufficient to throw the responsibility of not granting a pardon on the Governor. We would ask the Bar Association, apropos of this affair, whether they do not owe it to the public to put some formal limit to the part which members of the bar may play in procuring pardons. Lawyers are officers of the courts, and nothing can well be thought of better calculated to bring the administration of justice into contempt with the ignorant and unthinking than the public criticism or revision of the decisions of the highest tribunals, at the request of convicts, by members of the bar in high standing, or their public approval of attempts by jurors to upset their own verdicts, by appeals addressed to the public, which no judge would listen to. Counsel of eminence have heavy responsibilities to the community, and ought to consider the effect of their words on the general welfare as well as on the particular case in which their sympathies are enlisted.

General Dix is entitled to the warmest gratitude of the public for the firmness and courage which he displayed in this affair. He was decried in the canvass by the Greeleyites, on account of his advanced age; but it must be admitted he "puts his foot down" in a way which very few of the legs of younger politicians would bear. His letter to Dr. Tyng was a model of persuasive, dignified, and solemn explanation, a kind of paper which we have not seen from the hands of any man in public life for many a day. He has had, during the painful ordeal to which he has been subjected—an ordeal which domestic bereavement must have made all the harder—the sympathy of every thinking person in the community. But the responsibility which has been put on him is one which no one man ought to be asked to bear, and the pardoning power ought either to be committed to a council, if it is to be discretionary, or to a court, if it is to be regulated by rules. The President, by the way, has just pardoned a foul and bloody murderer, named O'Brien, in Washington, on the prayer of the Catholic clergy. No mere human eye could detect a palliating feature in the man's case, but he is safe, and the question is now raised again, whether the President has the power to commute, that is, whether his pardons are not absolute. We would warn the Protestant clergy that in the pardon business the priests will beat them utterly. Catholics commit a very respectable percentage of the national crimes, and if criminals are to be let off on account of their early piety or the piety of their relatives, we venture to predict that enough Catholic saints will turn up in the jails of our country to recall the days of Diocletian.

We are sorry to have to recall what we said a few weeks ago about the success of the Emma mine. The monthly dividends have stopped, and it now appears that a portion of them had been paid out of the capital. In fact, although there is no doubt that there is much silver in the mine, the representations on which it was sold were fraudulent. The concern is therefore a swindle—one more of the things which are blackening the American name in the markets of Europe, and aggravated greatly by General Schenck's share in it, which is that of what is, in London stock-jobbing parlance, called a "guinea-pig"—that is, a man with a title or official position, who lends his name to speculators to enable them to get up a company and "float" the stock. The stockholders are of course up in arms, and threatening vengeance.

A singular illustration of the amount of organization, skill, education, and capital which nowadays can be enlisted in the service of profitable crime is given by the recent forgery frauds on the Bank of England. The Bank of England takes the utmost precautions

against fraud, requiring an introduction from one of the directors before it will open a "discount account" even with a depositor. But there is a branch bank in Burlington Gardens, in the West End of London, for small local business, in which the regulations are not so strict, and to this bank the forgers went. One of the gang opened with the branch bank an ordinary deposit account, depositing a sufficient cash balance to make the thing look natural. Then for months he drew checks and made deposits, like any other customer of the bank, always keeping his balance at a good figure. After a time he deposited some bills. The bills were perfectly good. Still he moved with great caution, and continued his transactions until he acquired a good reputation with the bank. At length, the moment having come, a great quantity of forged bills—the signatures, acceptances, and endorsements being all forged—were offered, and the bills were discounted without hesitation, the gang receiving from the bank £100,000. The bills were drawn with the greatest ingenuity, due care being taken to imitate the kind of paper used by the firms whose names were signed, as well as the printed forms on the blanks. The paper was at three months, and, but for a singular oversight, the forgers might have gone off with their booty and got rid of it long before any suspicion attached to them. On two of the bills the acceptances were not dated, and on one of them something was wrong about a printed form. Enquiry was at once made, and the forgery discovered. The gang fled; their plunder, invested in United States bonds, was sent to this city, and has been seized; one of them has been arrested in England, one in Havana, and one in New York; and it seems as if the bank ought now to get back as much of their money as the lawyers, sheriffs, deputy-sheriffs, detectives, informers, telegraph companies, and other lovers of justice may not need for themselves.

The moral influence of the Washington Treaty is, we are sorry to say, gradually but surely disappearing. The first blow at it was struck by the Indirect Claims, which revived the old ill-feeling; then the Butler proposal with regard to the distribution of the damages has created the impression in England that the British have been overreached in the amount of the award; and now finally comes a move in Parliament, promoted by Mr. Gathorne Hardy, to do away with the force of the Three Rules by moving the Queen, when bringing them to the notice of other powers and inviting them to accede to them, as she is by the Treaty bound to do, "to express her dissent from the principles set forth by the Tribunal as the basis of their award—principles which, by unduly enlarging the rights of belligerent powers against neutrals, would discourage in future the observance of neutrality by states desirous of peace." We have more than once explained in these columns the peculiarly onerous character of these principles. Their force and bearing, and the possible consequences if carried into practice, have been ably described by Mr. J. N. Pomeroy, in the January number of the *Law Review*. The doctrine which the Tribunal broadly laid down, which Mr. Cushing and Mr. Evarts urged—that international law knows nothing of constitutional checks and limitations, and measures "due diligence" not by the lawful power of the neutral, but by the magnitude of the risk to the belligerent—is of course most momentous for all constitutional neutrals, and Great Britain, there is now little doubt, will refuse to be bound by it. We suspect the United States will also, when the emergency comes.

There is no foreign news of much importance. Mr. Gladstone has gone back into power, but with nothing new in his programme, except probably the abandonment of the Irish University Bill. The *Economist* offers him some consolation on this point, which is really valuable, viz., that there is no use in mourning over failure to satisfy the Irish Catholics in the matter of education, for the simple reason that they cannot be satisfied. To endow a Catholic University, which is what the bishops ask for, would be to set the state to teaching their religion, just after it has decided in the case of the English Universities that it will not teach its own religion, so that there is no chance even of a compromise. Mr. Gladstone's speech on returning to office contained nothing of much moment, and Mr. Disraeli gave no hint of a desire to do anything Mr. Gladstone was not doing and had not done. The South Wales strike, and the growing price of iron, are still the most prominent topics of thought and conversation, and the most serious.

The *Tribune* of March 21, in some comments on "the re-entry of Gladstone," treats the refusal of Disraeli to form a ministry, or to dissolve Parliament and appeal to the country, and his confession that he had no chance of success under any circumstances, as not only a violation of the rules of the party game, as played in England, but as a "serious injury to the unwritten Constitution of England," and a "precedent of the greatest importance in the development of democratic government in England," as bringing it nearer the model of an elective democracy, "choosing its rulers for fixed terms with limited powers." The fact is, that what has occurred in England within the last few days is neither unprecedented nor as important as it seems. In the first place, it is nothing new for the opposition to decline all responsibility whatever. The Whigs asserted their right to do this to the extent of seceding from the House of Commons in November, 1776, as a protest against the American War. They did this again in 1798, on the questions arising out of the French Revolution. Nor is it new for the opposition to defeat the ministry on a particular measure, and for the ministry to remain in power, accept the defeat, and change its policy. Lord John Russell defeated the government of the Duke of Wellington in 1828 on the Corporation and Test Acts; the Duke took his beating calmly, staid in office, and let the bill pass. Again, in 1845, Sir Robert Peel resigned on finding that he could not carry his party with him in the repeal of the Corn Laws, and Lord John Russell having failed to form a ministry, Sir Robert went back into office, and did repeal them in defiance of his own followers. In 1852, when the Russell ministry was overthrown, Lord Derby took office, but without a policy of any kind—that is, he was in exactly the position in which Mr. Disraeli is now, and was defeated at the elections, and had to resign; and the judgment of most English politicians and publicists was, and is, that he ought, under the circumstances, to have declined to form a Cabinet. "In the interest of his party," says Sir Erskine May, "he would have done well to decline the hopeless enterprise which had fallen to his lot," as Disraeli has done.

The Spanish Cortes has made a good beginning by abolishing slavery in Porto Rico, unanimously and by acclamation. The slaves, who number in all about 50,000, are emancipated at once, but have to serve somebody for three years in some sort of apprenticeship apparently, and in five years are to become Spanish citizens. The owners are to be indemnified, but the amount will be "charged," the cable says, "to the Porto Rico budget," whatever that may mean. "Charging" is easy enough; the important question is where to get the money. The other Spanish news is rather dismal. The abolition of the conscription has, it is now admitted, put the finishing touch to the disorganization of the army. Soldiers are mutinying or deserting in every direction, and the Carlists make headway slowly, but still they make it. To crown all, it is announced that "foreigners" have begun to arrive, with the view of "establishing the Commune" in Madrid. The Madrid Commune will have the advantage over its Parisian prototype of not having much to fear from soldiers. It is a sign of the times that so shrewd a man as Marshal Serrano has sent his family to France.

"GOOD MEN" AND CITY GOVERNMENT.

THE latest attempt to provide New York with a charter may not appear on the surface to have much interest for persons who do not live in the city, and yet it really is full of importance not only for all dwellers in cities, but for all citizens of the United States, because it affords a striking illustration of the change in the relations of the Federal to the State governments which the war has brought about, and which it must be the first aim of all true reform to undo. We tried to explain, a fortnight ago, how it was that the Federal officials in this city had come to represent the Republican party in it, and to be entrusted by the country Republicans, as well as by the Washington Government, with the charge of the party affairs here. In the early days of the party, however, the country majority tried honestly to do what seemed best for city interests, and listened respectfully to the advice of its leading city men. The various commissions which were organized by Albany legislation before the war did really seem, to a large number of our leading citizens, the best mode of securing life and property against the action of demagogues like Fernando Wood, who within the ten years after 1846 began to rise to the surface. That legislation did not always harmonize with the theory of popular government embodied in the State constitution; but it was an honest attempt to deal with evils which the framers of the State constitution had not foreseen, and was in the main approved of by the best men of the Republican party, here as well as elsewhere. It was only after the election of Mr. Lincoln and the passage of the Custom-house into Republican hands, that the very lowest grade of Republican politicians began to take charge of municipal affairs. During the war their minds, as well as those of other people, were filled with more serious matters, but after 1865 they gave themselves up completely to what they called "the reorganization of the party" on Manhattan Island, though it was not until after the election of General Grant that they attained the summit of their desires by securing the appointment of their cherished chief and leader, Mr. Tom Murphy, to the Collectorship. They were eclipsed for a year or two by the appearance of Tweed on the horizon, and compelled to "work" under him or in unison with him, and were a good deal crushed by his overthrow, but since the Reform storm blew over, they have been gradually reasserting their sway, and have finally gone to the length of drawing a charter for the city, and nearly forcing it through the Legislature.

At this writing it seems likely to pass the Senate, considerably altered it is true, but with its most objectionable feature—the exclusion of the Mayor from power and responsibility—retained, to all intents and purposes. Its promoters first tried to give the power of nomination to the Aldermen, leaving the Mayor to confirm if he pleased; and if he did not please, forcing him to take his seat with the Aldermen and exercise the valuable privilege of casting a single vote on the final decision by that body. The strong opposition they met with in the Senate forced them into a modification of this section, by which the Mayor got the nominating power; but if the Aldermen did not confirm within five days, the appointment was to go before another board composed of the Mayor and the Presidents of the Boards of Aldermen and Assistant Aldermen, in which, of course, the Mayor might and probably would be outvoted, or forced into a "compromise," whenever the Ring saw fit to call for one. Whether this scheme will be carried we do not know, but it appears pretty clear that the promoters of the Charter will offer no better terms. As it stands, it is condemned by all parties; even the Ring organ gives it up as a bad job. In weighing it, it ought to be remembered that for some weeks past it has been openly avowed that the object of the bill is to enable "the Republican party" to govern this city, and that the reason of it is "the distrust" felt by certain gentlemen of Mayor Havemeyer. Mr. Havemeyer has been an honored and useful citizen of New York for fifty years; it was his high personal character and the memory of his lifelong devotion to the best interests of the city, in and out of office, which caused men of all parties to vote for him last fall. Nobody "distrusts" him now that we know of except Messrs. Murphy, Gardner, Bliss, and Davenport, and a few dozen less-known men; and the persons we are asked to repose confidence in as genuine reformers, after the discovery of Mr. Havemeyer's treason, are——Messrs. Murphy, Gardner, Bliss, and Davenport.

Now it is to be hoped that Governor Dix, should the charter get through in this shape, will veto it, for reasons all of which do not appear at first glance, but which have for some weeks been present in the mind of nearly every thinking man in this city. We have arrived at a stage of badness in our municipal government which cannot last much longer without serious and it may be irretrievable injury to the city. Its growth and prosperity have, as we all know, been greatly retarded during the last ten years by the maladministration of its affairs. Fortunately for the country, though unfortunately for New Yorkers, it has no real monopoly of the business which has built it up. It got the start of Boston and Philadelphia and Baltimore at the beginning of the century in the means of communication with the West, and it has held the advantage which this gave it down to our day; but its hold on it is seriously shaken both by the opening of new lines of communication and by the shocking insecurity of property within its limits, and that it is not already lost is due largely to the strong and not unnatural expectation of property-holders that some radical change for the better will eventually take place. Under the Tweed Ring, a perceptible movement of capital and population to other places had already set in. It was stayed or arrested by the Reform movement, and it is of the last importance that it should not be set agoing once more by that greatest of all calamities—a widespread and settled conviction that even the great popular rising of 1871 had wrought no real change for the better. There is no despair like the despair which comes after we have done our very best and failed, because all share in it—the brave as well as the faint-hearted. To the question: If such a revolution as that of last year, brought about by unparalleled frauds, does not end in radical improvement, to what agency are we to look for it?—there is, therefore, absolutely no answer. It is essential that we get out of it some solid and substantial results—results visible to the carnal eye as well as to the eye of faith; and we say this while bearing in mind the reform which has been effected in the judiciary. But rejoicing over this is very like rejoicing over the forbearance of robbers who have plundered your house, in not taking your life. In congratulating ourselves on the overthrow of Tweed, we are sobered by the melancholy fact, that the State Senate has not to this day ventured to expel him or declare his seat vacant (though he has never occupied it) or hear any charges against him, for the very well-known reason that some of its members were his confederates and took his bribes, or, to use his own terse, homely phrase, because "if they touch him, somebody 'll get hurt."

Now, there are two essentials of any charter intended to turn over a new leaf in municipal politics and give us really a reformed government. One is, that the charter emanate from a respectable source, by which we mean a source which will command *general* confidence; the other is, that its machinery be of a kind to rouse public spirit, to make it seem to men of property and intelligence worth their while "to go to the polls" and give their attention to public affairs. The first of these is necessary in order to break up a tradition which is the cause of all our woes—namely, that the city government is the lawful spoil of whatever party wins in the State election, and that even the charter is simply an instrument for putting the victors in possession of their booty. Of course no charter formed on this theory can have the good of the city for its main object. The passage of every charter framed on it is now looked on by the mass of citizens as simply a redistribution of offices, in which they have no concern. They had begun to feel this even when Albany politicians were respectable men; they feel it tenfold more now that Albany politicians have become a bye-word for meanness, ignorance, and venality, and when they legislate in broad daylight under the guidance of paltry politicians sent up from this city. In old times they were seduced—if seduced—by men of ability and prominence; in our day they are

superintended at their work, and have their work cut out for them, by men who would not be entrusted by their fellow-citizens with the management of a successful beer-garden. Now it is hopeless, we believe all rational men admit, to get any charter to work unless the intelligent and influential portion of the community believe that it was made to work, and that they themselves can work it. This belief, and this only, will rouse and keep alive that general interest in municipal affairs without which they cannot be well administered. We cannot provide thieves to steal twenty millions every second year, so as to create a "revolution"; we must rely on the moral sense, and patriotism, and self-interest of ordinary men in ordinary times, attending day by day to their ordinary work. Such men, however, will not trouble their heads about any charter which emanates from a clique of politicians, and is avowedly intended to govern the city in the interest of one party. We have got far beyond the state of feeling in which that was possible. Ten such charters may be passed and no real change for the better will take place, and if we keep on passing them long enough we shall kill the city within the present century, and leave nothing but deserted streets and empty wharves for the aged Murphy and Davenport and Bliss to totter about in. The result of trying this system of party charters is simply that after one is passed by desperate efforts, the other party against which it is aimed goes vigorously to work either to overthrow it or to share in whatever "spoils" can be got out of it, and when it gets hold of the State legislature—as it is pretty sure to do in the reaction—it proceeds to make a new charter of its own, which redistributes the offices, and so on *ad infinitum*. Will Governor Dix lend himself to the enactment of another of these little farces? We think not. He knows perfectly well that a charter drafted by Federal officials in this city excites suspicion from the very outset, and that he could not find ten men —no, not even ten—of character, intelligence, and property in New York to-day, who, if asked whether they thought Messrs. Murphy, Bliss, Gardner, and Davenport were the persons to draw up a new scheme of city government at this great crisis in our municipal history, would not answer by a broad grin. That nobody else offered to draw one is of about the same value, as an argument, as the objection to raising the salary of the Chief-Justice of the United States, that men could be got to take his place at one thousand dollars a year. If nobody else offers to draft a charter at present, pray let us wait till somebody does who commands public confidence. Better by far live under the present one than throw away on a sham and subterfuge the present interest in reform, because, if you throw it away, you will not be able to rouse it again in twenty years.

To revive public spirit among us, or keep alive what there is, the machinery of the charter, too, must be such that plain people will understand it, and this means that there must be somebody on whom any taxpayer who feels aggrieved, and thinks things are going wrong, can lay his finger, and convict him of oversight or malfeasance, without any manner of doubt or difficulty. That is to say, the responsibility must be lodged in some person whom the average man can find, and who, when found, cannot wriggle out, and say that it is Smith or Jones in the Board of Aldermen who is to blame, and that it was all owing to "pressure" or "claims." That this person ought to be the Mayor, of course there is no question. We know all the objections that may be made to this. It may be said that this is "Cæsarism," and that the President of the United States has no such power, and that if you let the Mayor make the appointments he will "re-elect himself." To this last argument the reply is really the well-known one, "Trust the people"; if they have not enough comprehension and vigor to prevent a Mayor's keeping office when they do not desire him, a Cæsar is just the thing for them. In fact, they cannot get along without one, and the sooner they have one, the better; and though it is true that any such concentration of responsibility would be novel, it is also true that the situation here is novel, and cannot be dealt with by ordinary means. If we are to have the old distribution of checks and balances, and if every time the citizen complains of anything he is pointed to a table containing fifty thimbles, and is told before he can get redress he must guess which covers "the little joker," the government of the city will continue to be the game of a few charlatans, and not the deep and earnest concern of the community at large.

THE ARGUMENT AGAINST CAPITAL PUNISHMENT.

MR. MARTIN H. BOVEE is a gentleman who has taken an active and successful part in the effort to abolish capital punishment in various States, and has for some years made a practice of writing a letter to the New York *Tribune* whenever the subject was occupying public attention, reiterating the arguments against the death penalty, and citing the experience of such States as have done away with it. We always read these letters with interest, as likely to contain the latest views on the subject of those who pay most attention to it, but have never done so without being struck by the illustration they afford of the way in which the feelings of Transcendentalists and Sentimentalists—we do not use the words in any offensive sense —enable them to glide over the knotty points in political and legal problems. Of course, the main question in this controversy is the effect of the abolition of capital punishment on the number of murders committed within a given period; and it would be instructive to learn what the experience of the non-hanging States on this point has been, although it would by no means settle the matter for communities in a different condition. The relation between crime and punishment is not a constant one, because punishment is only one of the many restraints on crime. Others, such as sparseness of population, abundance of the means of subsistence, a high standard of education, and powerful social and religious traditions, exist in very different degrees of force in different communities, and there would, for this reason, be a certain absurdity in treating the experience of Michigan, for instance, as conclusive for New York. Nevertheless, we should greatly like to know, and it would be useful for us to know, whether murder has increased or diminished in frequency since the abolition of the death penalty in those States in which the abolition took place long enough ago to furnish anything in the nature of experience; and we began Mr. Bovee's letter, which appeared in the *Tribune* of Saturday, in eager expectation of this information. On this point, however, he absolutely tells us nothing. He evidently thinks he does, but he does n't. His mind is wholly occupied with showing that *convictions* of murderers are surer and more frequent when you imprison for life than when you hang, and that public opinion is running against hanging throughout the Union; but these things we knew already. There is no doubt that the lighter you make the penalty, the more ready will juries be to convict. If you were to enact that all persons guilty of homicide should be imprisoned for one month, and no more, we venture to say an acquittal would be unknown. No defects in the evidence would save a man. A jury would be ready to find everybody guilty who was found within five hundred yards of the corpse. What it most concerns the public to know is, not whether conviction is sure, but whether the penalty is a deterrent? We do not care particularly how many men are found guilty in any year. The question which interests us is, is their fate likely to be a warning? Are others likely to be prevented from killing or robbing us by the spectacle of their punishment? There has been so much difficulty of late years in obtaining convictions, and convictions have such close traditional associations with severe punishments, that district attorneys and anti-capital-punishment men have come to regard them as the great and only desiderata of criminal jurisprudence—not the means of punishment, but punishment itself—and when they get a verdict of guilty from a jury, or provide a penalty which juries are not likely to find objectionable, they turn round with an air of triumph, as if they had solved the problem of the defence of society against crime. There is a simplicity about some of their utterances on this subject which would be amusing if anything could amuse one in the discussion of so serious a subject.

For instance, Mr. Bovee produces with something like glee a list

of convictions for murder in the first degree in Michigan since 1846, when the death penalty was abolished. They are thirty in number, and tell us nothing whatever, although he bases on them the singular conclusion "that, under the benign operations of the present system, Michigan has proved to the world that society is just as safe and as well-governed without the gibbet as with it." Upon the essential point, whether murders are, in proportion to population, fewer in number now than before the abolition of the death penalty, he actually submits as "proof" of the efficacy of the new system the following statement from the State Prison Inspector, Mr. Clark:

"As to the question, 'Has crime increased since capital punishment was abolished?' I can only say that it is the opinion of the undersigned that it will be found on comparison with States of equal population where the death penalty is in force, that ours will compare favorably with them. We now have a population of not far from 700,000; and it is estimated by those who have the best means of judging, that of the whole number convicted of murder in the first degree since the death penalty was abolished, not half a dozen of them would have been convicted had 'hanging' been the penalty."

Here we have Mr. Clark's opinion that Michigan will "compare favorably" with other States of equal population (Michigan being an extraordinarily well-educated, prosperous agricultural State, settled mainly by New Englanders), and Mr. Clark's assertion that a certain indeterminate and unknown body of persons ("those who have the best means of judging") "estimate" that if these thirty men had been tried while the death penalty was in force, less than six would have been convicted. Mr. Bovee applied for information on this same point to the agent of the State Prison at Jackson, and got more "proof" of the same kind from him. He says frankly:

"I am unable to give you a comparative statement of the decrease of capital offences since the abolition of the death penalty. *I am fully confirmed in my own mind*, however, that society has not suffered in consequence of the abolition of capital punishment."

He applied again, two years later, to another agent of the prison, Mr. Bingham, but fared no better. To the question, "Has the crime of murder increased since the abolition of the death penalty?" Mr. Bingham replies: "I answer that, from the best data and information to be had, I am well satisfied that it has not." The "best data and information," however, are not forthcoming, and we strongly suspect they are very like those which satisfied Mr. Boutwell that Mr. Wells was wrong in his calculations about the crops, viz., his own observations from the car window as he rode to Washington. Mr. Bovee evidently feels that it would be well to have facts and figures on so important a point, but he is not disconcerted by not getting them. He also applied to the warden of the State Prison in Rhode Island, Mr. Nelson Viall, but failed again. Mr. Viall assured him "that the crime of murder had not increased since the abolition of the death penalty; that, on the contrary, considering the increase of population since 1852, it had diminished." How he knew this, he declined or neglected to state, but Mr. Bovee declares nevertheless that "the testimony as to Rhode Island is conclusive."

He then goes out to Wisconsin, his own State, and interrogates the Prison Commissioner of the State, Mr. Cordier, who calmly assures him that the abolition of the death penalty "has been productive of great good, rendering convictions more certain, and thus diminishing those crimes which under the old law could scarcely ever be punished." This is all he has to show on the very essence of a most important question, and he has evidently not the slightest suspicion that anything is wanting in his argument.

He has reached one other conclusion which we can hardly touch on without seeming desirous of holding a very worthy man up to ridicule. He finds not only that the abolition of the death penalty has been a good thing for society, but that murderers who are imprisoned for life are apt to be a very superior body of men. Mr. Bingham, of Michigan, reports to him that the general conduct of life-convicts "will average quite as good, or better, than those confined for the minor offences." Mr. Morris says that "there is not a more dependent, submissive class of convicts in the prison than those confined for murder, and they seldom give us any trouble by violation of prison rules or attempts to escape." Mr. McGraw, the State Prison Commissioner in Wisconsin, says "that as a general thing, those confined for murder are much better men, men of more integrity, on whose word I can place more reliance, who have better moral perceptions, and are altogether of a *higher order of being*, than those confined for the minor offences. The abolition of capital punishment cannot but have a beneficial effect. As I am of the opinion that like produces like, it cannot be otherwise than that the adoption of a Christian system by the State government must produce a Christian feeling among the governed." We thus see that the changing of the penalty of death into one of imprisonment for life elevates and ennobles all who afterwards commit the crimes to which it is annexed, so that a wilful murderer enters under its operation into "a higher order of being" than the man who commits a common assault. In view of this, would it not be well, we may ask, to make all offences capital, and then change the penalty into imprisonment, so as to bring all prisoners, and not the murderers only, under the influence of this extraordinary form of grace?

The fact is, as well as we can make out, that Mr. Bovee knows little or nothing about the value of the death penalty as a deterren against murder. What he does know, and what we all know, is that public opinion inclines against it, and that its abolition has been tried in various States—we cannot yet tell with what result—and that convictions are easier to obtain when the criminal's life is not at stake. To what this state of feeling is due, and in what manner it should be dealt with in legislation, are questions hard to answer, and which we shall not attempt to discuss this week. We call attention to Mr. Bovee's letter, as a fair specimen of the kind of argument and rhetoric through which a great many momentous political and legal changes have been worked during the last forty years, of many of which the fruits only now begin to be visible. The events of the past ten, however, have convinced a very large part of the public that the great problems of government are not to be solved by eloquence, and that the best instrument of happiness and prosperity is the habit of seeing things as they are, and that enduring societies must rest on facts rather than aspirations. The dreams of Messrs. Boutwell, Wilson, and their kind, in 1846, about the judiciary, gave us Barnard, McCunn, and Cardozo in 1866; and who knows what the dreams of many other good people, including Mr. Bovee, might give us in 1900?

CALDWELL AND CASEY BEFORE THE SENATE.

WASHINGTON, March 22.

THE debate on the Caldwell bribery case in the Senate has been a very instructive and useful one, not only by putting into clearer light the decline of political morals and the necessity of strong remedies, but also by giving public men of different parties, who have common objects in view, an opportunity to meet on a common ground. It is very curious to observe the groupings which have taken place in the Senate since the 4th of March. Mr. Morton, as Chairman of the Committee on Privileges and Elections, which had investigated the allegations of bribery connected with Mr. Caldwell's election, reported a resolution that Mr. Caldwell was not duly and legally elected, thus taking the ground, first, that the charges of bribery are proved, and, secondly, that an election controlled by bribery is illegal and void. This resolution is heartily supported by Morrill of Vermont, Morrill of Maine, Pratt of Indiana, Buckingham of Connecticut, Alcorn of Mississippi—Republicans; Schurz of Missouri, Liberal; and Thurman of Ohio, Norwood of Georgia, Stevenson of Kentucky, and Saulsbury of Delaware, Democrats—who hold that the Senate has the power to declare an election void on account of bribery, and that it is its duty to do so. The Democrats Bayard, Stockton, and Hamilton are in favor of expelling Caldwell from the Senate, holding that bribery has been proven in this case, but that it will only justify the punishment of the guilty person by expulsion, without invalidating the election as such, for the reason that the election of a senator is the act of a State in its sovereign capacity; that such an act, if performed by a legal legislature and in accordance with law, cannot be questioned by the Senate; and that, therefore, the Senate has no power to declare the election void on the ground of bribery. Ferry of Connecticut declares that he entirely agrees

with the constitutional theory of the first group, but, as he is in doubt whether Mr. Caldwell's majority in the election was entirely owing to bribery, he will only vote to expel Mr. Caldwell for the bribery actually proven. It must be observed that the resolution to declare the election invalid requires only a majority to carry, while the resolution to expel requires a vote of two-thirds. The third group is formed by those who go for Caldwell through thick and thin, who hold that the Senate has no power at all to declare an election void on account of bribery, be that bribery ever so gross and well proven, and that Mr. Caldwell ought not to be expelled because the charge of bribery has, in his case, not been sustained. Most prominent among them are Conkling and Carpenter, followed by such men as Logan, Stewart, Cameron, Chandler, and the whole host of Southern carpet-baggers and extreme partisans.

This division is very significant. There is evidently a break in the Democratic line with regard to the old extreme State-sovereignty doctrine. And there is a break in the Republican line on the question of public morals and the remedies to be employed to cure existing evils. Men of moral sensibility are growing impatient under the reckless leadership which has hitherto controlled them, while Mr. Conkling, by putting himself forward on every occasion as the champion of such worthies as Spencer and Caldwell, is said to be at work forming himself a sort of personal bodyguard out of that element, whose votes he will always command and who will look up to him as their great protector. In that way he expects to overcome Morton's competition for the leadership of the Administration forces. Whether it is a mere accident that Mr. Morton is found associated with the most respectable men in the Senate, remains to be seen.

There is a rumor to-day that the debate on this bribery case will find a sudden termination, not in a vote but in the resignation of Caldwell. But whatever the immediate result may be, it is universally felt here that the debate will in any event have a wholesome effect. The ordeal Mr. Caldwell has gone through was so terrible that candidates for the Senate will for some time be very careful not to expose themselves to an investigation. It has also become very probable that bribery at elections will be the subject of legislation next winter.

The leaders of the Administration party are determined not to permit the Louisiana election cases to come up during this extra session. They hope that before the next meeting of Congress the people of Louisiana will be so thoroughly subjugated to the Kellogg government as to abandon all further attempt to oppose that usurpation, and that then the admission of Pinchback to a seat in the Senate will follow as a matter of course. The triumph of that monstrous fraud will form one of the saddest and most dangerous precedents in our history, but the spokesmen of the Administration are determined to carry things with a high hand, if only to make the people feel that they *can* do what they please.

Those who entertained any hope that Gen. Grant's second Administration would lead to some reform of the civil service have now abandoned it. The distribution of the spoils is carried on unblushingly in the old way. There is not the least difference perceptible. When here and there a pretence is made of promotion according to the new civil-service rules, it looks like merely a cruel mockery. Senators and representatives are distributing offices among their retainers just as they did in the good old times when civil-service reform was not spoken of. The office-mongers' business flourishes as much as ever. Nor is there the least shadow of hope left that the President will do anything to stem the tide. When it became known here that Mr. George William Curtis was dissatisfied with the appointment of Mr. Sharpe to the Surveyorship of the port of New York, a derisive smile might have been seen on the faces of those high in influence. For when the President showed himself so utterly disdainful of the spirit of the civil-service rules as to reappoint those notorious characters Packard and Casey—men who had been "shown up" by a Congressional investigation not only as mere political strikers, but as corrupt men, notably so in Casey's case—the indecency of Sharpe's appointment dropped into utter insignificance. The scandal of Casey's appointment was so great that many expected the Senate would reject it, especially as it was known that Mr. West, the senator from Louisiana, would earnestly oppose its confirmation. But, as I have just learned, the Senate confirmed the appointment to-day, and it is now clear that nothing in that line will henceforward be impossible. If Mr. Curtis could listen to the current talk among Senators and Congressmen high in the confidence of the White House, if he could hear the contemptuous sneers and ridicule of which his civil-service rules are the subject, he would soon become aware that his disappointment in the Sharpe affair is by no means the worst snubbing he has received. To expect a genuine reform of the civil service from "that crowd" is simply absurd. We may set it down as a certainty now that the moral tone of General Grant's second Administration will not be a particle above the level of the first, and, if the people want reform, they will have to look to other agencies and influences.

In still another respect the President has disappointed the expectations of those who would be glad to aid him in anything calculated to benefit the country. It was announced shortly before the 4th of March that he would visit the Southern States and inform himself on the spot of the real condition of things. The Southerners here, of whom I have seen many, without distinction of party received that promise with the utmost satisfaction. They hoped that such a journey would be the starting-point of a more intelligent and just policy. But the President has now resolved, instead of visiting the South, to go to St. Louis and look after his property, which has been damaged by fire, and then, as soon as the most pressing business in Washington is disposed of, and the weather becomes warm, to transfer the scene of his labors to Long Branch and the neighborly companionship of Tom Murphy. There are various rumors floating in the air about annexation schemes, mainly referring to the West India Islands, but they cannot be traced to any authentic source. It is, however, by no means improbable that the President, during his sojourn at Long Branch, will be surrounded by the speculators who have made investments in the Samana Bay enterprise, and who will be ready to offer their advice as to the spreading of our language and the blessings of our institutions over foreign countries. Thus we may look for something in that direction.

On the whole, it may be said that the best men of the Republican party here are in a depressed state of mind. They look upon the developments of the last session of Congress as very disastrous, and find no consolation and assurance of improvement in the way in which things are being done now. For the present, they have only gathered courage enough to express their dissatisfaction and uneasiness in an undertone and before confidential friends; but it is not probable that the discontent which is growing every day can be long kept down. The next session will undoubtedly bring forth a crystallization of the elements which belong together, but which so far have been kept asunder by old party divisions.

ENGLAND—THE IRISH UNIVERSITY DEBATES.

LONDON, March 7, 1873.

I AM certainly not the first, and I presume I shall not be the last, newspaper correspondent to lament over the invention of electric telegraphs. We are in the position of spectators of a new drama, and my comments on the first and second acts of the performance will appear terribly stale when read by persons familiar with the catastrophe. It is not impossible that some doubt may be thrown upon my prophetic powers—and suspicion upon that subject touches one in a very tender point. I am, for example, obliged to write to you after the second evening's debate on the Irish University Bill. The next discussion will take place on Monday, and it seems to be improbable, though not impossible, that the division will be reached on that evening. Now, the change of opinion within the last few days has been so rapid that it is hard to conjecture what may be the result of a little further development of the state of affairs. All that I can do with safety is to endeavor to exhibit the present stage of our opinions, and to trace its history. You will know before you receive this whether, to use the illustration suggested by *Punch*, Mr. Gladstone has succeeded in clearing this last fence as successfully as he cleared the formidable obstacles of the Church and Land Bills, or whether the bold rider is doomed to come down with a crash. The prospect, which seemed to be cheerful on the first announcement of the Government scheme, has been growing gloomier ever since, and we hold our breaths as we watch the final result.

As I wrote in my last, the delight expressed by Radicals at Mr. Gladstone's first speech vanished on second thoughts. But their natural antagonists are not one whit better pleased. Never was a bill so vehemently condemned by the most hostile parties. The *Daily News* opposed it in the name of Liberal principles almost from the first. The Irish Roman Catholic bishops gave the signal for an equally uncompromising denunciation on the part of the Ultramontanes. Their opposition is too open and decided to pass as a mere feint intended to extort better terms. They tell us plainly that they reject the offer altogether, and will be satisfied with nothing less than an unconditional surrender. The *Times*, that admirable weathercock, has worked steadily round from a general expression of approval to a decided condemnation of the bill. All this was known before the debate on the second reading began; but it might be expected that the advocates of Government policy would be able to turn the tide by showing a bold front in the House. Any such expectations were signally falsified on the first evening. Amidst the general chorus of disapproval from all parts of the House, the most conspicuous opponent of the measure was Mr. Fawcett. He, as you may remember, had a scheme of his own, which was simply to

throw open Trinity College to men of all creeds. It was shelved with some trouble last session, but his study of the subject, and his position as an active professor at Cambridge, enabled him to speak with more than his usual authority. He made a number of good points, amongst which the most telling was perhaps the remark that Mr. Gladstone's measure would for the first time give the sanction of a Liberal government to the theory of the more bigoted Roman Catholics, according to which a mixed education is an impossibility. The Government bill, by proposing a maimed university, without professors of metaphysics or modern history, explicitly confesses that most important subjects cannot be taught to a mixed body of students. That is the very ground of the Catholic opposition, and its justice is thus granted by the so-called Liberals. By a most unfortunate arrangement, poor Lord Hartington was put up to answer the professor. Lord Hartington is one of the least impressive orators whom it has ever been my fortune to hear; every pause—and there are many—in his sentences seems to be filled by a contagious yawn. On the present occasion, his want of oratorical vigor was made more conspicuous by his obvious want of faith in the vitality of the measure, and he condescended to retorts of the schoolboy variety. He feebly suggested, by way of argument, that Mr. Fawcett was not the kind of professor who would be relished by the Catholic students. Nothing could be truer, in all probability, but the statement was ingeniously irrelevant. At the end of the evening, the general feeling was that the bill had received something like a deadly blow. The Government champions, such as they were, were simply knocked out of time; and their strongest argument had been that the bill must be a judicious compromise, because it displeased everybody. Nobody builds an argument for a measure on such a foundation so long as he has any plausible reason for denying that the foundation exists.

Last night the struggle began again, and people were curious to know whether Government would show any signs of yielding. Once more the stream of debate ran strongly against the measure. The two really powerful speeches of the evening were made by Mr. Horsman, who argued that the cry which Mr. Gladstone was vainly endeavoring to pacify came from the priests and not from the people, and by Dr. Playfair, who never speaks without weight, and who protested forcibly against the degradation of university teaching likely to result from the adoption of the bill. The champions of the Government were Mr. Chichester Fortescue, who produced little effect, and Mr. Lowe, whose oratory was not much better, though he threw out certain intimations calculated to appease his adversaries. Mr. Lowe is in rather an unfortunate position for defending schemes of university reform. Though himself a conspicuous and brilliant example of that kind of culture which is to be received at Oxford, he has an unfortunate disposition to take the cynical and sarcastic view of things. He has made himself rather notorious of late by advocating the purely pounds-shillings-and-pence view of education, and carrying to its legitimate conclusion Cobden's celebrated comparison of the relative advantage of an acquaintance with the Ilyssus and the Mississippi. He was therefore not well qualified to meet the objection that the proposed university, bound hand and foot, and deprived of a voice in order that it might say nothing offensive, would provide a really satisfactory scheme of higher education. He showed, of course, his usual logical dexterity, but labored most on a point on which he was most distinctly wrong and which is of serious importance—the supposed advantage, that is, of having a single university instead of allowing competition. He implied, however, that Government was likely to make two concessions: that it would not insist upon the so-called "gagging clauses," intended to prevent the professors from saying anything offensive to anybody, and that it would not allow every petty seminary in Ireland to be represented on the Governing Board. In spite, however, of these sacrifices, the general feeling was obviously that the debate had done more damage to a bill already sufficiently injured in public esteem. What, people are naturally asking, is the good of having a bill at all? It notoriously does not satisfy the Catholics, and, indeed, would merely give a new impulse to an agitation for confiscating Trinity College. It does not satisfy the Protestants, who regard it as a step towards concession to the priests. It does not satisfy those who wish to see the standard of Irish education raised, for the scheme is manifestly calculated to degrade rather than to elevate the standard. Why not leave the matter alone rather than force through Parliament a scheme which is absolutely without friends beyond the Treasury Bench?

All this may be changed during the remainder of the debate, but the symptoms now are decidedly unfavorable. Still, confident as is the language of the opposition, it would not be safe to calculate that the bill will be rejected, though there can be little doubt that it will be mangled. The great difficulty is that there is at present no plain alternative to Mr. Gladstone. If he says of anything that it must go through on pain of his resignation, he can exert a pressure sufficient to overcome most obstacles. For, after all, who is there to take his place? The bill, if thrown out, would be thrown out by a heterogeneous combination of Tories, Radicals, and Irish Roman Catholics. They would form no satisfactory basis for a new Government. Of course, a dissolution would follow, and members are already becoming refractory as they approach more nearly to the term of their official lives. But nobody can say what would be the result of a new election. The questions involved in the bill are not easily intelligible to a popular audience, and it is difficult to say what impression they would make on the hustings. It is doubtful which side would succeed in convincing the ordinary voter that it bore the true Liberal stamp. Probably the Conservatives are not particularly anxious to go to the country on such an issue, and it is rumored that Mr. Disraeli does not wish to see the bill completely rejected. The chances are that it will be mutilated and distorted, but that some kind of second or third edition will ultimately struggle through Parliament. It is not exactly a pleasant prospect. Whatever else it does, it is pretty plain that the bill, in any form, will not really satisfy anybody. Its passage can but be the opening move in a long and complicated struggle. And when we look forwards to the immediate future of politics, we can see little promise of anything but a confused and unsatisfactory war for some time to come. The party at present in power has accumulated, in one way or another, a considerable share of unpopularity, as was perhaps inevitable under the conditions of the case. Mr. Gladstone, indeed, in an after-dinner speech which he took the opportunity of delivering the other night by way of showing the exuberance of his powers, took credit for the fact as showing how many abuses he had put down and how many interests he had consequently arrayed against himself. That is the most flattering view of the position, and we need not ask whether it rests on a historical basis. But, be the explanation what it may, the fact remains. There is a good deal of rather sullen dislike to Government which may more or less take the form of a Conservative reaction. And yet it seems impossible to suppose that Mr. Disraeli and his friends can really represent the strongest feeling in the country. On the other hand, the Dissenters and the Radicals are gradually breaking away from their official leaders, though they do not seem to be capable of setting up any very effective leaders of their own. It looks, therefore, as if we were to have a complex triangular duel, in which no side can maintain a decisive superiority. For people who wish to see a course of serious and well-considered legislation on matters of real importance, the prospect is at present very discouraging; and, for this session at least, our great talking institution promises to throw out more discursive masses of talk than usual, with less practical result.

Correspondence.

BOUTWELL, BUTLER, AND DAWES.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your statement of the various causes which contributed to the election of Mr. Boutwell and the defeat of Mr. Dawes in the Senatorial contest here, you omitted last week what I fancy was the real difficulty in the case. Mr. Dawes owed his defeat solely to himself. He was not equal to the occasion, and threw away his opportunities. The Crédit Mobilier business did not help him; he needed a chance to retrieve himself. Mr. B. F. Butler, his arch-enemy, offered him the chance—and such a chance!—on the "back-pay grab," and he didn't avail himself of it. What can you do for such a man? The back-pay robbery was committed on the night of the 2d, and Mr. Boutwell was elected on the 12th. There was time enough. Had Mr. Dawes, the leader of the House, fought and filibustered that measure as he well enough knows how to do; had he flung himself into the struggle like a man, and then gone to the State House on the issue, his friends would have had something to stand on. As it was—well! he is a good man, if he was only a little better at the pinch. That is his trouble—he just isn't equal to the emergency, and the Legislature felt it.

To-day, again, he and Butler stand face to face in this State. There will be a struggle, and the chances are heavy that Butler will drive him to the wall. There is just that tinge of vacillation about Mr. Dawes which gives to a blusterer like the soldier of Lowell an almost fatal advantage. Take again this back-pay theft. Butler fathered the scheme, boldly, shamelessly, noisily. Dawes voted against it, consistently, honestly, silently. Both, so far as we know, have accepted their shares of the plunder. Now in such a case as this the receiver of stolen money is not as bad as the thief; but yet Dawes will suffer more than Butler in popular estimation. For generations it has been a generally received truth that one man can steal a horse more safely

than another can look at one over a fence, and this back-pay theft and the distribution of the stolen goods will afford a new illustration of the fact. Any man of the stamp of Sumner, or Schurz, or Trumbull, or Dawes who touches the money will never hear the end of it; it will be made to burn in his pocket at every crisis of his political life. Meanwhile men of the Butler stamp will "pocket the swag" with effrontery, and, as in the Crédit Mobilier business, will make effective use of their opponents' questionable money transactions. Mr. Dawes has not a strong hold on Massachusetts. He never will have until he shows that he can cut out his work in deep, clear, strong lines. That he just failed to do so last winter elected the great "hole-in-the-sky" of impeachment memory senator, and will, I fear, greatly forward in the future the political schemes of the Attorney-General of New Orleans.

The game is a small one—hardly amounting to more than a struggle of men for place; but in its way it does not lack elements of quiet interest. The chief pity is that the performers are none of them either professionally very good or personally very interesting.

A Quiet Observer.

Boston, March 22, 1873.

THE UTILITARIAN VIEW OF THE DEATH PENALTY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: It can perhaps hardly be said too often that after conviction and sentence, in criminal cases, the question is not, as is always assumed by the Sentimentalists, the precise degree of the defendant's moral turpitude. Only Omniscience can tell exactly what were his motives and the true value of his moral responsibility—it is, at best, but a clumsy way to judge of motives by words and acts—and it may very well be that according to a standard of perfect justice the man may not deserve death, while it shall still be altogether wise and expedient that he be hanged. Men are not tried, convicted, and executed in order to punish them according to their deserts, but to protect society; and if it be a sound maxim of the law, that it is better that ninety-and-nine guilty men—*who have not been convicted*—should escape, than that one innocent man should suffer, it is equally true that, looking to the interests of the community, it is better that ninety-nine innocent men, unjustly convicted after a fair and impartial trial, should be hanged, than that one really guilty man, after such a trial, should be pardoned.

This view of the subject was well expressed by Chief-Justice Gibson when discussing the subject of circumstantial evidence in his charge to the jury in the case of *Commonwealth* v. *Herman*, which is reported in the 4th volume of Pennsylvania State Reports, pp. 269, 272:

"No human testimony is superior to doubt. The machinery of criminal justice, like every other production of man, is necessarily imperfect, but you are not therefore to stop its wheels. Because men have been scalded to death or torn to pieces by the bursting of boilers, or mangled by wheels on a railroad, you are not to lay aside the steam-engine. Innocent men have doubtless been convicted and executed on circumstantial evidence, but innocent men have sometimes been convicted and executed on what is called positive proof. What then? Such convictions are accidents which must be encountered; and the innocent victims of them have perished for the common good, as much as soldiers who have perished in battle. All evidence is more or less circumstantial, the difference being only in the degree; and it is sufficient for the purpose when it excludes disbelief—that is, actual and not technical disbelief; for he who is to pass on the question is not at liberty to disbelieve as a juror while he believes as a man. It is enough that his conscience is clear. Certain cases of circumstantial proof to be found in the books, in which innocent persons have been convicted, have been pressed on your attention. These, however, are few in number, and the wonder is there have not been more. They are constantly resorted to in capital cases to frighten jurors into a belief that there should be no conviction on merely circumstantial evidence. But the law exacts a conviction whenever there is legal evidence to show the prisoner's guilt beyond a reasonable doubt; and circumstantial evidence is legal evidence."

It is nearly thirty years since these words were spoken, but it may be doubted if the men of to-day are much wiser than men were then.—I am, Sir, etc.,

S. D.

Philadelphia, March 21, 1873.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. announce 'The Treaty of Washington: its Negotiation, Execution, and Discussions relating thereto,' by Caleb Cushing; Miss Beecher's 'Housekeeper and Health-keeper'; 'The Fishing Tourist,' by Charles Hallock; and 'Farm Ballads,' by Will Carleton.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. will publish 'In Search of the Castaways,' which we take to be a translation of Jules Verne's 'Children of Captain Grant.'——The *Athenæum* for March 8 devotes a full page to a plan of the Temple of Diana at Ephesus, as discovered by the sagacious labors of Mr. J. T. Wood. In a letter which accompanies the plan, Mr. Wood narrates the circumstances which led to this successful exploration, and reconstructs the famous building from its foundation. The Temple "is now proved to be octastyle, that is, having eight columns in front. It has eighteen columns on the sides, and the intercolumniation of the latter are chiefly three diameters, making the Temple diastyle. The statement of Pliny as to its having had one hundred columns (externally) is correct."——Matthew Arnold's 'Literature and Dogma' will be reprinted in this country by Macmillan & Co.

—The sale of the Perkins library, which will take place in May and June next, at Hanworth Park, near London, will give the bibliopoles such an opportunity of acquisition as is rarely met with. It is a collection of printed books and MSS. of the highest rarity, and was formed in the beginning of the present century. The wealth of the collection may be judged by its possessing two of the six known copies of the Mazarine Bible, the first book printed from metal types—one on vellum, and the other on paper, both in perfect condition; a copy of the first Bible printed with a date (1462), that which formerly belonged to the Vallière library; a copy of the first edition of the Bible in German (about 1460–62); one on vellum by Jenson (Venice, 1476), an admirable example of typography and in perfect state; and Coverdale's Bible of 1535, one of the finest copies known. In secular bibliography, there is Caxton's edition of the 'Polychronicon' and 'Confessio Amantis,' Pynson's 'Shyp of Folys,' Wynkyn de Worde's 'Vitæ Patrum,' perfect and only partially cut, and Copland's 'King Arthur.' Other books, on vellum, are the 'Vallisumbrosa Missal' (Venice, 1503), the 'Augsburg Missal' of Sebaldus Mayer (1555), and the 'Roman Missal' of Stephen Planck (1496)—all in excellent condition. There are the first, second, third, and fourth folio Shakspeares, all perfect, and in splendid condition. The MSS. are equally noteworthy. Lydgate's 'Siege of Troy' is the most splendid, with its seventy miniatures, one of the author presenting his work to Henry V.; a 'Cent Histoires de Troie de Christine de Pisan,' a superb MS., with a hundred miniatures, written and painted for Philippe le Hardi, Duke of Burgundy; 'Les Œuvres diverses de Jean de Meung,' including the 'Roman de la Rose' fully illuminated; a MS. Bible in two vols. in French of the beginning of the XIVth century, according to the translation of Guyar des Moulins, and as this was finished in 1295 this copy is likely to have been done under the superintendence of the translator—it has one hundred and thirty miniatures in the best manner of that time; and a Latin Bible of the XIIIth century in two volumes, with illuminations of an importance rarely seen. Another royal work is 'Les Epîtres and Evangiles de tout l'An,' executed for the Queen of Philippe de Valois (1336). There are a Lectionarium of the IXth or Xth century, magnificent in gold and ornamentation, and in singularly perfect state, an Evangelium of the XIIth century, and several others not equally remarkable, but still noteworthy, ending, as to date, with a MS. by Nicholas Garry (about 1660), illuminated, and bearing the royal arms. The Mazarine Bible on vellum is valued at £2,000. The complete catalogue will soon be issued by Ellis & White, London. Meantime, we have received from Mr. Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, copies of his list of the principal articles in the collection, made after the late Mr. Henry Perkins's own notes.

—Some one (we guess it to be the lively author of 'Talk and Travel,' reviewed in No. 398 of the *Nation*) has sent us an 'Ethnological Map of the British Isles,' with table of European languages annexed. It is designed to show, by means of two colors, the broad division of the modern Britons into two component factors, the Celto-Latin and the Teuton. "It is useless for you," says our spirited guide, "to trouble your head as to what the Saxons called themselves and their language, or what they were called by others. Leave that matter to the antiquarians. It is enough to know that as sure as two and two make four, as water and spirits mixed make grog, as blue and yellow mixed form green, as sure (I may say) as a Germanic tongue fused with a Romance one make modern English, so surely do Teuton and Celto-Latin constitute the modern Englishman, and, by consequence, the American of the North." Again:

"To call by the same name (English) two things so different as the Anglo-Saxon and the modern English, is (as Marsh rightly says) a gross logical inaccuracy. French differs less from Latin, yet no one would think of calling Latin by the name of Old French, any more than he would call a chrysalis an 'Old Butterfly'; but it is likewise Old Polish, or Old Irish, or Old French. English, moreover, has the advantage of having a double nomenclature, *i.e.*, two names for nearly everything—one Latin, one Teuton, hence its richness."

The map is published by Edward Stanford, 6 Charing Cross, London. More minute (since it subdivides the Teutons) is the map of the settlements of the Celts, Saxons, Danes, and Norwegians in the British Isles and Northern France which accompanies Taylor's 'Words and Places' (third edition, Macmillan & Co.)

—Last summer we had to record the death of Mr. Richard D. Webb, of Dublin, a philanthropic friend of this country, and an associate of Mr. James Haughton, an eminent merchant of the same city, in many of the reformatory movements of the day. Mr. Haughton himself has now passed away, having died on the 20th of February, in his seventy-eighth year. He was the intimate friend and supporter of O'Connell, an earnest advocate of the repeal of the corn-laws, a generous ally of the American Abolitionists; and that he was followed to his grave by the most respectable citizens of Dublin, and by an unusual popular attendance, will not appear surprising after the following summary of his good works, which we take from *Saunders's News-Letter*:

"He took part in the anti-slavery agitation in 1837; he was a free-trader and advocated direct taxation; he was opposed to war and capital punishment; and for a long series of years he was a most strenuous supporter of temperance and total abstinence. He was a fellow-worker in the cause of temperance with the late Father Mathew and Father Spratt, and lectured week after week in the furtherance of these objects to the poorest inhabitants in the city. He was as much respected by the Roman Catholic poor amongst whom he labored as by the Protestant denominations, to one of which he belonged. The Dublin Mechanics' Institute, in Lower Abbey Street, mainly owes its existence to his efforts, and he took a leading part in the movement which opened the Zoölogical Gardens, Phœnix Park, to the poorer classes for one penny on Sundays. By his aid the Botanic Gardens were thrown open to the public on week-days and Sundays free of charge, and he was instrumental in having the Phœnix Park improved and the People's Gardens planted there. He contributed many papers on social questions to the Royal Dublin Society, and to the Statistical and Social Enquiry Society of Ireland, in both of which bodies he manifested a deep interest. His life was an exemplification of the principles he advocated. He was a total abstainer from spirituous liquors for thirty-five years, and a vegetarian for twenty-six years. Up to the time of his death he was President of the Vegetarian Society of the United Kingdom."

—Admirers of Thackeray may be referred to the last *Edinburgh Review* for a welcome notice of a writer who, for a favorite, is personally not well known to his readers—unless, indeed, considering him as revealed in his own pages, we are to call him a writer whose mind and heart are singularly well known. But the reviewer is able to tell some things about the personal history of his subject of which most of us have been ignorant, and about which there has been less information than misinformation. It has, for instance, been a current and commonly accepted story that Thackeray, becoming heir to a fortune, dissipated it by extravagant expenditure, and that his sketches of swindlers, sharpers, gamesters, and other disreputable characters we owe to his personal knowledge of such people, and his experience as their victim and their enforced associate. It would appear, however, that there has been much popular ignorance in regard to this assumed crop of wild-oats, and that it has very little more foundation than the fact that he was undeniably careless and desultory in his life and studies while at the university, which he left without having taken his degree. "His fortune and position in society," says the reviewer, "seemed to permit him to indulge his tastes and live as a gentleman at large. . . . It must be confessed that at Cambridge Thackeray gave no signs of distinguished ability. He was chiefly known for his inexhaustible drollery, his love of repartee, and for his humorous command of the pencil." But the fortune which in a manner justified the carelessness of his conduct he lost, not because he squandered it in riotous living, but, as we are now told, because a few months after attaining his majority he contracted a "sleeping partnership" which placed his property in the hands of a man who turned out to be insolvent. Plenty of imprudence he no doubt showed in this transaction; but so far from wasting his substance amid the vice and folly which his writings depict in so lively a manner, he lost his fortune before he had had time to enjoy it in any way. He was born in Calcutta in 1811, his father being Richmond Thackeray, a gentleman in the civil service of the East India Company. Richmond Thackeray was the son of William Makepeace Thackeray, also at one time a civil servant, and afterwards a Member of Council, who sat at the board with Warren Hastings. Thackeray's great-grandfather is here said to have been at one time Master of Harrow and afterwards an archdeacon. This statement of the novelist's descent, if correct, will necessitate alterations in most of the books of reference. Allibone, for instance, makes the grandfather to have been a Richard Thackeray, Rector of Hadley, Middlesex. As the reviewer is expressly engaged in correcting what he styles the erroneous accounts of Thackeray's birth and ancestry, we may with probability regard his own account as correct. In 1818, his father having died at the early age of thirty, the boy was sent home to be put at school, and the vessel aboard which were he and his servant touched at Saint Helena, where Thackeray saw Napoleon, whom he looked at with much interest, the colored gentleman having informed his charge that the ex-Emperor ate three sheep every day and as many children as he could get. "The joke figured years afterwards in one of Thackeray's sketches," as indeed did a countless number of other incidents that occurred to him, his novels being at once so full of faithful observation and so subjective. In 1828 he went to Cambridge, where he had for contemporaries Tennyson, Monckton Milnes, Carlyle's John Sterling, the Buller who figures in the 'Noctes Ambrosianæ,' if we are not mistaken, and others more or less known to fame, himself perhaps destined to the longest immortality of them all. Weimar—his 'Pumpernickel'—came next, and those visits to Paris, where his mother, a second time married and now Mrs. Carmichael Smyth, was residing, which in a manner made him free of that city, and of which he has made such pleasing records gustatory and other. At about this time he lost his fortune, and found himself without means and without a profession, and, to add to his difficulties, not without a leaning towards a profession which he was to try, and from which he was to recede of necessity. He was called to the bar, indeed, but painting was his chosen pursuit. As it turned out, literature was to be his occupation, and for this he had the admirable training—perhaps not so admirable nowadays—of a seven-years' apprenticeship to the press, and to that part of the press which made the most exacting requirements in the matter of literary skill. But we are giving too much of the article, which should itself be read. We may be permitted to express a hope that a suggestion which it makes may be complied with, and that the great writer's "accomplished daughter, who has shown by her writings that some at least of his gifts have descended to her by inheritance, should undertake a task no one else can fulfil with so natural and delicate a feeling of her father's genius," and should write his biography. That would indeed be a work of a thousand.

—*Good Words* has recently given an interesting and curious account of Paganini, which it would be worth the while of any one interested, as so many people are nowadays, in questions of "temperament" to read. It is common to talk about the artistic or poetic temperament as if there were no differences between one poet, painter, architect, or musician and another—the fact being that the differences of æsthetic temperament *inter sese* are almost as great as the differences between these again and all others. The temperament of a man, for instance, on whom physical causes act oddly and instantly at times, at others not at all; who travels with the greatest speed from place to place, taking care in the hottest weather to have the carriage windows closed; who delights to talk loudly while rattling over the roads; who resents being spoken to while waiting at inns to change horses; who, on arrival at his hotel, throws all the doors and windows open to take an "air-bath"; who is very fond of money, but carries papers of immense value in a pocket-book, mixed with concert-tickets and letters; who seldom notices scenery or cares for the sights of foreign towns; who cares little where he sleeps or what he eats or drinks, but when he goes out to dine generally eats so much as to bring on illness; who is in the habit of remaining taciturn for days, at other times, however, of joining in conversation "freely"; who after dinner habitually sits in his room in total darkness till half-past ten, when he goes to bed; who is continually mixing with men, but has no friends; who is faithful to both his parents, is at times very generous, and who if any one mentions music in conversation relapses into sullen silence or goes off into some other part of the room—what sort of a temperament is this, poetic, artistic, architectural, dramatic, or lunatic? It is none of these, it is the musical temperament, the traits having all been manifested by Paganini himself.

—The rivalry of Poles and Germans gave to the celebration of the 400th anniversary of the birthday of Copernicus a mundane interest quite remote from the heavenly contemplations of the great astronomer. All over Germany the newspapers, the gymnasia, the universities entered warmly into the dispute whether Copernicus came of a Polish or a German stock. Upon the one side are the facts that his father, Niklas Koppernigk, grew up as a merchant in Cracow; that before the birth of Nicolas, Thorn had placed itself under Polish protection as a resource against the misrule of the Teutonic Knights; and that on entering the university of Cracow the young Copernicus registered himself as a Pole. On the other side are alleged the facts that the parental Niklas migrated from Cracow to Thorn at a time (1462) when the Germans were yet jealous of the Poles; that in 1465 he was elected to the magistracy of Thorn; that he married Barbara Watzelrode, who belonged to one of the most noted German families of the province of West Prussia; and that these things could not have taken place had said Niklas Koppernigk been a Pole by birth or a Polish subject. It is argued that as the later adhesion of Thorn to Poland did not transform the father into a Pole, and could not affect the race-stock of the son, Copernicus should not be conceded to Poland, though at the time of his birth his native city was under Polish rule. It was natural that he should go to Cracow as the nearest university-town, and one in which his father had relatives and friends; and he entered himself as a Pole, as belonging to a Polish province, though by nature of a German stock. A vast amount of erudition has been expended upon this knotty question, with the average result of German speculations, theories, and parties.

—The ecclesiastical position of Copernicus admits of easier solution; he lived in the communion of the Church of Rome, died in her service as Canon of the Cathedral of Frauenburg, published his work at the instance of a cardinal, and dedicated it to Pope Paul III. But does this warrant the Romish hierarchy of to-day in claiming him as a son of a Church which is now represented by a Pope who denounces all science and culture as hostile to the faith? Copernicus was too much absorbed in his astronomical studies to mingle in the controversies which Luther had raised; but in his own sphere he was none the less a reformer against tradition and authority, and his very letter of dedication to Paul III. shows that he anticipated for his doctrine the fate which afterwards overtook it in the person of Galileo: "Si fortasse erunt *ματαιολόγοι* [brainless babblers], qui, cum omnium mathematum ignari sint, tamen de illis iudicium sibi sumunt, et propter aliquem locum scripturæ, male ad suum propositum detortum, ausi fuerint meum hoc institutum reprehendere ac insectari; illos nihil moror, adeo ut etiam illorum iudicium tamquam temerarium contemnam." Not even Professor Tyndall has gone beyond this in his contempt for such of the clergy as would pervert the letter of the Scriptures against the facts of nature. Copernicus asserted the independence of scientific investigation and the freedom of scientific thought, though its results "be difficult and inconceivable, and against the opinion of the majority."

—It is absurd for the Church of Roman Infallibility to claim a birthright in such a man. But the exigencies of the Roman Catholic controversy in Prussia led Roman bishops and Polish agitators to make the birthday of Copernicus the occasion of a demonstration against the Government in behalf of Polish nationality and the Romish Church. At Thorn, the birthplace of Copernicus, the Clerical party attempted such a demonstration, and succeeded in gathering deputies from Polish and Catholic universities to a distinctively Polish festival, and also in enlisting the enthusiasm of the common people for this titular saint. But this narrow perversion of a world-wide name was overruled by the good sense of the town and of its magistracy. The "Copernican Society of Science and Art" provided a celebration upon a scale which represented the catholicity and the universality of true science. The great universities of Germany sent deputations or official greetings; the universities of Rome and Padua appeared by Professor Occioni; that of Bologna by Professor Pellicioni; and the American Geographical Society was represented by one of its officers, now residing at Berlin. An admirable historical discourse by Professor L. Prowe, of Thorn, was followed by speeches in German, in Latin, and in English, from the several guests; there were banquetings, theatrical performances, floral decorations, illuminations, fireworks, balls, processions, and whatever could conspire to give *éclat* to a festival in which literary, artistic, social, official, and international elements and sentiments were combined to do honor to one illustrious name.

—A monument to Copernicus of permanent value to the scientific world has been secured through the enterprise of the Copernican Society of Thorn, and the munificence of the Prussian Government—viz., a superb edition of the astronomer's great work, 'Nicolai Copernici Thorunensis de Revolutionibus Orbium Cælestium, Libri VI., ex Auctoris autographo recudi curavit Societas Copernicana Thorunensis. Accedit Georgii Joachimi Rhetici de libris revolutionum narratio prima. Thoruni, sumptibus Societatis Copernicanæ, MDCCCLXXIII.' This edition is in royal quarto, of 494 pages, with 30 pages of preface, prolegomena, and index. It is printed in large type, upon thick smooth paper, with ample margins, with linear notations and foot-notes. The original autograph in the Nostizian Library at Prague has been followed throughout as the basis of the text; but all the variations of other texts are carefully given in the notes, with appropriate references. The painstaking accuracy of the editing, the learned criticism of the prolegomena, the completeness of the indexes, and the clearness and beauty of the typography, will make this the standard edition for the new century of Copernicus upon which we have now entered. The volume is appropriately dedicated to the Emperor of Germany, the Prussian Government having encouraged its publication both by official approval and by substantial aid.

—The *American Civil Law Journal* is the title of a new "monthly magazine devoted to the discussion of the principles of the civil law and to legal reform," edited by R. H. Chittenden, and published by J. R. McDivitt & Co., of this city. The editor announces it as his "conviction that an acquaintance with the principles of the Roman Law is the only sure basis of a legal education," and begins the number before us by an article on "the origin and development of the civil law." The rock on which, to judge by this article, the *Journal* seems in danger of splitting is superstitious belief in the finality of the Roman system which the renaissance of the study seems to have bred in some minds. What is needed in legal education now is application to the study, not of the Roman law or of the common law or the laws of Menu, but of law itself, and an appreciation of the fact that the Roman system was the organic growth of a particular period in the world's history, to be investigated in much the same way from the lawyer's point of view as a particular stratum of the earth's surface is from the geologist's. It cannot be too often insisted upon that the philosophy on which the Roman system was built up was wholly metaphysical, and that its practical merits ought to be separated entirely from its speculative foundation.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'BARRIERS BURNED AWAY' treats of religion, love, temperance, and true republicanism, as compared with atheism, coldness, self-indulgence, and haughty, aristocratic prejudice. The hero is a poor lad, whose father treats us to a deathbed scene in the first chapter. The boy, Dennis by name, goes to Chicago to earn a living; after a few rebuffs he gets a place in a "Temple of Art," which is owned by Mr. Ludolph, a free-thinking German aristocrat, with a beautiful daughter, Christine. Dennis's position is a humble one, but he discharges his duties without grumbling, and he even strains a point to blacken the shoes of those in authority over him. It is while he is engaged in this menial occupation that he is first seen by Christine, descended from a long line of German nobles, beautiful, rich, courted by all, and notably by Deacon Gudgeon's son, who made her acquaintance by meeting her on her way to school. That little love affair, however, had been promptly crushed by Mr. Ludolph, who was so well-born that he scorned the son of a fishmonger, and who was so steeped in infidelity that he had no love for deacons and their families. Christine comes to the "Temple of Art" in order to arrange more tastefully than could the uncultured clerks the statues and pictures. Dennis makes himself useful in this task and falls over head and ears in love with the cold beauty, who thinks too little of the tumult she is awakening in his heart. She invites him to take charge of "a rare and elegant entertainment consisting of music, tableaux, and statuary." He shares in the musical part and sings with a fine tenor voice, so that all admire him, and he falls still more deeply in love with Christine. That heartless miss, being piqued by a just criticism of his upon one of her pictures—namely, that it was painted by one who never felt or who was unable to feel the emotions there presented—leads on the harsh critic to make a declaration of love while she sits before her easel, brush in hand, and copies the varying expression of his agitated face. For this light conduct, however, she is deservedly punished: she learns what heart agony is while he has a brain fever. But, fortunately, Chicago burns up, and with it Mr. Ludolph and the other barriers between the young people. Christine gives up her infidelity and her desire to return to effete Europe, and the two are at last happy. In spite of all that is unnatural and artificial in this story, it is easy to see how it may be popular among those who dread the ordinary work of fiction. The author has profited little, however, by the labors of his predecessors, and we have found him exceptionally tedious and uninteresting.

We have said so much about 'The Strange Adventures of a Phaeton' while it was appearing in *Lippincott's Magazine*, that it is perhaps hardly necessary to go now into any prolonged discussion of its attractiveness. There is no complicated plot about it, but it affords a very pretty picture of love-making, with long descriptions of scenery (which, for a wonder, are not duller than agricultural statistics), with considerable humor thrown in, at times even laid on with a heavy hand and a trowel. We confess to having followed with the greatest interest the adventures of Bell, who may be vaguely drawn, but who leaves a most charming recollection on the susceptible heart, and that most attractive of German officers, Count von Rosen. Some may sympathize with the baffled Arthur, a down-trodden Briton, but political reasons forbid our giving him too much pity. We need only recall the conduct of

* 'Barriers Burned Away. By the Rev. Edward P. Roe.' New York: Dodd & Mead. 1872.
'The Strange Adventures of a Phaeton. By William Black.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.
'Never Again. By W. S. Mayo, M.D., author of "Kaloolah," "The Berber," etc.' New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons.
'Little Hodge. By Edward Jenkins.' New York: Dodd & Mead.
'Pemberton; or, One Hundred Years Ago. By Henry Peterson. Author of "The Modern Job," etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.
'Times and Places; or, Our History. By A Stone.' London: Trübner & Co. 1872.
'Queens. By E. B. Emery.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
'The Yellow Flag. By Edmund Yates.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.
'Lady Sweetapple: or, Three to One' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.
'Philip Earnescliffe; or, The Morals of May-Fair. By the author of "The Ordeal for Wives."' New York: Sheldon & Co. 1873.
'At His Gates. By Mrs. Oliphant.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.
'On the Eve. A Tale by I. S. Turgénieff. Translated from the Russian by C. E. Turner. American edition, with amendments.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.
'A Twofold Life. By Wilhelmine von Hillern. Translated from the German by M. S.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.
'Beechwood. By Rebecca Ruter Springer.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

England during our late war, and be thankful that one Britisher has got his deserts.

'Never Again' is a closely printed volume of over 700 pages, and ought to be either very interesting or very instructive to justify so long a detention of the patient reader. It is a curious work, and, in a way, reminds one of the imported pomegranate: either you like it immensely, or you don't like it at all, according to the natural taste with which you were born. It may be set down to the credit of this production that no one could possibly go through it with simple indifference. It is, primarily, a New York society novel, and, secondarily, a prodigious romance. Neither the adventures of Thaddeus of Warsaw nor Thaddeus himself were more thrilling and unlike commonplace reality than Luther Lansdale and his proceedings. Never was hero better fitted out; "never again," perhaps, will there be another so well equipped. (One cannot help stopping now and then to make a guess as to the application of the mysterious title.) Luther has the beauty of an Antinous, a classical education, and the tastes and instincts of a gentleman and a poet, though born only a poor farmer's boy. He is also provided with as well assorted a lot of misfortunes as a trained romance-reader could desire; neither is one of them hidden under a bushel, or wasted merely in disciplining the mind in an abstract and private way. Each mishap or season of suffering is observed and noted by some member of a right-minded public, and the recompense in every case is so prompt and so handsome that one cannot but think a little regretfully of the defects of the system of rewards actually in operation among us. Could any young fellow who feels himself "misunderstood" at home, who longs to leave the paternal farm and go into a store, or in some way make a fortune in New York, dream more sweetly than this?—to be taken off down the Hudson by a devoted old captain; to be the hero of a neat collision and shipwreck, which throws him glowing and dripping at the feet of the rich, beautiful, and susceptible heroine; after having hunted work in vain among a host of hard-hearted employers, at last to fall in an interesting swoon in the front entry, and in the presence, of the identical damsel who had melted over his pathetic condition once before and had cherished his image ever since; to be provided at once with a good place in the counting-house of her wealthy father; and finally (we omit all the minor pieces of good luck of this fortune's favorite) to pick up an old woman fallen on a slippery pavement, who turns out to be immensely wealthy, and makes her rescuer her heir, besides proving to be the only person extant who could disentangle the mystery of the plot and make everything come out right at last. It is true that the plot of a story may be feeble, and yet the characters of it and the general treatment so good that one really cares but little for the thread on which the gems are strung. But a New York *Ledger* sensation plot is a drawback not to be overlooked, especially when its workings fill so large a proportion of the pages to be read through. That duly reprobated, however, we are left with nothing but what deserves at least respectful consideration. even from those who are not fond of pomegranate, and which has elicited from certain English quarters almost unqualified admiration. All the characters are drawn with great amplitude of detail and evident care and conscientiousness. The pictures of American life, whether in the drawing-rooms of the rich, in boarding-houses, in newspaper offices, or wheresoever, are just as elaborate and minute. One is conscious of an obligation to be grateful for so much painstaking, and a further obligation to admire the enormous ingenuity of the philosophizings, and the amazing fecundity of "notions," and the general pervading sense of brilliancy like that in the last scene of a spectacular performance. But there is a curious unreality about everything and everybody, like that which one feels after reading Gulliver's experience among the inventors. Then the *dramatis personæ*, copious as are their manifestations, and emphasized as are their peculiarities, are, after all, only one and the same man in a different dress. Captain Combings is Dr. Mayo as a sea-captain, talking with Dr. Mayo's knowledge of Montaigne, Plutarch's Lives, and Shakspeare. Mr. Boggs is Dr. Mayo as the society man. Uncle Shippen is Dr. Mayo as an eccentric and learned and clever old gentleman. Mr. Planly gives Dr. Mayo's odd ideas in the inventive line. Mr. Whoppers shows what this same versatile man could do as a punster. Even Joe, the black factotum, is Dr. Mayo as a "cullud brudder"—excellently well done, but never seen in real life, except perhaps among the minstrels.

There is enough invention and imagination and satirical commentary in the book to furnish better novelists, if less copious thinkers, with plenty of material for future works. The whole thing reminds us of some patent-office museum where models of unsuccessful inventions are preserved—a mine of suggestiveness to those who are ripe for a hint, and a striking example of the richness of the human intellect, but a reminder as well of how often certain great gifts are not sufficient to "make the thing work." In 'Never Again,' so much ideality calls for more ballast; such fertility and fluency for an equally great self-restraint. After this stage comes the mere *cacoethes scribendi*. It is hard to have to struggle between a sense of gratitude to a clever writer who has done his "level best," and a wish that paper was as expensive as in the time of Tacitus.

'Little Hodge,' like its predecessor, 'Ginx's Baby,' is a book with a purpose, but, unlike that sad book, it not merely states the problem, but attempts a solution. Like a wise man, however, the author is careful to disclaim any attempt at solving the whole problem, pointing, in the person of Jehoiachin Settle, the Yankee *deus ex machinâ*, to the experience of "old Dr. Jayne of Philadelphia," who, after inventing a "universal specific," was soon "obliged to come out with a *particklar cure for worms*." What we like about the solution here proposed is its naturalness and limitation. It is simply how the people of Coddleton Union solved their own problem—as friends and neighbors, landlords and laborers; and, if Mr. Jenkins will let us borrow his phrase, it is after all only carrying out the "state-in-which-it-has-pleased-Providence-to-place-you theory." What will be found most interesting to the American reader will perhaps be the vivid picture it presents, and from a wholly new point of view, of a condition of society altogether unknown to us in the North—although not without its distinct analogies with the present order of things in the South. We have plenty of descriptions of life among the rural aristocracy of England, and plenty of pictures of life among the English peasantry; but nowhere else, to our knowledge, is it brought out so clearly that the mutual relations of these classes are conditioned by the whole course of their history—the free village community transformed into the serfs of a manor, with a genuine patriarchal element, and then the whole distorted by the individuality and feverish competition of the nineteenth century. The unions and strikes among the agricultural laborers last year were the signal for the final dissolution of an order of things which had been living for centuries, but has been dead for years. Mr. Jenkins's pathos and picturesqueness are well known; the present work is certainly not inferior to his earlier one in these respects. It was not a bad idea to bring a Yankee upon the stage, but we are surprised to meet the traditional stage Yankee transformed into a practical philanthropist. "Telegram" as a verb is certainly not an Americanism. We will point to the events described on p. 124 as a very good illustration of what is meant by "class government"—a thing that we in this country find it so hard to understand.

Mr. Peterson's novel is one of a kind more in vogue twenty or twenty-five years back than it has been of late. It deals with scenes and characters belonging to the days of our Revolutionary War, and does so in a way which, if it were not conventional in the beginning, in the hands of those who first adopted it, has at all events become so by frequent reiteration. We do not know why the younger generation of novel readers, fed for the most part on English reprints and translations from the French and German, and possibly not over-fastidious in their requirements, might not find this story readable. John André is the hero of the tale, and he and an American friend, who gives the title to the novel, are depicted not only as skilful intriguers and gallant soldiers, but also as most ardent lovers. In this latter particular, at least, the story is far enough from pleasing us, and, if we had any young readers to whom it was desirable to impart a knowledge of the early days of the Republic, we should much prefer to see them supplementing the information of their school-books with Cooper's 'Spy' than with Mr. Peterson's historic novels.

'Times and Places' is a book of a kind which only people with more ambition than talent, and more spare time on their hands than either, are, for some inscrutable purpose, permitted to write. It consists of rather more than four hundred closely printed pages, which are filled with didactic and dreary tales, supposed to be written by stones. The first one, which, under the title of 'Three Venezuelan Heroes,' is devoted to biographical sketches of Bolivar, Paez, and Miranda, is told by a stone in the cathedral of Caracas. One of the foundation-stones of an hospital, another from a reservoir, an Australian pebble, and so on, contribute their quota to the work.

What between Queen Kate, Queen Elizabeth, Queen Margaret, Queen Helen McGregor, and the like, republican royalty, as exemplified in the various heroines of 'Queens,' has somewhat palled upon our taste. Possibly, it is from having met rather too frequently, in fiction, that peculiar variety of the American female who turns gracefully from dishwashing or other humble employment to shed a casual ray of information into the darkened mind of her lover, painfully stumbling over a Latin verb, or a problem in the higher mathematics, that we are growing a little critical in her regard. She is indubitably a noble specimen of what womanhood may attain to when once she has the coveted ballot, and has learned never to marry until it is absolutely certain that she has found the right man; but while she is painfully feeling the way to that far-off perfection, she is not, on the whole, an entirely cheerful object of contemplation. Her agonizing pangs of soul,

especially at the period when her early lover, now her husband, turns out a selfish tyrant, not half so capable of appreciating her as is his nearest male friend, are, above all, painful to witness. Nor are her views on dress, on amusements, on cookery—profound and far-reaching as all of them are—of a kind to make one believe that she has really come, as yet, into a tangible kingdom, ready though her adherents be to dub her a queen.

'The Yellow Flag,' by Mr. Edmund Yates, is a novel which we cannot praise. The author has taken great pains, apparently, to substitute for those qualities of a novel which make it improving, or at any rate harmless as well as entertaining, only such scenes as excite a morbid and unhealthy interest in what society is generally pleased to ignore if it cannot remove. The freedom from this fault has always been one of the principal merits of the English novel, although it is one that has never been maintained with scrupulous exactness. Mr. Yates would do better by adapting himself to the prevailing prejudice than by showing his readers what dirty corners there are in the world.

'Lady Sweetapple; or, Three to One' is the name of a poor imitation of a novel, by Dr. Dasent. In long and wearisome padded pages is described the rivalry of two women to win the stubborn heart of a lovely and fascinating youth. Both are disappointed; the prize is carried off by the poor governess.

Another of Mrs. Edwards's novels has been exhumed by her enterprising publisher, and we presume that many who have been entertained by her later stories will be inveigled into buying this her first one, 'Philip Earnescliffe; or, The Morals of May-Fair.' We can assure them, however, that they will be disappointed. Occasionally, it is true, we find a phrase that gives promise of the cleverness she has since shown, but such exceptions are rare; and we are put off with a very sensational story of a disagreeable kind—of the love, namely, between one married man and another's wife, all of which is told with a certain amount of force, but with a greater amount of crudeness.

That a writer who keeps her pen so busy as Mrs. Oliphant should write novels of varying merit is perhaps to be expected, but even one whose philosophy has approved of this maxim is tolerably sure to find unexpected corroboration of it in 'At His Gates,' which is, or was lately, her last novel. The same mind which produced the ingenious, pleasing, and wisely-humorous 'Miss Marjoribanks' has here descended to dreary dulness.

'On the Eve' is the last of Turgenef's novels which has been added to the "Leisure Hour Series." Under this name, those who are familiar with the story in the French and German translations, in which its title 'Hélène,' or 'Helena,' has reference to the heroine, will not at first recognize their old friend, now offered to the English-reading public. Of all Turgenef's works, this is most thoroughly a love-story, told with all the grace and beauty for which the author is famous. In the beginning we are introduced to two young men, Bersieneff and Shoubine, and the heroine, Ellen. Bersieneff is a shy, enthusiastic, timid, studious, unselfish young man; Shoubine a merry, pleasure-loving, sensitive young fellow, with artistic tastes. Ellen is a girl of a very quiet, reserved, but exceedingly ardent nature; and with her both of these young men are beginning to fall in love, each after his own fashion. Soon Bersieneff bethinks himself of a friend of his, Insaroff by name, a young Bulgarian, whom he invites to share his lodgings in the country with him. He introduces him to Ellen, having first spoken of his earnest devotion to his country and his hatred of the oppression of the Turks. Gradually Bersieneff sees Ellen's interest withdrawn from himself and turned towards his ruggeder friend. He is resigned to his bitter fate, and utters no murmur of complaint. At last, Insaroff, feeling himself entangled, and having made a vow to sacrifice love itself to his patriotism, determines to leave the country, without even bidding good-bye to Ellen. She suspects this, and, in the revulsion from a feeling of despair, with sudden energy rushes from the house to prevent him. She meets him, he acknowledges his intention, relents, and vows to take her for his wife. Soon (for this all takes place just before the breaking out of the Crimean war) political troubles require him to depart for Bulgaria; they are secretly married, much to the horror of Ellen's parents, who had been planning a most respectable match for her. They, however, adapt themselves, though reluctantly, to circumstances, and Insaroff, already in broken health, leaves Russia with his wife. They reach Venice, where they make a short stay, the description of which forms one of the most beautiful episodes of the book. We see them in that fascinating city, young, loving, and enjoying everything like young lovers, while behind all—beneath the merriment, the life, the beauty of the warm South—stalks the grim terror which Insaroff's delicate health arouses in both their hearts. It is their constant companion, which they can never forget. Just as they are about to leave the city, Insaroff dies suddenly. Ellen crosses to Bulgaria, writes a letter to her parents, saying they will never hear of her again, and disappears entirely. Such, in barren outline, is the story. No language of ours could adequately describe the masterly portrayal of the unselfish, self-sacrificing devotion of the half broken-hearted Bersieneff, the sad levity of Shoubine, the overpowering passion of Ellen, the reluctant but triumphant love of Insaroff. 'On the Eve' is a prose tragedy, whose great merit is that it is poetical. It shows us all the force of passion—how it may override every feeling and every law, and (for we live in this world after all) how it brings its own punishment; how nothing can be a law unto itself. It is perhaps this suggestiveness of the mutual dependence of all things which, while it leaves the story pathetic, saves it from being comfortless. Then, too, all the characters are true to themselves; they suffer, but—in the case of Ellen notably—they are ennobled by their sufferings; they prefer their distress, as would any unselfish person, to sordid, ignoble ease.

'A Twofold Life' is a novel translated from the German of Wilhelmine von Hillern, which treats a great deal more of various forms of profligacy than one cares to see in a book intended for the family circle. He who leads the twofold life is Heinrich von Ottmar, who, when on his good behavior, calls himself Heinrich, but when, as is very often the case, he abandons himself to evil ways, translates his name into the more appropriate French, and as *Henri* imperils the virtue of every woman near him. In general, the German novelist is notorious for stuffing a suit of clothes with some moral quality, and calling the product a human being, but here we have the clothes—the richest purple court-dress—stuffed with all sorts of immoralities, and the result is a bad and tedious representation of a bad life.

'Beechwood' is a story written in the form of a diary by a young girl. There is nothing, or rather there used to be nothing, when girls kept diaries, so sure to arouse the generally inert curiosity of young men about young women, as those frankly written journals containing an account of the doings of the day and the "heart thoughts" of the lovely creatures themselves. If this one is to be taken as a sample, it is easy to see why they were always kept so jealously guarded from the prying eye of youth; they would chill the most ardent lover. In 'Beechwood' "Nannie" falls in love with "Hal," they become engaged, but he, false man, flirts with "Sallie," so that Nannie breaks the engagement, but still forgiving the traitorous Hal. She went abroad, as is usual in such cases, to "bonnie Scotland, and spent days and weeks amid the enchanting scenery of the Highlands; came down to Edinburgh, replete with interest of the olden times; visited its castle and cathedral, and other places of historical interest; stood in silent awe in the audience and bed chambers of the beautiful but ill-fated Mary, Queen of Scots, and fancied we saw the fierce conspirators enter through the secret door behind the tapestry and drag from her royal presence the terrified Rizzio, who vainly clung to her for the protection that, queen though she was, she was powerless to yield. . . . From Edinburgh we went to Glasgow; from thence to Ayr, where lived and sung the immortal Burns; then through intermediate towns and cities to Stratford-upon-Avon, where sleeps the man whose wonderful dramatic genius towers aloft in the great world of literature." And so on through the greater part of Europe and the East. The man she marries is "Uncle Ralph," her grandfather's adopted son, whom she has always been fond of; and feminine justice is done her by her hearing from Nettie that "Sallie looks faded and broken, and is very languid and insipid, except when in a gay crowd, surrounded by gentlemen, when she is charming." She is also pained by seeing how worn and old Hal looked. "Ralph looked, as they stood together then, at least ten years the younger." Terrible indeed is the fate of those who bruise a loving heart.

A BATCH OF SCHOOL-BOOKS.*

A NEW Latin Reader, by Mr. R. F. Leighton, has some features to be approved, some that may be thought questionable. We entirely agree with the proposition in the preface that the first associations with any language ought to be such as to make it as far as possible like a living tongue. But we have withal a feeling that a book of selections might be made of a new book is needed—with no very violent patching, from ancient authors alone, without resorting to modern Latin. There is something, too, in the old-fashioned notion about the depth of early impressions. Eighteen hundred years ago, an experienced teacher thought that even the copies set in

* 'Latin Lessons, adapted to Allen & Greenough's Latin Grammar. Prepared by R. F. Leighton, Master of the Melrose High School.' Boston: Ginn Brothers. 1872.

'First Lessons in Our Country's History: bringing out its salient points, and aiming to combine simplicity with sense. By William Swinton, M.A.' With numerous illustrations. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

'The Constitutional History of England. By Henry Hallam. Abridged by Dr. Wm. Smith.' Student's edition. New York: Harper & Bros.

'Our World. No. II. A Second Series of Lessons in Geography. By Mary L. Hall.' Boston: Ginn Bros.

'Human Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. A Text-Book for Schools, Academies, Colleges, and Families. By Joseph C. Martindale, M.D., etc.' Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

'First Book on Analytical Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene, Human and Comparative, for Common and Grammar Schools, and for Families. By Calvin Cutter, A.M., M.D.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

boys' copy-books should have *non otiosas sententias sed honestum aliquid monentis.* "These associations," he goes on to say, "accompany the learner to old age, and, imprinted on the tender mind, will tell even on character." As far as possible, we would have elementary books packed full of gems and nuggets from the rich treasurehouse of Greek and Roman wisdom. Now, a great many of the sentences in this book strike one as rather of the *otiosae sententiae* order, just a little bit like our aimless old friend Ollendorff. To take rather an extreme instance (p. 6): "*Suntne puellae in silva? In ripa sunt puellae, cum rosis rubris et albis.*" The aim is here to make Latin seem simple and natural and attractive, which is all very well. But the sentiment, the tone, is romantic, chivalresque, Germanesque, rather than classical; in fact, faintly savoring of the Byronic:

> "And peasant girls, with deep blue eyes,
> And hands that offer early flowers,
> Walk smiling o'er this paradise."

It is not such an idea as the boy will be likely to come across in reading real Latin, or will care to treasure up for profitable meditation against the day when the grasshopper shall be a burden.

Of course, not all the sentences in this book, nor indeed many of them, are like this. Still, for many reasons, the objection holds that it is not safe for boys to begin with modern Latin. As a means of instruction, writing Latin is invaluble. But studying modern Latin is a different thing. Of Latinists of a former age, very few excel David Ruhnken. But how often he and other eminent men of his day have gone astray, let the 800 pages of Krebs's 'Antibarbarus' testify. At this day two men, known wherever the Latin language is held in honor, are perhaps more thoroughly saturated with the spirit of Latinity than anybody else—John Nicholas Madvig and Frederic Ritschl. But Latin, despite its regularity and its formulas, is so subtle, so intricate, so skittish, so much like a trout, or a horse, or a woman, that it might well be held unsafe to use even the Latin of Ritschl or Madvig for elementary purposes.

There is another tendency in this book, of which it may be heretical to speak disrespectfully, but which we cannot help regarding as a mischievous one. In Germany, the complaint is rife that the teachers in the gymnasia are too ambitious to imitate university-teaching, too much inclined to lecture and teach glittering generalities, and to neglect the humbler rudiments. In America, the evil shows itself in what may be called outside etymologizing. In this Latin Reader, when the boy gets as far as Interrogative Pronouns (p. 30) he is initiated into the following mysteries:

"SYNONYMES.—*Mare* is *the sea* (from root *mar, to wear away*), as a desolate waste, in opposition to the land; *pelagus* (*pelazo, to glisten*), *aequor* (*aequus, level*), *the expanse of the sea when calm; pontus* (root, *po, to go*), *the deep sea* as the highway of nations."

What are we coming to? Is this making a living tongue of it? Had Lucretius any idea of "*mar, to wear away,*" when he wrote "*Suave mari magno,*" or Virgil of that very doubtful "*pelazo, to glisten,*" when he wrote "*Sic cunctus pelagi cecidit fragor*"? This is not looking at it with Roman eyes; this is the thing as seen through the silver-bowed spectacles of some myopic German. Seriously, a line ought to be drawn somewhere. After the boy has learnt inflexions thoroughly, it will be a great help to him to be taught the meaning of derivatives and suffixes; he should learn *ago*, for example, and with it *agilis, actus, actio, actuosus, actor, agito, actito*, etc., etc., and group details under general laws. When he has studied Greek a while, it will not be inopportune for him to see that *pater* is the same word with πατήρ and *mater* with μήτηρ; that *-men* in *agmen* corresponds to *-μα* in ποίημα and *-tus* in *factus* to *-τός* in ποιητός, and such other simple things as he can learn without getting confused. But here, in elementary education, it is well for him to stop. When he is man-grown, if he chooses to compare languages and to study ethnology and history and all that sort of thing, he may find his account in etymologizing. But this is a wholly different line of study, and with a totally different aim and scope; and, in the study of special languages, etymology is of very little account indeed. Suppose a French boy were studying English, it would help him precious little to know that *canvas* and *hemp* are both derived from *cannabis*, or that *wig* comes from *pilus*. He must learn the meaning of the words *canvas, hemp,* and *wig* by themselves, and inside the English language. And so with the Latin. Outside etymologies cannot teach much. Take, for instance, the synonymes for "sea" mentioned above. *Mare* is, of course, the common word, both in prose and poetry. But there is one very simple fact which writers on synonymes and etymology are apt to overlook: like many other words *mărĕ* is often metrically inconvenient, especially in the plural *mărĭă*; where a heavier word is required, a trochee or (before a consonant) a spondee, *pontus* is a great convenience; or again, *pĕlăgi, pĕlăgō, pĕlăgē*, etc., may serve in many cases to fill out the measure. Besides while Greek words are used sparingly by the best authors, πέλαγος and πόντος, words as old as Homer, bring with them a host of reminiscences, and in themselves give a poetical tinge to the sentence, which *mare* does not. But if the learner starts with the idea that *pelagus* is "the expanse of the sea when calm," because there is (or is not?) a "*pelazo, to glisten,*" he will hardly see why the early mariner

> qui fragilem *truci*
> Commisit *pelago* ratem

should have needed any oak and threefold bronze around his heart; and if he views the *Oceanus dissociabilis* as the highway of nations because there is a root "po," then the long and savage sea rolling between Rome and Ilion—

> Dum longus inter saeviat Ilion
> Romamque pontus:

will not be to his mind an obstacle like Achilles's οὔρειά τε σκιόεντα θάλασσά τε ἠχήεσσα, but the first opening to Suez Canals, California railways, and Pullman cars.

After saying so many ungracious things, rather of the mode of study which this book represents than of the book itself, it would be very unjust not to add that the specimens given can hardly be called fair specimens of the book, and that a beginner can learn a great deal from it after all. The questions for review will also be of use to teachers who may not use the Lessons as a reading-book. The dates and particularly the marks of quantity require a great many corrections.

Mr. Swinton's plan of a primary history is a good one, and it is fairly well carried out. Sense is more easily achieved than simplicity, and the author's rhetoric at times must, we imagine, prove obscuring either to the thought expressed or to the memory of the learner. "It is related [of Columbus] that when a lad he took to the water as though it were his native element," says a passage on page 3, with a marginal direction to the pupil: "Tell about him when a lad." The teacher need hardly be astonished on receiving in reply the statement that the young Columbus was very fond of swimming. Again, the pupil will readily answer "Yes" to the question pointing the moral of Columbus balancing the egg (p. 13), "which was a courteous but severe rebuke to the pretender, was it not?" But how intelligent will be his assent? Before we take leave of Columbus, we may remark that space might have been spared for the interesting fact that Columbus's remains, after having been interred in Hayti, the scene of his earliest settlement in the New World, now rest in the cathedral at Havana. And in place of the worthless portrait of him, a correct view of this cathedral would have better answered the purposes of illustration. Mr. Swinton teaches bad history when he writes (p. 29): "The Indian had not the rudiments of civilization in his character. He had no sense of the obligation of *law;* he had no capacity for settled industry. To try to civilize him was but to destroy his native virtues and to give him no others in their stead." This agrees neither with what is now taking place in the Indian Territory, nor with the actual condition of the tribes inhabiting Northern Ohio and Northern Georgia in the early part of the present century. On page 38, Capt. John Smith and Pocahontas perform their little melodrama as naturally as if critics had never been heard of. On page 112 we read: "Jefferson was the great *political philosopher* of the Revolution"; and when the child is asked what this means, he is expected to answer "that he was the ablest writer about the principles of our government." Wilkes Booth (p. 186) is said to have been probably insane. Except these erroneous or questionable teachings, we find little to object to in Mr. Swinton and a good deal to praise. He knows the value of maps, and does not spare them.

Hallam's 'Constitutional History of England' is far better suited to the 'Student's Series' than the 'Middle Ages' of the same author. The knowledge of mediæval institutions has made such vast progress since the publication of the latter work that it required far more vigorous excision than Mr. Smith gave it, and far more extensive additions than the few extracts from Freeman, Stubbs, Maine, and Mr. Hallam's own notes, to adapt it in any degree to the needs of the present day. With the later 'Constitutional History of England' it is different. Here the facts were all well ascertained, and the student could not have a better guide over this important ground than a writer of Mr. Hallam's learning, conscientiousness, sagacity, and wide liberalism. It must be added that in the few cases where important acquisitions of knowledge have been made since Mr. Hallam wrote, this volume is open to the same criticism as its predecessor. For example, it is understood that documents that have come to light since that day have given a quite new aspect to the vexed question of the guilt of Mary, Queen of Scots. If this is so, it is an injustice to students to turn them off with merely Mr. Hallam's note (p. 650), admirable and complete as the note is for the facts which he had at his command. Perhaps it would have swollen the volume to an excessive size, but it would have added greatly to its value,

to bring it down in some way to the present time, instead of stopping at the accession of George III., more than a hundred years ago.

Miss Hall's 'Our World' is a combined atlas, geographical manual, and condensed history, prepared with special avoidance of the too common and once universal fault of overloading the learner's memory with names and dates. Physical and descriptive geography is attractively presented, and, what with the narratives and the pictures and the not too crowded maps, we should suppose a class would eagerly look forward to each succeeding lesson as if "to-morrow to fresh woods and pastures new."

Two text-books on physiology call for brief remark. Dr. Martindale's is in the main a fair presentation of facts, somewhat drily told, with occasional inaccuracies; for instances of which see the definitions of organic and inorganic elements, and the lists of proximate and ultimate elements. Chilblain is "frost-bite, particularly of the feet." Scrofula is very poorly defined. The mortality from typhus and typhoid fevers is stated as being about one in twenty! The doctor tells us that tea taken in the evening has a tendency to induce sleep (p. 186). He neglects to speak of three most important points of hygiene, namely, the avoidance of excessive study; the desirability of a simple, abundant, and frequent supply of food to all young people; the intolerable unwholesomeness of the favorite diet of the American farmer and mechanic. There is, however, a great mass of useful information in the book. Dr. Cutter is already well-known as a writer of school physiologies. The present volume is attractively printed, and illustrated with a good many cuts descriptive of human and comparative anatomy and physiology. The work has a cheerful and taking air, and we recognize many of the anecdotes which gave interest, in our youthful opinion, to the author's former text-book upon physiology. The present seems to be a much abbreviated reproduction of its predecessor, with a good deal of matter upon comparative physiology and anatomy, which is well chosen.

The Foreigner in Far Cathay. By W. H. Medhurst, H.B.M. Consul, Shanghae. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.)—Some of the chapters of this little work were originally delivered as lectures in Shanghae before the author's return to England; and though his object in publishing is a serious one, each topic is treated in a manner appropriate to the *conversazione*, with no higher pretensions to thoroughness or profundity. The result is an entertaining if superficial view of the mode of living at the English settlements, of the relations between foreigners and natives, and of the Chinese character, habits, and disposition. Slight as the sketch is, it is based on no inconsiderable knowledge of the subject; and, as compared with so stuffed and elaborate a work as Mr. Doolittle's, is calculated to leave a clearer and more lasting impression on the mind of the reader. "Shop Signs," "Advertising," "Social Institutions," "Correspondence and the Press," "Use of the Written Character for Decoration," "Chinese Proper Names," "Travelling and Porterage," are among the inviting headings which one encounters in turning over these pages; while the moot points of this "Eastern question" are discussed in the "Position of Foreigners in China," "Character and Habits of Foreign Residents," "Missionaries," "Consuls and Customs Authorities," "Character of the Chinese," etc. Mr. Medhurst talks with great frankness and apparently without bias of his countrymen and the natives. After remarking that "the opinion prevalent at home that foreigners mingle in Chinese society generally is altogether a mistaken one. The conventional rules of the Chinese are so constituted, and their habits of thought and customs so peculiar, that there is little or no encouragement to court acquaintance on either part, even were the entire ignorance of each other's language not to present a serious bar in the way of an interchange of ideas"—he goes on to say: "There is perhaps no country in the world, frequented by the English-speaking race, in which merchants are so lamentably ignorant of the customs and resources of the locality in which they live as they are at this moment in China; and this is entirely to be attributed to a want of familiarity with the language." Of the Chinese he speaks with a degree of favor proportioned to the prevailing misconception of their character, and his account of them as cooks and servants particularly will cause many of his fair readers to sigh for the coming Chinaman. The delicate missionary problem is discussed in a fair and temperate spirit, and we shall close our review of Mr. Medhurst by quoting a single passage relating to it:

"In connection with the limited results of Protestant missionary teaching so far, I owe it to the Protestant missionary body to state that they themselves ascribe much of their want of success to the demoralizing effects of the opium trade, as well as to a failure on the part of foreigners generally to support them in their teaching by a conduct and example worthy of the Christian profession. It cannot be doubted that the opium traffic has much to answer for in the way of neutralizing missionary efforts, not only in its direct effects upon the victims themselves, but in the hatred and suspicion of everything foreign which it has engendered in the minds of the natives generally. But as regards the other counteracting influence which the missionaries plead in bar of success, I think they are apt to take up a too decided opinion. Residence in the East, and association with heathen and less civilized races, do not as a rule tend to elevate the moral and mental standard to which the European may have been schooled in his own country. But foreign residents in China are, I think, as little affected by this demoralization, if I may so term it, as perhaps any wanderers into Eastern climes; and if the Chinese take the trouble to study them at all, it is rather to contemplate with wonder their (in the Chinese idea) *bizarre* habits and notions than to draw any deductions from their conduct in a moral point of view. Individual instances no doubt do occur in which the missionary finds himself posed by allusions to laxity of conduct in his own countrymen; but I question whether the objection seriously presents itself to the minds of the masses as an argument against Christianity."

Fine Arts.

THE ART OF PHOTOGRAPHY.*

WHETHER photography is or is not one of the fine arts is a question often disputed, even with acrimony at times, amongst photographers, and the craft is divided not only in respect to the pretension but in the practice. One set, or sect perhaps, maintains in theory and method that a photograph may be designed as a picture, its parts separately produced in different negatives, and combined in the printing so as to give the appearance of having been taken from a carefully arranged *tableau vivant* or natural landscape, and by more or less retouching, as the combination printing was worse or better done, made so *vraisemblable* as to make it in general effect indistinguishable from a photograph of a completely realistic picture. This perfection of artifice is declared by its school to be substantially the same as art: it involves pictorial conception, they say, pictorial judgment and design (using the word in the sense of intention)—it is therefore art. Its value is not in the reproduction of facts, but in making pleasing pictures; it repudiates the supremacy of the scientific element and offers its labors to the idler muses.

The other, the older and orthodox, school of pure photography, with which Mr. Gordon holds, repudiates the pretensions of the combination printers, and sets its chief value purely in the faithfulness and completeness of the rendering of an individual scene or object, tastefully chosen if it may be, judiciously lighted; and beyond this, in good manipulation. To these photography is an art of record purely, and admits no sophistication beyond the remedying of the inevitable defects of a mechanical operation. The best that nature does for us is the best that can be dared by photography, and the limit of liberty with her which the purist school permits is the printing a cloud in a flat white sky when it was not possible to get one in the sky direct from nature—not as a thing to be proud of in the work, but as a regrettable expedient in a case where photography is almost inevitably at fault. This is undoubtedly the highest and therefore best and most correct view of the art-science, and there is in it a completely artistic side—taste in selection of subject and in its lighting, a perception of the happy accidents by which nature points to invention and composition, delicate sense of gradation in the subject and treatment of the photograph, so as to keep it broad and massive; and beyond this come the manual dexterity and judgment which grow out of long experience, as well as native delicacy of weighing the intensity of light and the qualities of the negative as finally affecting the print. In all these qualities Mr. Gordon stands amongst the first—in some the very first—of the English photographers, the leading amateur in a country where amateurs are perhaps the best photographers, and where for outdoor nature the photographers are the best in the world at this time.

The readers of the *Nation* will perhaps remember the account of a day with the "Field Club," an association to which and its members is due a large part of the English progress in practical photography as applied to outdoor work. Its winter meetings are occupied in examining the practical appliances of field-work, and those of the summer in a friendly competition in applying them. Of this organization Mr. Gordon is one of the leading spirits, and by general admission *facile princeps*—uncompromisingly of the purest school, ablest of dry-plate workers, and, in many respects, of living photographers. The publication of this collection of album photographs (their size is only about 7 x 5) will enable those who are interested in photography *per se*, as well as those who care for the lovely and pictorial landscape of England, to see what may be done in this charming art of record, and, so far as Mr. Gordon is concerned, for the first time, as his views have not before been published. Every one of them is a lesson not only in photography but in landscape rendering, so far as monochrome can go, careful in

* 'Twenty-five English Photographs, being a Selection of Views in England and Wales, photographed by R. M. Gordon, F.R.G.S., Member of the Amateur Field Club of London,' etc., etc. London: W. J. Stillman; New York: C. F. McKim.

choice of position, judicious in lighting of the subject to the best advantage, and full of light and tone to a remarkable degree. One is a view of Lynmouth, with a wooded hillside filling nearly the whole distance, which may be taken as the standard of rendering of distant foliage—curiously subtle and tender in gradation and chiaroscuro, every shadow full of detail, and every light as free from that chalkiness and glitter which make the despair of artists in the work of photography. "At Bettws-y-coed, North Wales" is equally remarkable for nearer foliage and for the perfect rendering of dreamy, tremulous water; while a "Cottage in South Devon" is a superb study not only of foliage but of local tone and luminous massiveness, the sun being almost at the back of the spectator and falling full on a picturesque thatch-roofed farm cottage. In "Near Shanklin, Isle of Wight," a broad shadow falls on a blackberry hedge at the left, while its counter-row is in full sunshine; but in the shadow, as well as in the light, every twig and leaf is brought out, subdued and yet illuminated, while far between the two the distance melts away with pale crossing shadows. This light-in-shade is the difficult and triumphant thing in photography, and Mr. Gordon is its master.

The skies in these views are mainly printed in by a second printing, but the whole is done with such care and unobtrusiveness that one hardly realizes more of the clouds than that they break the expanse. Every print is made with the care of a gem-cutter, and in one or two cases a whitewashed cottage wall, by its subtle gradation of light against light, and light against the sky, shows a triumph over technical difficulties hardly likely to be appreciated by an unpractised eye, but which a photographer will at once feel the measure of. One may be assured that, with its present resources, photography cannot do more before nature than is done in these views.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MARCH 24, 1873.

THE week closes with an easy money market, the last quotations being from $\frac{1}{3}\frac{1}{2}$ and interest down to 4 per cent. per annum. It is probable that the banks have been selling some of the Government bonds which they hold in their loan account. Exchange was neglected and unusually dull, even for Saturday. Prime sixty-day sterling is quoted at 107⅞ to 108. The Treasury has withdrawn about $360,000 of the extra greenbacks.

The legislative examination into the affairs of the Erie Railroad reveals strange accounts of the doings of the Dix-Sickles combination at the time of Gould's surrender. It is stated that Gould himself brought about the re-election of the directors who came into power on the day previous to his defeat, and those who then resigned were purchased for the following sums: Lane received $67,500; Thompson, $67,500; Simons, $50,000; Archer, $40,000; Hilton, $25,000; Otis, $25,000. Gould's consideration was the well-known confirmation of a release of claims held against him. A few days before the election of the 9th July, 1872, the Erie directors put into the hands of Bischoffsheim and Goldschmidt consolidated bonds, the proceeds of which were $6,080,000. On account of these bonds, Bischoffsheim had paid to the Erie Company something over $4,900,000, leaving a heavy balance still due. Besides, the firm had charged a commission of 2¾ per cent. One of the witnesses exhibited photographs of vouchers and receipts which showed that large sums of money had been paid to Sickles, Crouch, Sharpe, and others. Among these vouchers was one for $35,000 expended for hotel bills of Gen. Sickles and his retinue.

The verdict in the case of David Scull *vs.* The Kensington Bank of Pennsylvania is of great importance as bearing on the responsibility of banks for special deposits. The plaintiff had been for thirty years a depositor in the bank, and, by permission of the cashier, had left a tin box containing bonds in the vault for safe keeping. He paid nothing for the privilege. The bank was robbed, and the plaintiff sought to recover on the ground that the bank had not used due diligence to secure the place. The jury returned a verdict for plaintiff for $37,000, the value of the bonds with interest.

Financial circles have been somewhat disturbed during the week by the discovery of forged certificates of Wabash and Fort Wayne stocks. These were happily detected before they had circulated to any great extent, and were traced to Oddie & Austin, stock brokers, by whom they had been pledged as collaterals. Mr. Austin has absconded. The loss is not believed to exceed $40,000.

The failure of the Bull's Head Bank, now in the hands of the United States Marshal, pending bankruptcy proceedings—an old State bank uptown—has occurred through defalcations. Its books and accounts have been found mutilated and partly destroyed, and no definite information has yet been furnished to the public. The last quarterly statement of the bank, Dec. 28, 1872, was as follows: capital, $200,000; surplus, $85,200; circulation, $6,000; deposits, $1,078,000; unpaid dividends, $2,600; loans, $1,116,800; stocks, $30,700; real estate, $61,100; due from banks, $83,000; specie, $6,000; legal tenders, $72,200; overdrafts, $2,700. Last year a dividend of sixteen per cent. was paid to the stockholders, and the stock has lately been quoted at 180. The bank cleared through the Metropolitan National, but this latter has escaped without loss.

The following is a comparison of the bank figures for the past two weeks; this statement including all the banks in the Clearing-House, State and National:

	March 15.	March 22.	Differences.
Loans	$278,028,600	$275,198,800	Dec. $2,829,800
Specie	16,946,700	17,472,300	Inc. 525,600
Circulation	27,610,400	27,613,600	Inc. 3,200
Deposits	196,095,400	194,623,500	Dec. 1,471,900
Legal tenders	38,715,500	38,304,200	Dec. 411,300

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	March 15.	March 22.	Differences.
Specie	$16,946,700	$17,472,300	Inc. $525,600
Legal tenders	38,715,500	38,304,200	Dec. 411,300
Total reserve	$55,662,200	$55,776,500	Inc. $114,300
Circulation	27,610,400	27,613,600	Inc. 3,200
Deposits	196,095,400	194,623,500	Dec. 1,471,900
Total liabilities	$223,705,800	$222,237,100	Dec. $1,468,700
25 per cent. reserve	55,926,450	55,559,275	
Deficiency in legal reserve	264,250		
Excess over legal reserve		217,225	Inc. 481,475

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$237,727,300	$37,471,500	$275,198,800
Specie	15,394,800	2,077,500	17,472,300
Legal Tenders	34,518,900	3,785,300	38,304,200
Net Deposits	168,151,500	26,472,000	194,623,500
Circulation	27,570,600	43,000	27,613,600

An analysis shows that the National banks have $983,175 above the 25 per cent. requirement, against $1,050,550 last week, and that the State banks, which are not required by law to keep on hand 25 per cent. reserve, are this week $765,950 below the 25 per cent. line, against $1,314,800 last week.

This week's stock market has been dull. The decision of Judge Shepley, of the United States Circuit Court in Boston, refusing to grant an injunction restraining the holders of what are known as the "Berdell" bonds of the Boston, Hartford, and Erie Railroad Company from foreclosing the mortgage, had a disastrous effect upon the shares, which at once declined. Whatever claim to intrinsic value has been put forth from time to time for this stock has been based upon the belief that the mortgage could not be foreclosed, and that a reorganization, with the intention of destroying the shares and making a new issue of securities, was impossible. At present, then, there would seem to be no real value left in the old shares, and in a short time they must take their place amongst the things of the past, or be left, like Mariposa mining stock, with a mere nominal quotable price.

Rumor has been correct as to the consolidation of the different telegraph companies outside of the Western Union, and there will thus be a formidable opposition to the last, and managed, moreover, by its present rulers. It appears these persons sold out their stock in the much-watered Western Union, after having carried it since the price was between 35 and 40, and, in the present situation, they have no chance of re-election. Unwilling to buy back the stock thus sold at its present price—knowing that to be far above the actual value—they threaten to organize the opposition. From all this the community will be the gainer, at least temporarily, by the lower competitive rates on messages, and, with the great experience of the managers of the Western Union, there is no good reason why, in their new rôle, this public advantage from the coming enterprise should not be permanent.

Pacific Mail is again in a distressed condition, if that can be supposed to be indicated by market quotations of its shares. The stock is a dead load to carry, being entirely unavailable as security for loans; and the parties engaged in supporting the price are finding this out to their cost. The Company, which for years has taken no notice of progress, snapped its fingers at rivalry, squandered its subsidies and resources, frittered away its capital in useless assets (having only lately bought, from a defeated lobbyist, a fleet of old side-wheel wooden tubs lying idle in the Pacific), will soon be met in the trade between California, Japan, and China by a formidable rival—the new English Screw Steam Company, which is preparing its ships for the route, and will commence the trips during this year. If with a close monopoly and a Government subsidy the Pacific Mail does so ill, the appearance of such a competitor will not improve its condition.

In investment shares Chicago and Alton has been quite a feature, the price advancing to 113, owing, it is thought, to a contemplated early division of bonds and stock at a low rate among shareholders. This division is to represent money expended by the Company on some of its branch roads. In what manner the division is to be made we have no definite knowledge, but think it not unlikely it will be in shares at a price so low as to make a handsome dividend to stockholders, and at the same time supply the road with a little ready cash. It is rumored that the Panama Railroad Company will also make a stock dividend, doubling their capital, on which they will hereafter pay eight per cent. dividends. The prosperity of this Company is such that a cash balance of $900,000 is left on hand after the payment of the present quarterly dividend. It is understood that the Harlem Railroad will soon be leased in perpetuity to the New York Central, which last will guarantee eight per cent. dividends on the stock.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending March 22, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100¼	100¼ 101¼	100¾ 101⅛	100¾ 101⅜	100¾ 100⅜	100⅜ 101¼	67,800
Lake Shore	93⅜ 94⅜	93⅝ 94¼	93⅝ 94	93 93⅞	93⅜ 93⅜	93⅜ 94	104,500
Erie	65⅛ 65½	64¾ 65¼	63⅞ 64⅛	63¾ 64⅛	63¾ 64¼	64 65¼	103,300
Do. pfd	 76	74 74⅛	74 75	74	75	....	100
Union Pacific	33⅜ 34⅜	31⅜ 35	34½ 34¾	34⅜ 34⅝	34½ 34⅝	34½ 34¾	28,400
Chi & N. W.	....	81¾	....	80 82	80 81	81	900
Do. pfd	88½ 89¼	88⅝ 88¾	87½ 87⅞	88¼ 88½	88⅜ 88½	88⅛	2,100
N. J. Central	104¼	104 104¾	103¾ 104¼	103⅝ 104	103½ 103¾	103½	300
Rock Island	114⅛ 115⅜	114⅛ 115⅜	114⅜ 115⅜	114¼ 114⅜	114¼ 114⅝	114⅜ 115⅜	22,600
Mil. & St. Paul	55⅜ 56⅜	56¼ 57⅜	56⅞ 57⅜	56 57¼	55⅝ 56¼	56¼ 56⅝	25,100
Do. pfd.	75⅜ 76⅜	76 76¼	76¼ 76½	75½ 76¼	75 75⅜	75½	3,100
Wabash	73¾ 74	73¾	73½ 73⅝	72⅝ 73¼	72¼ 73	72½ 73	6,300
D. L. & Western	101½ 102	101½	101½	101 101½	101 102	100¾	1,200
B. H. & Erie	6⅝ 7⅜	6¾ 7¼	5¾ 5⅞	4 5⅜	4¾ 4⅞	4⅝ 4⅞	59,400
O. & M	45½ 45⅞	45½ 45⅝	45⅜ 45⅝	44⅞ 45⅜	44⅞ 45⅛	45⅛ 45⅜	43,500
C. C. & I. C	40¼ 41	40⅜ 40⅜	39½ 40⅛	39 40	37⅝ 39½	38⅛ 39⅛	24,100
W. U. Tel	86½ 86½	86⅛ 86⅝	86½ 86¾	86¼ 86⅜	86⅛ 87⅜	87¼ 87⅛	166,600
Pacific Mail	56½ 58⅜	57 57⅛	56½ 57⅜	55½ 56½	53⅜ 56½	53½ 55⅛	165,600

The Government list is strong, with a rise in the sixes of '81, and a sudden advance in the new fives to 113⅞. The currency sixes improved to 113⅞ under the relaxation in money.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 3, 1873.

The Week.

THOSE who have the interests of reform at heart will be glad to know that Mr. Curtis has resigned his position as member of the civil-service Advisory Board. As it was to Mr. Curtis's exertions mainly that the creation of the board was due, and mainly owing to his continued declarations of confidence in the President that the public gave their confidence as long as they did, it is gratifying, now that Casey is being reappointed at New Orleans, and Sharpe made Surveyor of this port, to find Mr. Curtis unwilling any longer to lend the strength of his name to what cannot, under the present Administration, be anything more than a pretence. If we suppose that the President really knew or cared anything about this reform, we should say that the treatment Mr. Curtis has received had been a series of insults; but it is every day becoming more evident that the trouble with General Grant is that he does not understand what civil-service reform or reform of any kind means. A number of his appointees holding high positions in the service have left their posts in New York, and are regularly encamped now at Albany, lobbying Mr. Thomas Murphy's charter through the Senate. The President does not give the slightest sign of perceiving that there is anything discreditable in this, although matters have come to such a pass that it now depends a good deal on General Grant's humor what is to be the future government of the city of New York. A long letter from Mr. Peter Cooper to the President on this subject is published, which is written in a positively imploring tone, begging him to call off his Custom-house appointees. And there is reason for it. It has come out, by the way, in the Erie investigation, that the employment of Sickles in the work of buying up the Erie directors for the Bischoffsheim and Goldschmidt party was due in great measure to his influence with the President, and that he actually got an order from Washington authorizing the examination of the Erie books, on the ground of a violation of the internal revenue law, which was so extraordinary that it was "overruled" by Mr. Boutwell, without any one's being bold enough to use it.

We may remark, by the way, as we are on the subject of President Grant's sincerity in reforming the civil service, that we have received from New Orleans a letter in which the writer, an office-holder under Kellogg, says that, to the best of his (very good) knowledge and belief, Casey would not have been removed "had he been no relative" of the President's, who out of delicacy removed him, though all the while thinking him undeserving of that mark of disapproval; and that he was reappointed because of the President's belief that Casey's opponents only wanted to remove him out of their path in order "to get a chance to steal the revenue under some such creature as Perry Fuller." As the population of New Orleans, three years ago, was rather above one hundred and ninety thousand souls, the President was not exactly restricted in selecting a collector of the port to a choice between Mr. Perry Fuller and his own brother-in-law, whether or not a brother-in-law with a revenue-cutter and a damaging Congressional report about his official conduct. As for the question of "delicacy," that we do not intend to discuss at present. Our correspondent's remark, that were Casey now to be removed the place would, "under the civil-service rules," go to Mr. P. F. Herwig, is a remark of a sort which up in this latitude is received with laughter or sighs and groans, according to the temperament of the auditor. Our correspondent also vouches for the "stainless character of J. M. G. Parker," "as the record shows." He says that Mr. Parker, General Butler's brother-in-law, did not seek nor receive any of the fifteen thousand dollars paid to arbitrators in the Water-works case, to which we referred last week. We can only say that we made our statement, that he was to have some of the money, on authority which we are forced to think as good as that of our correspondent, who seems unaware that no money at all was "paid" to the arbitrators—thanks to their roguery's luckily being found out—and whom it may be well to remind that what the record shows in the case of accused persons connected with General Butler may or may not be what the record ought to show. Meanwhile, all these honest gentry, with Mr. Kellogg at the head of them, are in straits for money, nearly every dollar of the property in the city and State being in the hands of the McEnery people, who withhold taxes, much to the dismay of the colored legislators, and appear to have struck their enemy at last in a joint of his harness. As there are rather less than a million of Louisianians, and rather more than sixty millions of State debt already, it is to be hoped that the people may be able to hold out till next winter, when there may be some chance of relief from Congress, the members of which ought certainly to get some instruction on this head from their constituents in the course of the coming nine months.

Mr. Caleb Cushing has written a book which he calls 'The Treaty of Washington: its Negotiation, Execution, and the Discussions relating thereto.' It is dedicated to Count Sclopis, "a man of large stature"—says the description of his person which our jurisconsult draws up—"of dignified presence; of the high breeding of rank, but without pretensiveness, and cordial and kindly in social intercourse," in which latter regard, as we soon learn, he is very different from another arbitrator to whom Mr. Cushing pays his respects further on. Count Sclopis's real greatness, like that of his master, "Vittorio Emanuele," is best understood if we "conceive and picture to the mind's eye the Alpine cradle of this adventurous and martial but cultivated race of Italianized Savoisian princes, nobles, and people"—"the fertile but ravaged valleys of the Rhone," etc., and "the passes of the Valaisian, Cottian, and Graian Alps," etc., where Vittorio Emanuele, Sclopis, Menabrea, Cialdini, were born and reared. The other arbitrators, as well as Count Sclopis, come in for a stroke or two of personal description. M. Staempfli, "with his deep-brown complexion, his piercing dark eyes, his jet black hair"; Mr. Adams, whose "attributes are his own"; the Viscount Itajuba, "with his fair complexion and air of gentleness and amiability," whom the uninformed beholder would take to have been born in "temperate and calm-blooded Europe," while M. Staempfli he would assign to "tropical and passionate America"; and finally, Chief-Justice Cockburn, for whose sake Mr. Cushing evidently has written his whole book, and whom he cuffs and kicks and pinches, and throws mud at, and makes faces at with a vivacity really wonderful in an elderly gentleman of threescore and thirteen.

Sir Alexander, indeed, had a mother, but she appears to have been a French lady, being described by Burke as such; and one of his uncles is that Sir George Cockburn whose services in American waters have "left some unpleasant traces or memories in the United States." In other words, Sir George helped to burn the city of Washington in 1814. Sir Alexander first attracted attention by "placing his lance with the devotion of a Dugald Dalgetty" at the service of Palmerston, regardless of the merits of the cause, on a certain disgraceful occasion, and was afterwards promoted "with unexampled celerity" to his present place on the Queen's Bench; but although he has for sixteen years presided in that and other courts he has "not been raised to the peerage"—"an unusual, if not unprecedented fact, on the reasons for which it is unnecessary to speculate," says Mr. Cushing. And whenever during his Chief-Justiceship Sir Alexander has made his appearance in the literature of municipal or public law, it has been in a way not such as "to invite respect at

home or attention beyond the courts of Great Britain." For instance, he published some years ago a monogram on the subject of naturalization, and it turned out to be an abridgment, very incorrect, of a report made by a board of royal commissioners who had some time before been ordered to investigate a similar subject. "Confused thought" is one of the Chief-Justice's traits, and others are "equivocation in matters of law," a "tendency to declamatory denunciation of adversary opinions," biliousness of temper, prolixity, a disrespect for the Tribunal, negligence, disingenuousness, fault-finding, imputation of bad motives, and half-a-dozen others equally vicious and unworthy, while his manners are, to say the least, not servile or courtly: almost before Count Sclopis had ceased speaking on the day when the Tribunal's decision was announced, and before the sound of his words had died on the ear, the Scot snatched up his hat, it seems, and "disappeared, in the manner of a criminal escaping from the dock," and without a word of farewell to his fellow-judges. On the whole, whatever Sir Alexander's behavior may have been, this record of it is conceived in admirable taste. It contrives to degrade Mr. Cushing and Mr. Cushing's employers at the same time that it abuses the other side and insults the Tribunal. It will tend to promote still further the good understanding which sanguine people once hoped would be the upshot of the negotiation.

The Special Session of the Senate adjourned on the 27th of March, after having confirmed a host of appointments, and done one or two sensational things which, rather than otherwise, tend to confirm the current theory that the Senate holds popular opinion in some contempt—as indeed, to look at both sides of the case, popular opinion not seldom makes it easy for the senator to do. We do not know, however, what excuse there was for letting Caldwell slip away by a resignation; for declaring that the charges against Clayton were not sustained, though his case is so notorious that the House turned out a Democratic representative from Arkansas who held Clayton's gubernatorial certificate of election, and turned him out on the ground that Clayton had fraudulently given it to him in consideration of his political aid. Probably it is a high estimate that sets down six men in the United States as believing Clayton innocent. Thirty-three senators voted that the charge was not sustained, and thirty-three were absent or refused to vote, the Democrats mostly declining on the ground that it was idle to vote on seven hundred pages of evidence, which a committee had had in hand two years and threw to the Senate a few days only before action on it was asked for. Six senators, however, all Southern men—Norwood (Ga.), Goldthwaite (Ala.), Davis (W. Va.), Cooper (Tenn.), Gordon (Ga.), Merrimon (N. C.)—and all aware, by woful experience, of the gifts and graces of the Clayton kind of man—voted against the committee's report and in favor of Mr. Norwood's minority report. The other committee senators said it was "due to the country, due to the Senate, due to the senator from Arkansas," that the charges should be taken up here, and now, and acted upon, and it was gravely voted to take them up; whereupon the others getting into the cloak-rooms and other places of retirement, the thirty-three votes were cast, and Senator Clayton is safe in his seat till 1877. Mr. Patterson got leave to print some observations on the Senate Committee's report in his case, but makes in them no new point. He was careless, and did not know at the time, or did not recollect afterwards, whether it was Crédit Mobilier stock or Union Pacific that he was dealing with Ames for. Undeniably there are men of whom things like this may be credited. One of Mr. Patterson's observations is a suggestion to senators to look about them and ask how many of them are not interested in iron works, wool manufactories, and similar industries to be counted by the score or the hundred, to which Congress regularly votes money. Pinchback, the mulatto gambler, the Senate did not admit, feeling probably that Louisiana, as a place for a senator to date his credentials from, is about as stable and firm as the late Rufus Choate's swarm of bees was for a surveyor's point fixing the southeast boundary of a certain lot of land. Perhaps the most generally acceptable thing done in the session was the ordering, at the urgent solicitation of the Western men, of a large select committee on transportation routes between the West and the seaboard.

A correspondent of the Chicago *Evening Journal* (date of March 27) supplies what was lacking in our comments on Mr. Martin Bovee's recent letter to the *Tribune* concerning capital punishment at the West. He accuses Mr. Bovee of dealing unfairly with his Eastern readers, leading them, for example, to believe that in Iowa the most beneficent results have attended the abolition of the death penalty; whereas it is notorious that "murder and brutal outrages have multiplied in fearful proportion." "And yet," he adds, "with all the increase of crime before them, the courts have doomed to imprisonment for life *only one murderer* since hanging was abolished." This, on the supposition that more than one murderer has been convicted during the period referred to, is, if true, in strong confirmation of the views we advanced as to the futility of life-sentences as a substitute for hanging. Moreover, continues this witness, the pardon system is so far from having fallen into disrepute in the State, that within three weeks the Governor of Iowa has "been compelled to exercise all his firmness" in resisting the importunities made for the pardon of two criminals sent to the penitentiary for placing obstructions on a railroad track. The result of all this is a growing feeling in favor of the revival of capital punishment; and the correspondent declares that the "determined effort to restore the gallows" which, according to Mr. Bovee, "met with an overwhelming defeat at the hands of the last Legislature," really "showed a most remarkable and healthy change in public sentiment," one symptom of which was the recent hanging of a wife-murderer by a vigilance committee. In Wisconsin, "the pardoning power has for a long time past been grossly abused, and convictions are slowly secured and by no means with certainty," Mr. Bovee to the contrary notwithstanding. Finally, when Mr. Bovee wrote cheeringly that capital punishment was "practically abolished" in Illinois, "he must have known that McNultee had been hanged at Peoria not many weeks preceding; that Driver was to be hanged in this city (Chicago) on the 4th, and that Osborne was to be hanged at Knoxville on the same day; that Governor Beveridge has given the public every reason to believe that he proposes to save no murderers from the gallows; and that the press and people of the State are almost a unit in demanding their execution."

From before Andrew Johnson's time till now Presidents' pardons have not been of a kind to gratify hard-hearted persons, and to the consideration of such we commend the following case, which we find stated at length in the Boston *Advertiser* as a hypothetical case, every one of whose bad features has been exemplified in one and another case which has actually been in court. A young gentleman, employed in a post-office not a thousand miles from Boston, is discovered, we will suppose, in the act of opening letters and taking money out of them. He got his clerkship through the political influence of friends, and when he is caught, these friends beg the prosecuting attorney to indict him for the minor offence of robbing the mail without the aggravation of its being the act of one "officially entrusted," etc., etc., so as to allow of a lower penalty. This the district attorney does, reluctantly indeed, but still he does it, because he felt constrained to refuse the previous modest request, that inasmuch as the young man had enjoyed every advantage of home and school and church and society, he should not be proceeded against at all. Sentence follows in due course, and it is light because the judge is bound by the record as made up, and because there is no one to suggest that the offence has been long continued, that in consequence of it business has doubtless suffered, friendships may have been broken off, ties of love weakened or snapped, and reputations injured or ruined, and all in order that a peculiarly heartless young thief might filch the means of self-indulgence. There are persons present, however, to speak of a sudden yielding to overpowering temptation. The crime not being aggravated, nor a crime of violence, the judge consigns the prisoner not to States-prison, or the House of Correction, but to a county jail,

the keeper of which, finding his educated prisoner rather good company in a dull court-house town, "lets him ride round town in his buggy, and go to the station, and shops, and the post-office." The glee club of which the young gentleman was formerly a member visits the jail and serenades him, and he comes out "and takes his old tenor part" and "partakes of the viands." In a month or two a Quaker of demure countenance is hired to secure signatures to a petition for pardon, the more names the more pay being the condition of his service. The old political influence is brought to bear on all the gentlemen who took money to procure the young man his clerkship; they sign; others sign because of the Quaker's seemly and righteous appearance; others because they never yet said no when asked to sign a petition. Of course nobody ever gets up a counter petition. The governor of the State declines to interfere, but nearly all the other officials write letters on State-house paper, "with the shield, and the Indian, and the *ense petit* at the top," and armed with these and the petition the Quaker and the prettiest Niobe among the prisoner's relatives go on to Washington; and by-and-by we read in the evening paper that the President has seen fit to pardon Mr. So-and-so, recently convicted of tampering with the mails, and in the morning paper that a suspected post-office clerk has been "arrested with more than thirty letters concealed on his person, only a few of which had he had time to open." The moral is to be drawn by all pardoners, and petitioners for pardon, and all opponents of all penal punishment generally.

The latest move in the charter game at Albany was a compromise adopted by a Republican senatorial caucus on Wednesday night, providing that Commissioners Van Nort, Stebbins, and Smith should be retained in office, together with Mr. E. Delafield Smith, the new district attorney, that Green should go out of office, and all the rest of the appointing power given to the Mayor, subject to approval by the aldermen. Of the five officials we have named, Mr. Green is the one who has given the best evidence that he knows what reform means. During the past year and a half he has stood guard over the treasury of the city, and really saved a million and a half of people from organized plunder. For this he is to be turned out. The contest is not over yet, and it is impossible to predict how it will end. The struggle is one for the offices altogether, the Custom-house men representing that unless the offices are given to them the Democrats will certainly come in at the next election, and the Anti-Custom-house Republicans being afraid that giving the offices to the Custom-house men will lead to the same thing. The Assistant Aldermen have been abolished, and spring elections defeated. The charter, except as it deals with the appointing power, possesses no interest for any one, the instrument being read section by section to the Senate, without comment of any kind, until the twenty-seventh is reached, when there is a general "movement," and the harangues begin. As we go to press, everything looks like a triumph for the New Ring, though it does not float to its success on the full tide of which they were so confident at the beginning of the session. Whether Governor Dix will treat Mr. Murphy to what he would call a set back, and veto the charter, is not stated. He could not better please a majority of the taxpaying citizens of the city of New York.

The first appearance of Mr. Richardson in Wall Street made things lively for borrowers of money, who were very glad to supply their wants at the rate of ¾ of 1 per cent. a day on Monday and Tuesday, which, ciphered down, means 270 per cent. per annum for the use of money—rates which, under the expansion policy of the Treasury, are quite up to the days when Mr. McCulloch was contracting the currency at the rate of $4,000,000 per month. Mr. Richardson's apparent attempt to keep gold down met with a serious opposition from Mr. Gould and his friends manipulating the gold market. The publication of the Treasury programme on Monday for a time seemed to stagger the "bulls" in gold, as the price fell off a fraction from the closing quotations of Saturday; but their forces were very soon rallied, and in the space of an hour the price was carried from 116¾ up to 118½, at which point there was a general selling out. The impression in Wall Street is that the gold market is in such a position that the leading operators for a rise could have kept the price at 118½ had they been so disposed; the poverty of the Treasury being such that the Secretary can hardly increase his gold sales with safety beyond the advertised amount. At the same time, the currency balance is low, and this may, at any time, cause Mr. Richardson to reissue a portion of what Mr. Boutwell used to call his "reserve legal tenders."

There are rumors in every direction of all kinds of strikes. Some of them have already begun. In Boston, for instance, the horse-shoers refused to work, and the horse-railroad companies proceeded to replace the strikers by fresh men. One of the strikers has been arrested and committed for trial for assaulting one of the new men. In Brooklyn the "Carpenters of Kings County" had a large and spirited meeting last Tuesday week, which was addressed by Dennis S. Griffin of the Stairbuilders' Union of this city. From Mr. Griffin's remarks we understand that what the men object to is that they are made to work ten hours a day when eight is a legal day's work, and that the German Cabinetmakers, who undersell their American brethren in the labor market, are, in so doing, doing very wrong. The resolutions adopted demand an increase of wages ($3 50 instead of $3) from the 7th of April for eight hours' work, and recommend a strike if the demand is refused. The fact about the trades connected with building, as our readers hardly need to have pointed out, is that, in the spring, work being very pressing, and delays dangerous to the capital invested in building contracts, the workmen have their employers on the hip; during the rest of the year, the advantage is the other way. The true mode of solving the difficulty, and it is a wonder it is not urged, is for Congress to give the American-born carpenter a little protection—the "pauper labor of Europe" being none the less pauper labor for being wilfully done on these shores.

News comes, as we go to press, of the greatest disaster known to the records of steam communication between this country and Europe. Early on Tuesday morning, the *Atlantic* steamship, of the White Star Line, struck a rock on the coast of Nova Scotia, and sank almost instantly, with a loss of more than seven hundred lives. The *Atlantic* was short of coal, and had left her proper course, in order to make Halifax. Till the passenger-list reaches this country by another vessel, the full extent of this dreadful calamity can only be guessed. The suddenness of it robs it of those heart-rending features which distinguished the sinking of the *Northfleet*. But among the two hundred and fifty survivors, not a woman or child is saved.

The week's news from Spain, pending the elections for the Cortes, is of the gloomiest description. Insubordination in the army continues to spread unchecked; two great cities, Barcelona in the north, and Malaga in the south, defy the Government; and the national finances are in a hopeless condition. Germany, Russia, and Austria refuse their recognition to the Republic, and Olozaga, its minister to France, has resigned. The Carlist operations are still confined to a small area near the frontier in Catalonia, but are daily becoming bolder on account of the defection in the regular army. A levy *en masse* to meet them has proved a failure, Barcelona, whose garrison is in open mutiny, demanding a postponement, and calling for 15,000 of the rifles promised for arming the people. The small towns of Ripoll and Berga have been occupied by the Carlists, with outrages in which petroleum is said to have played a part; the effect of which on the people of Barcelona has been to cause them to burn churches and threaten the lives of priests in true Communist fashion. In Cadiz, the municipality has suppressed religious instruction in the schools. In Malaga, ten thousand armed citizens keep the peace and the city, refusing admission to Government troops, interfering with the receipt of customs, and "taxing the wealthy" *ad libitum*. Such is the doleful picture of Spain during the past few days, as transmitted by Cable.

A NEW PARTY.

THE *Anglo-American Times*, a very capable journal, reviewing the present state of our politics and political parties, arrives at the conclusion that "the day has come in America for men, not measures." It is a conclusion which seems plausible, and in support of which a great deal might be said; but we doubt if it is not more plausible than sound. Undeniably it is true that neither of the two great parties is at present satisfying that minority of thoughtful people whom eventually a party must satisfy if it is to continue in power. The Democratic party, it is evident, now inspires no one with confidence, and appears daily to have less and less faith in itself. Its last State Convention, in Michigan, expressly declared the other day that in the judgment of the delegates a new organization has become necessary. Its principal Congressional leaders are reported to be conferring with former political opponents as to the best method of uniting under some new name, or on some new platform, the elements of opposition to the so-called Republican party. In a State so Democratic as New Hampshire, the Democratic voters, though they might have been supposed to be encouraged by the exposures of Republican corruption, in which one of their own local political enemies, Mr. Patterson, was deeply involved, staid away from the polls last month in great numbers, and gave two of their Congressional seats to the Republicans. Looking West, then, or East, or to Washington, an observer may well think himself justified in predicting that, so far as the Democracy, at any rate, are concerned, it is not upon "measures" such as those with which that party has been occupied of late years that American politics are to turn in the immediate future. But is it to be Democratic "men," as those have been recently known to us? The question answers itself.

As for the Republicans, not to go back to the Cincinnati movement, which, though abortive at last was once threatening, there is no doubt that, despite the Republican party's success in the last of our quadrennial elections, it no longer inspires enthusiasm, and has lost the confidence of a large part of the thinking minority of the country. As in the case of the Democracy, the recent election in New Hampshire is a proof of this; and evidence of the same purport is to be found in the local elections in this State and in Connecticut. But, indeed, specific proofs are not needed. It is self-evident that among a people like ours the revelations of legislative corruption that have been made at Washington, the various disclosures of bribery, public robbery, and centralizing violence, must have disgusted multitudes of persons who care for public decency and do not care for office. No reasonably intelligent man need do more than speak of these things to two of his intelligent and reasonable neighbors in order to find that there are at least three men of his acquaintance seriously beginning to ask, "Who will show us any good" in politics, and what shall be done to bring the present state of affairs to an end, or to some hope of an end? "We Republicans have abolished slavery," they say, "and the *World* and the Democratic platforms all over the country pronounce that result of the war 'a great and unquestionable boon, the moral and material effects of which could hardly be overestimated,' or at least a result which has been acquiesced in, and to overthrow which is a physical and moral impossibility; we have established the equality of all men before the law; we have prevented the dissolution of the Union. All these things we have done, and done so thoroughly that we really have more fear of the negro's becoming a shameful and costly tyrant in South Carolina than of our ever being compelled to liberate him again from slavery, and have more to dread from Judge Durell and his United States troops in Louisiana than from another John Slidell and a new unfurling of the Pelican flag. Everywhere in the South we see rather more danger of black than of white contempt for law and order, more of fraud that disgraces the American name than of violence of which the African and the loyalist have any apprehension." In spite, then, of the almost military organization of the so-called Republican party, in spite of its regimental rolls in every town and its company roll in every school district, and in spite of the money with which the great corporations and the professional office-holders keep its army-chest overflowing, there are plenty of indications that, so far as the Republicans are concerned, it is not the "measures" with which that party has occupied itself for the past twelve years upon which future American politics are to turn. And if not the party's "measures," surely not the party's men, if one considers for a moment what men are in the party and controlling it, and what men, formerly its founders and leaders, are out. "Republicanism," esoterically understood, every day comes more and more to "mean 'biz,'" as the slang of the street goes. That is to say, the party machinery is now worked for the aggrandizement of a certain small number of persons who make politics a profession, and for the pecuniary benefit of a certain other small number of persons who hire and keep politicians, or who go into politics themselves for the purpose of legislating money into their own pockets. Witness Oakes Ames working "for his own hand" in Congress, and Twichell—two of many.

But is the great body of the people, forsaking old "measures," going to seek out "men," selecting them because of the goodness of their characters merely, and elevate them into office, as some of us believe? Everybody knows that the people is well enough disposed to do so, if it knew exactly how to get its will carried into action. It is, sure enough, axiomatic that the people prefers honesty in its public servants; that it neither wants to steal public money, railroads, and public lands itself, nor to let its Congressmen and collectors steal them; that it has no liking for monopolies; and that in all ways it prefers public virtue and efficient service to incompetency and dishonesty; but it is equally axiomatic that the people finds it difficult to make effective its desires in these respects. That is a matter which is not settled when it is shown, never so clearly, that the country has been for years and still is a long way from being satisfied with one of the two great political parties, and begins to be greatly disgusted with the other. We ourselves suppose that the cure which begins to be sought will be accompanied by the substitution of another set of men for the men who now control the Republican organization, and that of the new leaders some will be men who have been Democrats and some Republicans; but we believe, furthermore, that the substitution will be not merely a change of men but a change to men selected by new criteria, and that these criteria will be supplied by a new platform of principles. In other words, we believe it is to be new "measures" most certainly, as well as new men. The new order, when it comes, will assuredly be found to have come in part, indeed, because of the aroused moral thoughtfulness which has often been so potent in our politics, and which is at the moment strongly moved, but which it is always difficult to focus, so to speak. We may as well "doubt truth to be a liar" as doubt that there are many thousands and tens of thousands of voters who are to-day contemplating the latter-day saints and statesmen of the party in power with a sincere contempt, which bodes ill to somebody sooner or later. But, as we have said, this is a feeling which only after some time and labor organizes itself for political activity, and to be very useful it must crystallize "measures."

What the new measures are to be and how soon they are to be triumphant, or how soon they are to begin making an appearance of any formidableness in practical politics, it would be hard to say; but some indications, or what we take to be such, are already here and there visible, and of these as significant as any is this following resolution, which was passed on the sixteenth of last month by a company of very indignant Illinois farmers. The measure it appears to point at very directly is that known as free trade, although what the Earlville farmers, and indeed the farmers throughout the entire central West, are specifically enraged about, is the fact that the corn for which they get about 20 cents a bushel is sold in New York for about 67, the forty-odd cents being used up in paying transportation charges:

"We insist that the duty on iron, steel, leather, lumber, woollens, tin, railroad rails, plush, velvet, and all material used in building railroads, engines, cars, and steamships, ought to be at once repealed; that the interests of the laborers and artisans of Pennsylvania and New England, as

well as the farmers of the West, require absolute free trade in these materials; that it is quite as essential that such materials shall be imported free of duty as that railroads should obey the laws; that free trade would enable the railroads to make a tariff of prices conformable to law."

From demanding a repeal of the taxes and materials entering into the construction of railroads and railroad cars, the step is not a long one to demanding the repeal of taxes that compel the farmer and mechanic to pay toll on every article that he uses—from his hoe and his molasses to the bunting that patriotically flies from his Town-hall on Fourth-of-July days—and to pay it for the most part into the pockets of a few thousands of ingenious fellow-citizens whose prosperity and wealth are nothing to him, except indeed as they increase his poverty. And if once the farming classes come to see that their natural though unwitting and unwilling enemy is not the railroad owner or the railroad maker alone, but every man who is engaged in business with the United States as a partner in the firm—and a partner whose share of the funds invested came out of the taxpayer's pocket—we shall have a political "measure" in the field which will forthwith produce a greater number of clean Congressmen than we should be likely to see were every caucus manager in the thirty-seven States to set about selecting pure men for the Syracuse saltmakers to buy and sell, or swap off for men bought by the Rhode Island calico printers.

The same resolutions which point to this step of progress imply, as does the agitation of which the resolutions are a product, that another measure which may speedily make its advent into the political field is a measure restraining and curtailing the power of the great corporations, railroad and other. We suppose we do not overstate the case when we say that not a single new railroad enterprise of any magnitude has been set on foot of late years without the commission of penitentiary offences, in the way of giving and taking bribes by corporators and members of the State and National Legislatures. "We bought them," a railroad director said of a recent Arkansas Legislature, when he was asked how the members came to consent to an enactment particularly favorable to the shareholder who asked the question. And a committee which the other day made its report to a Missouri company remarked with some feeling that the expenses of procuring a charter might seem great, but they assured the stockholders that "your committee" had never before done so much work and so much dirty work—(buying up a "Radical Legislature" which did not care to incorporate a conservative corporation anyhow)—and hoped and intended never, if they could help it, to act as "your committee" again for anybody. They really showed heartfelt disgust, and perhaps may be safely counted on for a new measure which shall help to give the country new men.

Revenue reform; economy in the disposal of public lands, which our bribed Congressmen and careless Congressmen fling about by provinces or indeed by kingdoms; civil-service reform; a cessation of the war policy of strengthening our two national houses of legislation at the expense of every local legislature, and a return to our traditional policy; an equalization of the burdens of taxation—these are some new measures to which we suspect the country looks with a daily increasing suspicion that only by the adoption of some such policy as they indicate shall we get the new men whom there is general confession, outside of South Bend and North Easton, that we need. How the desired changes are to be effected, and how soon, are questions which will bear pondering by everybody who thinks that we have been wandering in dangerous paths. That the persons who are satisfied with things as they are will not fail to attend to the matter we may be perfectly sure. There is not a saltmaker or a quinine importer in the country who does not thoroughly understand both branches of his business—the home branch and the Washington.

SHALL THE CABINET HAVE SEATS IN CONGRESS?

MR. GAMALIEL BRADFORD, a gentleman who has given a good deal of attention to what may be called "systematic politics," has recently delivered a lecture in Boston in which he has painted in black but true colors some evils of our existing politics. "It is not to be denied," he says, "that men are beginning to hesitate as they speak of ours as the best government the world ever saw." On all hands the most urgent demands are made for reform in the civil service, in the tariff, in the currency, in the government of the South, in the management of corporations, and in special legislation. Year after year the public and the press reiterate these demands, yet session after session of Congress, six months at a time, is passed in buncombe speeches and personal abuse, and each year business is resumed at precisely the same point, and given up with the same absence of progress. Between this condition of the public business and the "committee system" of legislation, Mr. Bradford easily traces a connection. The mainspring of the action of the framers of the American Constitution was "dread of executive power." In their dread of executive power, they determined to place all legislative authority in the hands of the popular representatives. As soon as the popular representatives discovered the vast proportions which their work was likely to assume, they began to assign to standing committees different classes of subjects, and to establish the rule that no business should be considered without having passed the proper committee. These committees practically sit in secret, for the country knows nothing of what they are doing. Mr. Bradford might have added that a body of ten or twelve men is so compact and so easily managed, that even when it nominally holds nothing but public sessions, it may in a dozen private ways—conversations in hotel parlors, quiet walks in the country, casual meetings at dinner—arrive at conclusions on which its public deliberations throw no light. What is the result? A dozen men, appointed on a committee from their acquaintance with—that is to say, from their private interest in—the special subject, sitting in secret, dictate what measures shall and what shall not be passed by the National Legislature. Meanwhile, the thing is made worse by the total absence of definite responsibility. Committees are not responsible, because it is Congress, and not the committees, by which bills are passed. Congress is not responsible, because it has not time to examine into the merits of three or four thousand bills at each session, and has entrusted this work to the committees; and the Executive cannot be held responsible for laws which it had no hand in making. "Such complete chaos and confusion are fatal to intelligent and systematic legislation."

Mr. Bradford then goes on to enquire "what are the springs of action in the committees." The members, he says, have a "direct and strong local" but "very feeble national interest." Most of them, too, having an interest in the business before other committees, there is a strong temptation to "trade."

> "Again, as the business of committees is to suit the Houses rather than the public (for the Speaker, who is chosen by the House, has the appointment of committees), their reports are much more likely to be made acceptable to those bodies than with a view to their effect upon the national interest. Real debate in the House has been suppressed, and in the Senate amounts to nothing. The basis of legislation having been arranged in committee, no individual is strong enough to create effective opposition in the Houses, while all are freed from responsibility by following committee reports. There is no one who is bound by his position or interest to look after the national interest, or who, from a position of authority, can appeal to the nation against private or local jobs. In the matters of private interest, votes are secured by lobbying or trading; in those of public, by party whipping-in."

While this is the condition of the Legislature, what is that of the Executive? Absolute impotence. The President is powerless even to appoint a cabinet according to his own notions of public duty, being compelled by force of party tradition to distribute the cabinet offices geographically, giving one to New England, one or two to the Middle States, and so on. His enormous patronage in the civil service, too, is really nil, because his appointments are made for him by the local Congressman or Senator. To sum up the whole, we have the political power of the country lodged in the hands of an irresponsible Congress, elected by office-holders, to whom they are bound; the President who appoints these office-holders, under the thumb of the Congressional majority. In this vicious circle American politics revolves. "Thinking men look aghast at each other as they talk of these things, asking what they lead to in the future."

That these are serious evils no one will deny. The question is how to remedy them. Mr. Bradford thinks that the true way is to give cabinet ministers seats in Congress. His idea is that by this means we can secure what is so much needed, "national representation"—that is, the presence of an able body of men devoted not to the interests of a particular district or State, but to those of the nation at large:

"Suppose," he says, "that a Secretary of the Treasury were to bring in a comprehensive and detailed scheme for the management of the finances and the tariff, and for the reform of the civil service, the Secretary of the Interior for the mode of treatment of the Southern States, the Secretary of State for the reform of the diplomatic service, the Secretary of the Navy for the restoration and improvement of our shipping, the Postmaster-General for the management of the telegraphs—the attention of the country would at once be arrested. And if these plans were conceived, as they would naturally be, from a national point of view as against private and local interests, it is safe to say they would meet a response from the country which would require Congressmen to appear before their constituents in a very different attitude from anything which we now see."

Continuity in legislation would also be gained by the constant presence of the Executive; another advantage would be that the "constant test of individual ability would develop prominent candidates for high executive office," and still another, the improvement of "the tone of Congressional debate." We should also have increased administrative responsibility, and at the same time a more effective opposition. The opposition could interrogate the Government on important public questions, and in most cases force them to answer. This would prevent such a disgraceful business as that of the legal-tender decision, in which the Chief-Justice of the United States, having originally, as Secretary of the Treasury, secured the passage of the law on the ground that it was necessary for the suppression of the rebellion, upset it on the ground that it was unnecessary.

These are the chief advantages which Mr. Bradford thinks are certain to flow from the adoption of the English plan of giving cabinet ministers seats in Congress, and certainly if there is any chance that we can achieve them so easily, it is well to begin to look into the matter at once. We do not ourselves believe that the change proposed would produce any sensible alteration in our condition, for the following reasons:

In the first place, the scheme is by no means radical enough. If we wish to introduce the English system of a "responsible ministry," we must not only give Messrs. Richardson, Fish, Creswell, and the rest seats in Congress, we must also establish a rule that if the policy they advocate become obnoxious to the majority, they must resign, and the President must select advisers from the majority. To give them seats, and nothing more, would, instead of giving them power and influence, merely subject them to a series of "interpellations" of all sorts, which, if the Government were compelled to answer, could lead to nothing except a further debilitation of the executive power, and which, if the Government did not answer, would lead to nothing at all. Suppose that during the rebellion the Secretary of War had had a seat in Congress, and been forced to reply publicly to questions relating to the position of troops or the condition of the Quartermaster's Department, can any one doubt that the difficulty of carrying on the war would have been increased tenfold? It is to be observed that his presence in Congress would not have given him a particle of voting power. He would only have been able to explain his policy, and explaining one's policy in public is not exactly the thing which leads a war to a successful issue. Again, what would have been the result if Mr. Fish, during the very delicate negotiations that resulted in the Treaty of Washington, had been daily interpellated as to the progress of the negotiations? We may be pretty sure that with the inflamed state of feeling on the subject there would have been no Treaty of Washington.

In fact, this plan, which aims at securing both power and responsibility for the Executive, secures, if anything, responsibility alone. To take Mr. Bradford's own case, let us suppose Mr. William A. Richardson, or, not to trifle with serious subjects, Mr. Richardson's improved successor, were "to bring in a comprehensive and detailed scheme for the management of the finances and the tariff, and for the reform of the civil service," what would he do with it more than he can now do in cases where the majority are opposed to him? for, of course, where the majority are on his side he has no need to do more than have it put to a vote by the chairman of the committee of ways and means. He could explain it, but if his explanations proved disagreeable to the majority, what does Mr. Bradford suppose the majority would do? Listen to them? On the contrary, they would do just what they would do with any one whose opinions are disagreeable—move the "previous question." We have not heard much of the previous question lately, merely because the times are not so hot as they were a few years since, but we may be sure we should hear of it very soon and very often if the cabinet had seats in Congress.

Again, there is this serious objection to the proposed panacea that, instead of being a natural growth of the American system, it is an attempted graft from a foreign stock, grown under entirely different conditions, which may or may not "take." The English ministry was not a shrewd invention of constitution-makers. It is a branch of the government which is unknown to English law, and which gradually acquired power and responsibility with the decline of the royal prerogative and the increase of the power of the House of Commons. The veto power having gone long ago, patronage having disappeared with the reform of the civil service, and foreign affairs having of late, through the "non-interference policy" of recent governments, been reduced to a minimum of importance, the only real power is centred in the House of Commons. But the House of Commons cannot govern the British Empire directly, and it therefore selects out of the ablest of its majority for the time a number of men to do its governing for it. These delegates perform the executive functions which in theory belong to the crown, the king or queen being in reality a mere dummy. Meantime, the elections, or other causes, reverse the majority in the House of Commons, and the new majority chooses (not of course by ballot, but by the voice of public opinion) a new executive.

What is this all but that same "government by committee" to which Mr. Bradford so vehemently objects? All late English constitutional writers speak of the English ministry as a "committee" of the House of Commons, and a committee it undoubtedly is, though the process of selection is peculiar. As a government by committee it works well enough; but why any one should suppose it would work if the ministry were really appointed by the crown, and had seats only in the Lower House, we cannot understand.

The essential feature of the English system is that the ministry is forced to go out of office whenever the legislative majority thinks best that it should. To import the system without this part of it is to import a mere name. In the same way, the reason why the "interpellation" of the ministry by members succeeds in England is that the ministers know that if they persistently decline information on the subjects enquired into, they daily offend more and more members, and at last find a hostile majority. The information they furnish is one of their means of keeping alive public confidence in themselves. But suppose that Mr. Richardson has a seat in the House, and Mr. Dawes rises to enquire what the Government proposes to do about the legal-tender reserve, and whether the rumors are true that the whole amount is to be reissued, all Mr. Richardson would be obliged to do would be to say either that the interest of the public service made it impossible to answer, or he might, if he pleased, deliver an oration on the subject; or, for that matter, he might signify his opinion of the interpellation by appropriate gestures of contempt and derision. Whatever he did, no immediate practical consequences would follow; he would not lose his seat. There has been, by the way, during the recent controversy over the reissue of greenbacks, just as much publicity given to the position of the Government as if Mr. Boutwell himself had appeared on the floor of Congress—first through the newspapers, second through the report of the Senate Finance Committee. So far from this publicity producing the reforming effects which Mr. Bradford would lead us to expect, Mr. Richardson goes on issuing greenbacks as if not a single word had been said.

In conclusion, let us say that the results of the experiment of representative democracy in the three countries in which it has been tried all seem to point to government by committee as one of the inevitable consequences. In France it came almost at once; in England and America it has come more slowly. The first result of the democratization of a country is to throw all the power of government into the hands of the people's representatives, who redistribute it among smaller bodies of their own selection. The executive is shorn of its power, and perhaps, as in this country, the judiciary also. The next step—which we have taken—is to throw the patronage into the hands of the representatives, and the result of this is to throw the power of the government into the hands of secret caucuses of officeholders, municipal rings, and custom-house gangs. To suppose that the mighty social forces which produce such changes as these can be affected by giving cabinet ministers the opportunity of making a few Congressional speeches, seems to us very like supposing that the geological forces which gradually crumble down lofty mountains could be modified by the planting of a few high trees on their tops.

LAW REPORTS AND REPORTING.

THE Bar Association of this city has resolved that the present system of preparing, editing, and publishing reports of judicial decisions in this State requires amendment. It is only astonishing that the matter has been allowed to drift until this time, and that the lawyers of this State have been content to sleep upon a subject which so closely concerns themselves. The fact is a fresh illustration of the want of unity and power in the American bar. More than fifteen years ago, the subject of reform in law reporting engaged the attention of the bar of England, and it is now about eight years since a radical change was effected and a comprehensive and satisfactory system adopted. Furthermore, there is no country in the world where lawyers have to buy so many reports as in the State of New York, nor where a volume of reports contains so little law. The expenditure, therefore, of money in acquiring the books, and of time in examining them, constitutes an extraordinary burden, both injurious to the individual and prejudicial to the administration of justice.

There are now seven series of New York reports published yearly. But the evil by no means stops here. There are three series of United States reports, and there are thirty-six other States each with its one or more volumes of reports per annum. The New York lawyer is not expected to add all of these State reports to his library; but nevertheless the business relations of New York with the other States are constant and close, and though he may not buy he must sometimes examine, and then comes the expenditure of that which is more precious than money, time. The immense mass of matter and rubbish bound up in these books necessarily requires analysis, which comes in the shape of railroad cases, criminal cases, leading cases, annotated codes, etc., etc. We may also note here illustratively that the Code of Procedure was adopted to simplify practice, and yet there were never such volumes of practice reports required before as there have been since; and there is not, we believe, in the world a statute so embellished and re-embellished with explanatory and constructive decisions as this same code which, it was expected, "would make every man his own lawyer." The evil also spreads in another direction; for innumerable reports require a further analysis and give rise to "new elementary works." Modern elementary works are little more than statements of what modern courts have decided, and each author regards his hundreds of "authorities" as the highest evidence of his diligent research. In the course of a few years, though the "text" of these books remains substantially the same, the "notes" become greatly amplified, and the active practitioner must buy new editions merely to procure new lists of latest authorities. Finally, let it be noted that the modern reporter is usually a professional bookmaker. His highest idea of his work is that it shall be "complete"; that is, that he shall have gathered into his net all the fish, big and little, which floated in his legal current. It is also for his self-interest to make as many volumes as possible; for ordinarily he is paid by the volume. If he can swell the decisions of a single year into two volumes instead of one, he is like another man doubling the products of his own industry—that is to say, he doubles his annual income.

These being some of the sources of the supply, it is desirable that some attention be given to the causes of the demand, for law reporting having become in one sense a mercantile pursuit, it is governed by the well-known mercantile rule for demand and supply. In the first place, our modern practice of having cheap judges has given us for judges lawyers who were not at the head of their profession, and this want of ability we aggravate by want of stability and experience. The modern American judge has manifestly felt the want of authorities. In the early English cases, every position is usually fortified by a reason. Where it is said that "in Plympton's case it was holden" thus and so, it is pretty surely followed by "because," etc., etc. But in our modern cases the judge seems to feel that his unsupported enunciation of the law will have little weight with anybody, and in the stead of reasons he fortifies his position with authorities. Our lawyers, too, have learnt the necessity of having authorities for everything. It is not the fondness of displaying their erudition that leads them to elaborate the simplest "points," but experience, which teaches them that they can never tell when or where the knowledge of an inexperienced second-class judge will give out. It is said that Lord Cairns and Lord Selborne (Sir Roundell Palmer) when they were at the bar have been known to argue the law points of a case six hours without citing a single authority. But we have now before us a printed brief of an American lawyer who cites more than fifty cases upon one point and more than sixty upon another, each point being nothing more than a statement of an elementary principle of law. A third demand for authorities is occasioned by the fashion into which American judges have universally fallen of writing voluminous opinions. Instead of saying that a case presents only a couple of points, and that such an authority disposes of the one, and some other authority of the other, they proceed to write a history of the case, and an essay upon the law, half the time ending with the conclusion that every point has been determined by previous decisions. It is also clear that our modern custom of having printed briefs has occasioned a great demand for authorities. Modern English practice has been so simplified that printing papers is unnecessary, and at this time there are no papers printed in any law court in England short of the House of Lords. With us the printing of papers in all of the courts of this country must have an enormous sum total, to say nothing of the great expenditure of time as well as money which printing always involves. A lawyer who has to print his points generally puts as many authorities after each as he can find, caring very little apparently about the courts from which they are gathered, and feeling pretty confident of his case if he can largely outnumber his opponent.

The business of law reporting, or rather the control of it, should be transferred from professional bookmakers, and from the judiciary to the bar, who are primarily and chiefly interested in it. The first advantage will undoubtedly be a reduction in the number of the reports. But there are other advantages which we think will be found equally important. The Bar Association should not only seek to reduce the quantity of reported matter, but to improve its quality. To understand this, it is necessary only to compare modern reports with old ones and to contrast present reporters with their predecessors.

The early common-law reports were merely notes of cases written out by eminent and industrious lawyers for their own use, which, having been copied and passed from hand to hand, finally (and generally after their author's death) came to be printed and published. In the progress of events reporting grew into something resembling a system, but it remained in the hands of learned lawyers whose reputation gave character to their reports. Of late years this has changed, and reporting has passed into what may be termed official hands, and the character of the reporter has measurably fallen. If the present reporter is not a mere bookmaker, he is pretty sure to be the mere agent of the judges. The earlier reporters were men of such legal ability that they could authoritatively point out in what particular a case was new, what fresh ground it occupied, and what novel point it determined. They also had that power of analysis—as every successful lawyer must—which enabled them to extract and state in their syllabus the legal principle involved in the case, and to classify it in their index under the title to which it properly belonged, and in a practical manner, which would enable other working lawyers to find it when they wanted it. The present reporter is rarely a working lawyer. His business is principally to display all the learning and eloquence of the court. His syllabus bears little reference to the facts of the case—to the actual legal point decided, but is made up of condensed quotations from the opinions. His knowledge does not enable him to say that this case is in accordance with a former case, or irreconcilable with a third one; and if he should say so, his standing is not sufficient to give weight to his criticism. Being merely the court's organ of publication, he cannot exercise the further analysis of rejecting, for he is employed to publish everything that the judges desire to see in print. When he comes to his index, he lacks that practical knowledge which actual practice only gives, and places cases where they do not really belong, and varies their position, so that precisely similar cases appear one year under one title and the next year under another. Thus, when the Court of Appeals was established, an able lawyer, Judge Com

stock, was appointed reporter. He was followed by another able lawyer, Judge Selden, and by a third, Mr. Kernan. Upon the next vacancy happening, a very able lawyer, Judge Potter of Schenectady, was recommended by the bar, and, if we are not misinformed, would have accepted. But a young and unknown lawyer, Mr. E. Peshine Smith, since become somewhat famous as the legal adviser whom the State Department commended to the Government of Japan, was preferred by the judges of that court. It is needless to say that such a reporter is a mere clerk of the judges, and that his selection by them exempts their work from everything in the way of rejection or criticism.

We are aware that there are certain disadvantages in assigning the reporting to lawyers in full practice. The reporter has more or less access to the judges, and more or less knowledge of their deliberations, and may procure or be supposed to procure certain advantages over other members of the bar. His time being pretty well occupied with his own practice, he cannot carry along the publication with the promptitude of a man who has nothing else to do. His time being valuable, he will probably leave the details to his students. There is in the index of one of Chitty's works the title "Great Mind." Referring to the page cited, it will be found that Lord Eldon or some other judge said in the course of an opinion: "I have a great mind to order" thus and so. The eminent author, who was somewhat of a professional bookmaker, handed over the indexing of his works to his students, and one ingenious young gentleman thus extracted the legal principle of Lord Eldon's decision. But all of these disadvantages do not warrant the abandonment of law reporting to incompetent persons. The present English system seems to combine the advantages of our earlier and our later systems. It consists of a council of the most eminent members of the bar to direct and control, with competent assistants to carry out and execute. The working details of the system can readily be procured, with doubtless practical suggestions. If it can be put into successful operation in this State, it may not only accomplish its immediate objects, but do much toward securing the unity of the bar, and arousing members of the profession to the proper assertion of its dignity and of the dignity and purity of the judiciary. As was recently said by Mr. Justice Blackburn of the Court of Queen's Bench (see *Nation*, No. 383, p. 277): "The only real, practical check on the judiciary is the habitual respect which they all pay to what is called 'the opinion of the profession.' And the same powerful body forms a real and the principal check on the abuse of patronage by the Government." Whenever the American bar shall be aroused from its condition of apathy to the active exercise of the latent influence which it undoubtedly possesses, the movement will be found, we think, to the advantage of the public and the judiciary, as well as of the profession.

MADEMOISELLE DE SCUDERY.

PARIS, March 14.

WHAT the French call *esprit de société* is only imperfectly translated by the word sociability, inasmuch as sociability is an attribute of all mankind, while the habits and instincts which form the *esprit de société* may be called essentially French. All the books which can give an insight into the formation and development of this spirit have for a Frenchman a peculiar charm, and have almost, for a foreigner, a historical interest. Mademoiselle de Scudéry, for instance, may be said to belong to French history; and I do not hesitate to recommend to your readers the beautiful volume just published on her life by MM. Rathery and Boutron. The name of Scudéry had for a long time fallen almost into disgrace since Boileau in his satires had criticised the novels of the 'Grand Cyrus' school. Cousin, in his enthusiasm for the *grand siècle*, was almost the first who tried to rehabilitate (to use a modern expression) the novels which had charmed the remarkable men and women of Louis XIII.'s and of Louis XIV.'s reign. But he did not undertake the biography of the Scudérys. Mademoiselle de Scudéry will ever be connected with her brother. They were both born at Havre, and were very young when their parents died. Madeleine de Scudéry was educated by an uncle. Conrart in his memoirs (it is the same Conrart of whom Boileau said:

"J'imite de Conrart le silence prudent")

gives an account of her education, which shows that girls at that time were not only very well read, but learned gardening, cooking, the fabrication of many remedies, perfumes, etc. Madeleine learned also the Spanish and Italian languages, which had become very fashionable since the kings had married Princesses of Medicis and of the house of Spain. The novels she read were 'Théagène et Chariclée' and especially the 'Astrée,' which seems so unreadable now, but which she still perused at the age of ninety-two years, so powerful are the impressions of youth. Her brother George entered the army and could write afterwards: "I can better put soldiers in order than words, and better square battalions than periods." He left the army after several years, and began to write plays for the theatre. There is some force in his verses, but an uncontrolled force and a perpetual grandiloquence, as well as *preciosity* (I must here refer to the 'Précieuses ridicules' of Molière, as I cannot find an adequate word for the literary character of Scudéry's works).

Mademoiselle came to join her brother in Paris, and they not only lived but wrote together. The sister became, so to speak, the corrector of the brother's bad taste. She was very plain, as is well shown in the portrait annexed to the present work, and set up not as a coquette, as a Célimène, but as a *précieuse*. She was admitted to the famous Hôtel de Rambouillet. Roederer in his admirable work, now so rare, on the *Société polie*, says that she was accepted less as an author than as a well-bred girl, sister of a well-known literary man, and also as a person not well favored by fortune. This is a not small eulogium, and shows that there was nothing vulgar in a society which was so full of consideration for well-bred poverty. In her correspondence we see that this poor and ugly girl entered into close acquaintance with Chapelain, Balzac, who were the literary grandees of the time, with the Duc de Montausier, with Madame de Sablé, Madame de Motteville, Madame de Clermont, etc. In 1642, Scudéry obtained through the Marchioness of Rambouillet the government of Notre Dame de la Garde of Marseilles, a small fort built over the old port of Marseilles. It was very hard to leave the agreeable society of the Hôtel Rambouillet. The journey was long and seemed at that time almost an enterprise. Such was already the absorbing character of Paris that Mademoiselle de Scudéry felt in exile, like Ovid away from Rome, and she finds only, she says, in Marseilles, six or seven ladies who speak French, which means probably that they did not speak at Marseilles the jargon of the *précieuses*. Her friends in Paris missed her also, and tried at one time to make of her a governess for the three handsome nieces of Cardinal Mazarin, just arrived from Italy, but the place was given to the Marquise de Senecey.

Madeleine and George returned, however, to Paris after three years of absence. George was named a member of the French Academy, and his sister continued to live with him. During the Fronde they both sided with the "Grand Condé" and the Duchesse de Longueville. Condé and the Duchess were indeed the heroes of the 'Grand Cyrus,' which had appeared (1649–1653) in ten volumes or numbers. Cyrus was the conqueror of Rocroy and Lens; his sister the fair Mandane; all the beauties of the Court were described as inhabitants of Ecbatana, of Sardis, of Babylon; the Hôtel Rambouillet was the palace of Cléomire. There is in all ages a peculiar local color, applied to all works of art. The eulogies on the generals or the beauties of the Fronde would have seemed in bad taste if their names had been given; the fantastic oriental names gave more delicacy to the praise, and, the conventionality once accepted, the interest of the novel seemed quite as great. I have once in my life seen a tragedy of Racines, performed as it was under Louis XIV.: the Roman ladies wore hoops and powder; the Romans had perruques. It is wonderful how quickly the mind accepts this false local color; it seemed to me even that the attention being more forcibly turned on the thoughts and the verses, the literary pleasure was more intense. The 'Grand Cyrus' was really the mirror of the best society of the time—of a society which had still something heroic, but which, after the troubles of the civil war, was entering on the great reign of Louis XIV. So much beauty, and genius, and wit was perhaps never condensed at the same time and in the same country; the Corneillian spirit still animated a society which had not felt the weight of a long oppression. It is hardly possible now to read the 'Cyrus' as a novel. The story, as we commonly say, is nothing; but the drawing of the characters is like those beautiful outlines left by the great masters: the style is often *outré*, but it has a solidity, a robust force, which marks a really great period. M. Cousin will have it that George composed the story, the incidents, and that Madeleine wrote the long sentimental and intellectual disquisitions, which are the only merit of the work. I am rather inclined to adopt this view.

Mlle. de Scudéry made the acquaintance of Pellisson, and they became soon engaged in what would be called now a flirtation; it was not love, but it often appeared like love; there was to be no dénouement to it of any kind. This sort of mixture of love and friendship, or platonic love, was quite the fashion in the society of the *précieuses*. M. de Scudéry, herself giving the definition of this sentiment, says that "love and friendship mix like two rivers, the more famous of which takes away the name of the other." I must confess to a certain partiality for this sentiment, and I doubt if it is much to the credit of our present society to hear it often ridiculed and even denied. A passionate friendship between a man and a woman was in those days recognized and respected, and had nothing to fear from calumny. Mademoiselle received her friends every Saturday, and her friends were expected to come without being invited. It is only under such conditions,

which to a certain extent still exist in Paris, that a real society can be formed; not in costly routs and gorgeous balls, which are merely theatrical. The rooms of Mademoiselle de Scudéry were in the rue du Temple and very simple; there was a small garden attached to the house; all her friends knew her birds and her favorite cat.

The reputation of Scudéry was increasing. 'Artamène' and 'Clélie' had appeared. The Fronde was represented in the last novel, and the heroes which this time moved in Carthage and Rome were at once recognized by everybody. The famous *Carte du tendre* was drawn in the first volume. A wit of the time, speaking of this country of love delineated in all its details by Mlle. de Scudéry, said, "The virgin of the *Marais* has created a world and has left to others the trouble to people it." Mlle. de Scudéry had declared her intention never to marry. Her friend Pellisson was arrested at the same time as the famous Superintendent Fouquet and taken to the Bastille. At a time when it was not very safe to offend the Monarch, two women were found who never concealed their sympathies: Madame de Sévigné was faithful to Fouquet, Mlle. de Scudéry to Pellisson. The latter wrote a touching letter to Colbert in favor of her friend.

The comedies of Molière, the satires of Boileau, made a reaction against the literature of the *précieuses*. The Salon de Rambouillet had lost its principal luminaries, and the *Samedis* of Mlle. de Scudéry by degrees became less aristocratic, though she preserved some of her friends to the last. When George died, Mlle. de Scudéry remained alone, still loved and respected by the Condés, the Rambouillets, the Montausiers; but she became more solitary. Mazarin had left her a pension of 1,000 livres; Louis XIV. gave her one of two thousand; her novels did not sell so well as formerly, and her friends used to make her a present of some importance every year. Her last works are more interesting, perhaps, than the first for modern readers, especially the 'Conversations.' She lays it down as a rule that one of the necessities of conversation is the mixture of both sexes: "The most honest ladies in the world (*honest* in the language of the XVIIth century means cultured), when they are many together, say absolutely nothing which is worth anything, and are more *ennuyées* than if they were alone," an observation which has often been made to me by ladies in England who had waited after dinner for the return of the gentlemen. These small treatises contain also interesting chapters on letter-writing, on story-telling, etc., and nobody could be a better professor of these small arts of civilized life.

To a very old age Mlle. de Scudéry preserved the vigor of her mind. She was pious, though she never was a *dévote*. On the second of June (1703), in the morning, she got up and dressed as usual, though she had a cold and fever. As she stood in her room she felt very weak, and exclaimed: "I must die." She asked for a crucifix and kissed it. It was placed before her and she kept her eyes on it. Her confessor was not found, and a Capuchin came instead of him. She bade him "Give me, give me my Jesus," pressed the crucifix to her bosom, and died, aged ninety-four years.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. will shortly publish 'Betsy Lee: a Forecastle Yarn,' a dialect poem descriptive of Manx sailor and farm life.——D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, announce 'African Adventure and Adventurers,' edited by Rev. Geo. T. Day, D.D.

—Last fall we received from the U. S. Coast Survey Office some copies of their large-scale map of Newport and the beaches, exclusive of the Point, the map of which was then incomplete. Desiring to mention both together, we have delayed too long calling attention to the former as an experiment deserving of all encouragement and of the widest extension. What we have before us is an exact photolithographic transfer from the "plane table sheets" (No. 21) of the Survey, as made in the field, with only the distinctive marks for crops, etc., omitted, and without colors. In a space of about 21 x 28 inches we have set down, on a scale of six inches to a mile, the natural and municipal topography of Newport from Beacon Hill to Ochre Point (N. to S.), and from the end of Long Wharf to Flint Point (W. to E.). Not only is the coast line delineated with the greatest accuracy, and the inequalities of the island marked by lines of equal altitude for every twenty feet—sometimes for every ten—but every street and road, every estate, and every house is located with the same care, the whole making the most perfect record of the town for 1872 that science can produce. We spoke of this map as an experiment. It is such only as being the first effort of the Office to popularize its work. There are in the archives of the Survey many hundreds of maps on this scale, also made in the field, scrupulously exact and beautifully drawn. They represent an immense amount of labor and a large sum of money, and they have an everyday value which makes them eminently adapted for publication and local if not general distribution. Should the yearly topographical work of the Coast Survey be published in this style, it would amount to about 150 such sheets as this of Newport, and they could be issued within six months of the execution of the surveys. Their reproduction might strongly be urged on the ground that it would insure the preservation of maps of which but a single copy now exists. The Newport sheet is sold from the Office at Washington for fifty cents; and we hope that the native residents and the pleasure-seeking and summer sojourners of the place will create such a demand for it as may be found difficult to supply. We may add that the franking privilege being abolished, the Government could not do better than provide for the sale, nearly at cost, of its valuable publications in all departments. Doubtless some firm in Washington could be got to attend to the details of these transactions, as advertisers and forwarders to order.

—If the Crédit Mobilier investigation, and the Caldwell investigation, and the exposure of Pomeroy, and the New York Senate's dropping the investigation of Tweed as soon as he had resigned, have shown the baser uses to which money is put in this country, making all of us despair a little of the Republic, there is a world of encouragement in looking at the other side of the shield. The long list of those who merely in the past twenty-five years have manifested what we may almost call the American sense of the responsibility of riches—the Tappans, Astors, Peabodys, Coopers, Thayers, Sheffields, Vassars, Packers, Cornells, Stevensons, Simmonses, and Lenoxes (to select a few of the more prominent)—has since the opening of the year been signally increased. The generous givers just named are perhaps even outranked in munificence by Mr. Johns Hopkins, of Baltimore, whose public endowments, present and prospective, will amount to between four and five million dollars. A university with scholarships for the poor he has already taken steps to organize by the appointment of trustees, by the gift of his Clifton estate of four hundred acres, and by setting apart in his will for this object his entire interest in the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Still more recently—only last month in fact—he conveyed to other trustees two million dollars, with which to erect and maintain a hospital in the city of Baltimore for the indigent sick of the city and its environs "without regard to sex, age, or color"; a training-school for nurses in connection with it—these two institutions to form a part of the medical school of the future university; and in the country an orphans' home with accommodation for three or four hundred colored children, and due provision for their maintenance and education. These deeds speak for themselves, but it should be added that Mr. Hopkins's instructions are, like his intentions, of the most liberal character, and that he and every one of his trustees are Southern men by birth and life-long residence. Mr. John Anderson, of this city—to turn to our second illustration—has just given $50,000 and a small island, with buildings and other improvements, situated at the entrance to Buzzard's Bay, to Professor Agassiz for a normal school of natural history, to be held during the summer vacation as a branch of the Cambridge Museum. The endowment is so complete that the school will be opened in July with about fifty pupils of both sexes, who must be either professors, teachers, or persons fitting themselves to be teachers, and to whom no charge will be made for tuition. The corps of instructors in this novel experiment will be the *élite* of American scientists. Commodore Vanderbilt, too, apparently not unwilling to be Drew's rival in dispensing as in making money, has been giving liberally—more liberally perhaps than wisely—to sectarian seminaries in Tennessee and on Staten Island, parting it is said with a million of dollars. The University of California, under President Gilman's new régime, is also stimulating the generosity of the Pacific coast and receiving significant donations of land and money for professorships, books, collections, etc. And finally, as taking effect during the present year, we may allude to the late Edwin Forrest's foundation of a home for decayed actors in Philadelphia, in a park of sixty acres.

—Few people will recollect that in the death of ex-Senator James Dixon, of Connecticut, we lose an American author, but "he was a poetical writer of some repute" in his youthful days, says the Hartford *Courant*, "and is favorably mentioned in Griswold's 'Poets of Connecticut.'" It is as a politician, however, that he is generally known, and of his political career the passage which made him widely known to people outside Connecticut, and made a majority of those who knew of him disapprove of him, was his going over in 1865 from the Radical-Republican wing of the party to the small and unfortunate company who followed the fortunes of President Andrew Johnson. Mr. Cowan of Pennsylvania, Postmaster-General Randall of Wisconsin, General Dix, Mr. Raymond, Mr. Hugh McCulloch, Mr. Doolittle, and other Republicans were with Mr. Dixon in this new departure, and none of them, so far as we recollect, except General Dix, who,

indeed, was hardly to be called a Republican, had any political success afterwards. They mostly were politicians disposed to be a little timorous, and from this and other causes inclined naturally to conservative views. And whatever is the truth as regards the others of them, we do Mr. Dixon at least no injustice when we say that he was a politician of the sort that is expert in every art of political manipulation, and that is extremely shrewd and adroit in caucus, whether or not it is statesmanlike in the closet and on the Congressional floor. Mr. Dixon was by profession a public man. Born in 1814, he graduated at Williams College in 1834, immediately afterwards began studying law with his father, and was admitted to the bar at about the same time that he was sent to the Connecticut Legislature by his native town of Enfield, although Enfield was Democratic and he a Whig, and although he was but twenty-three years old. Practice at the bar he did not long continue, and the rest of his life was mainly spent in politics, first as a Whig, then successively as a Know-Nothing, a Republican of a conservative type, and a "Johnson man." In this latter capacity he attended the famous "arm-in-arm" convention; but he had at last miscalculated the temper of the people, and in the election following (1869) he was defeated for Congress in spite of receiving Democratic support. His death was the result of heart disease, aggravated by depression of spirits caused by the loss of his wife. Personally, Mr. Dixon is said to have been much liked for his good nature and his zeal in serving his friends.

—A word of honor is due to the memory of Mr. Charles Knight, a veteran Englishman of letters, who was born eighty-two years ago, and who died early last month. "Sixty years since" he was a bookseller in company with his father at Windsor, and at the same time, and until 1827, he was the printer of the *Windsor and Eton Express* and also of the *Etonian*, better known to fame. In 1820, Mr. Knight and a friend projected *The Plain English man*, and thus twelve years before the *Edinburgh Journal* of the Chambers Brothers was published, he made the attempt to "supply intellectual food of the best quality, in such a form and at such a price as to suit the convenience of every man in the British dominions." The success of the attempt was not equal to the goodness of its intention, and *The Plain Englishman* was dropped at the end of two years. Then came bookselling and publishing of a costlier kind, and in 1822, Mr. Knight, aided by the good-will of some of his old *Etonian* friends, set on foot *Knight's Quarterly Magazine*, in which appeared much good writing by Macaulay, Hare, Praed, Townshend, and other brilliant young men of that day. Ten years later came the well-known *Penny Magazine*, and sixteen years later the *Penny Cyclopædia*. It is said that Mr. Knight paid for original articles contributed to this Cyclopædia not less than £40,000. An English Cyclopædia in twenty-two volumes based on this last-mentioned work, a popular history of England designed to show the domestic life of the people rather than the annals of their kings and ministers, a life of Shakespeare, a three-volume autobiography, are a few of the books edited or composed by this indefatigable worker, who was in the field so late as 1866 with 'Half Hours with the Best Letter-Writers.' His last public appearance in London is said to have been at the dinner which was given to Dickens on the occasion of his leaving England for his second visit to this country.

—M. Amédée Thierry, the second French historian who has reflected honor on that surname, would have been seventy-six years old had he lived till the second of next August. He was the younger brother of the more famous Augustin Thierry—*l'Homère de l'histoire*, as he was styled by Chateaubriand, whose 'Martyres' first fired young Thierry with the ambition to write picturesque history, and who worked at it with such ardor as to earn in more ways than one Chateaubriand's encomium, for he became blind at the age of thirty-two, just after the publication of his history of 'The Norman Conquest of England.' Amédée, like Augustin, was destined for the profession of school-teaching, but he early destined himself for something else, and before he had attained maturity was already devoted to literary and historical pursuits. By the time he was thirty-one years old he had published various review articles of some importance, a 'Résumé de l'Histoire de Guyenne,' and the work on which his reputation still most securely rests —'L'Histoire des Gaulois.' This book secured him a professorship at Besançon, but he was soon suspended, his liberalism being too popular among the students and too much for the ministers of Charles X. After the revolution of 1830, Thierry was steadily in politics, and at the same time paid due attention to literature, and his latest publication was 'Saint Jerome, the Christian Society and Rome, and the Roman Emigration to the Holy Land,' which appeared as late as 1867. Besides the works above-mentioned M. Thierry published (1840–42) a continuation of his history of the Gauls and commentary on it entitled: 'L'Histoire de la Gaule sous l'Administration Romaine'; 'Récits et Nouveaux Récits de l'Histoire Romaine (1860–64)'; 'Tableaux de l'Empire Romain (1862)'; and 'L'Histoire d'Attila et de ses Successeurs' (1864; new edition). He was one of Louis Philippe's prefects, he was made a member of the Legion of Honor in 1846, was afterwards a commander, and was a senator of the Second Empire.

—The death of "La Guiccioli," which took place at Rome a week ago to-day, is the death of a famous woman, who, well as she preserved in her old age her enchanting beauty and her youthful spirits, was already out of the world. The mention of her will carry the mind back to the early years of this century, when she and her English lover were shocking the British public of the Prince Regent's time beyond its power of expression, and she was the successor in odium of Nelson's Lady Hamilton. There is little need of dwelling at any length on her well-known career. Born in 1801, a daughter of Count Gamba, of the Roman nobility, she was taken from her convent school at the age of eighteen to be married to a man of three times her years, and who had been twice a widower, the Count Guiccioli. In a very few months after (April, 1819), she first met Byron, and the connection between the two immediately began, and lasted, with brief intermissions of absence, till 1823, when he took his departure for Greece. As to the moral aspect of this alliance it is enough to point out that Ravenna and Venice, in 1819, were different in some respects from the Old or the New England of those days, or of these; and that the "custom of the country" should come in for a share of the reprehension which the Countess Guiccioli certainly never, in her lifetime, felt bearing very hard on her conscience. As this one more charmer passes away—

"Dust hath closed Helen's eye"

is pretty much the only lesson which will be drawn from her career with any unanimity in the various lands where she had been famous and infamous. In 1851, at the age of fifty, and the apparent age of a woman much younger, the Countess, still proud of her *liaison* with Byron, married, as her second husband, the Marquis de Boissy, a rabid hater of all things directly or indirectly connected with the English, except his *marquise*. This union lasted till 1866. The one child, "Allegra," which the Countess bore to Byron, died in infancy, and the principal memorial of their attachment is a very poor book published in 1869, and telling the public, in regard to Byron's affairs, nothing not known before. This was the book that called out all the Byron controversy of three years ago.

BAGEHOT'S PHYSICS AND POLITICS.*

MR. BAGEHOT is best described by the term in vogue during the last century. He is an "ingenious" author. Many writers on society or politics far surpass him in extent of information. Some few are his superior in downright logical force. He has not the power possessed, for example, by Mr. Greg, of clinching an argument and driving it home by a kind of brute strength. There are again one or two essayists who equal him in literary skill. But we know of no modern English theorist who comes near him in ingenuity, or the power of suggesting new thoughts on old subjects. If he is right in saying that the main characteristic of the best English minds is the quality of "animated moderation," then Mr. Bagehot belongs to the highest class of English writers. What he says of Shakespeare and Scott, that they "have this remarkable quality in common, this union of life with measure, of spirit with reasonableness," is singularly true of himself. Many of his conclusions are questionable. It is easy to pick holes in a good number of his arguments. But it is impossible to deny that he is a thinker whose thoughts are both reasonable and filled with a certain spirit, animation, or freshness often wanting to the speculations of men who make far greater pretensions to logical acuteness. The fact that he really presents his readers with thoughts, and often with very valuable thoughts, marks him off from the tribe of desultory essayists who, with Mr. Helps at their head, put forth a minimum of thought involved in a maximum of words, and reduce the greatest subjects of speculation to the level of small-talk. The fact on the other hand that his thoughts are not only valuable but fresh, distinguishes him from that very respectable class of writers of whom Mr. Greg may be taken as a favorable specimen. They have and deserve great weight with the public; but their power lies in systematically elaborating ideas which are the common property of educated men. They argue with great force from well-established premises. They impress on the public conclusions which the public are very likely to overlook. But they do not in general strike out new ideas, or present well-worn themes in a new point of view. This is exactly what Mr. Bagehot's freshness of mind (which is closely allied to his intense hatred of pomposity) enables him to achieve. He takes in hand, for example, the English Con-

* 'Physics and Politics; or, Thoughts on the Application of the Principles of Natural Selection and Inheritance to Political Society. By Walter Bagehot.' London: Henry S. King & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co.

stitution. The topic is one of which we might well suppose it was now impossible to say anything which was at once true and new. Mr. Bagehot, though well informed on constitutional subjects, does not possess a single piece of information which is not accessible to every educated Englishman who has read Hallam and knows the history of his country. Yet Mr. Bagehot no sooner applies himself to his subject than he throws upon it a mass of new light. He effects this result by examining English institutions as they actually exist. He thus at once sets aside a whole mass of fictions and formulas, lays his finger on the essential point of modern constitutional government, and makes apparent to the whole world that its essence is government by a committee of parliament really elected, though elected in a roundabout way, and capable of appealing from the decision of Parliament to the judgment of the nation. With the merits or demerits of his constitutional theories we are not at present concerned. His work on the constitution is marred by an excessive ingenuity, which degenerates into a kind of intellectual dodginess. We allude to it here simply as exemplifying his aptitude for presenting stale subjects in a fresh aspect. It is of consequence that this quality should be fully appreciated, for there exists a danger that Mr. Bagehot's literary skill, versatility, and veracity may conceal from the mass of readers his great intellectual merits as a political or historical theorist. This peril is specially great with regard to his last work. It would seem to be in a sense a fragment. It is certainly disconnected in form, and the most appreciative critics must confess that it is marred occasionally by a disconnection of thought. The ideas are not linked closely enough together. Each page teems with suggestions, yet it is difficult at times to trace the exact course of the author's speculations, and it is possible that some readers, charmed with the flow of bright and sparkling sentences, which contain now an exquisite criticism on Carlyle's style, now an amusing anecdote of Mr. Bagehot's boyhood, and now a vigorous picture of Lord Palmerston as a man who "always went with a great swing, but never tumbled over," may fancy that the stream of Mr. Bagehot's thoughts meanders on, but scarcely flows, in a definite direction. Nevertheless, any reader who fancies that our author is one of those loose thinkers who only care to make a series of brilliant remarks will do him grievous injustice, and miss the real import of the essay of 'Physics and Politics.' It is an attempt, and in some respects a successful as well as remarkable, attempt to answer a problem which must have perplexed every one who has turned his mind to the history of mankind. Why is it that while we see all about us signs of a progress which seems to be unceasing, and which most Europeans hold to be illimitable, we yet perceive that whole races and nations make no progress whatever? The Arabia of to-day seems in essential characteristics to be very much the Arabia of Abraham and Jacob. In China you see marks of former progress. You have an elaborate and most artificial civilization. But the growth of the nation appears arrested. What is it which, speaking roughly, makes the nations of Europe the scene of constantly progressive change, whilst the East stands stationary from century to century? No writer so reasonable as Mr. Bagehot would ever dream of answering adequately this most perplexing of enquiries in a short essay of two hundred and odd pages. What he does attempt is to suggest considerations which at any rate may prepare the way for the solution of the problem. His aim is to point out the road to be taken by enquirers, rather than himself to bring the enquiry to a close. His suggestions may in many respects be erroneous. In some points they are open to grave question. But they are the suggestions of a man of great fertility of mind, who is tied down by no theory, and has a singular capacity for looking facts in the face, and looking at them, moreover, through his own eyes, and not through other people's spectacles. It is of consequence that the ideas of such a man should not be lost. The best service we can do our readers is to summarize Mr. Bagehot's theory, and then point briefly to what appears to be its strength and its weakness.

Mr. Bagehot's first step, and it is a very characteristic and important one, is to place the problem before us in a new point of view. Most Englishmen enquire why it is that certain races or nations are stationary. The true enquiry is, in Mr. Bagehot's opinion, Under what influences have any nations made progress? Constant progress is, in other words, the exception, and not the rule. "The ancients," as he points out, "had no conception of progress. They did not so much as reject the idea; they did not even entertain the idea. Oriental nations are just the same now; since history began they have always been what they are. Savages, again, do not improve. They hardly seem to have the basis on which to build, much less the material to put up anything worth having. Only a few nations, and those of European origin, advance, and yet these think—seem irresistibly compelled to think—such advance to be inevitable, natural, eternal. Why, then, is this great contrast?"

Put the enquiry in this form, and you have already advanced some way towards answering it. The thought immediately suggests itself that even the most stationary of modern nations are not marked by any abnormal incapacity, but represent races who have advanced up to a certain point, and have been able to advance no further. All the existing classes of mankind, even the savages of Terra del Fuego, have, as Mr. Bagehot believes, got some way. The people who could not civilize at all have died out in the conflict for existence. That civilization originated in this conflict every one, we suspect, who is not tied down by some religious theory will now admit. Those nations, as Mr. Bagehot puts it, which in any particular state of the world are strongest, have tended to prevail over the others, and in certain marked peculiarities the strongest tend to be the best.

The problem, therefore, of progress is to determine what are the conditions which have made one nation or body of men tend to be stronger than another. Mr. Bagehot's essay in reality insists on two main conditions as determining this tendency.

The first is the possibility of obtaining some fixed rule or law of life. Any body of men, call it race, nation, or tribe, which obeys a law or rule, must have had, in our author's view—and in this point we conceive him to be indubitably in the right—an almost infinite advantage over any set of men not bound together by any rule or custom. The first and primary requisite, therefore, for progress was that men should obey a law. "Law, rigid, definite, concise law, is the primary want of early mankind; that which they need above everything else; that which is requisite before they can gain anything else. But it is their greatest difficulty, as well as their first requisite—the thing most out of their reach as well as the most beneficial to them if they can reach it." To the importance of having a law of any kind in an early stage of society, combined with the fact that in classical times this importance was still keenly felt, Mr. Bagehot, with great ingenuity, attributes the stern political conservatism of all ancient philosophers. Plato and Aristotle "lived when men had not had time to forget the difficulties of government." No nation, therefore, on this theory ever progressed at all which was not able to submit to the yoke of some law or custom, and those nations which could do this made the first and most important step on the path of progress.

The next necessity for progress is the capacity for at last breaking through the bonds of the very rules or law in virtue of which progress had been originally made. Almost any custom is certain to be in some points defective. It must, from the nature of things, be grounded on a partial and imperfect view of life. Any nation which, having gained consistency by obedience to law, could yet vary its rules so as to meet new circumstances, was almost certain to have an advantage over a body of men acting solely by some fixed custom. To achieve this change was the second great problem of progress. Failure was possible in two directions. A nation might change too readily. In attempting improvement, it might fall into anarchy. A nation again might refuse to change at all. In such a case, progress was at an end. In one way or another, the mass of mankind have stumbled at this second step.

"No one will ever comprehend the arrested civilizations unless he sees the strict dilemma of ancient society. Either men had no law at all and lived in confused tribes, hardly hanging together, or they had to obtain a fixed law by processes of incredible difficulty. Those who surmounted that difficulty soon destroyed all those that lay in their way who did not, and then they were caught in their own yoke. The customary discipline which could only be imposed by terrible sanctions continued with these sanctions, and killed out of the whole society the propensities to variation which are the principle of progress."

What then is the quality which enables men under favorable circumstances to form customs and to vary them? Mr. Bagehot's answer is that this quality is nothing else than the inborn tendency to imitation. The stress laid on mimicry is one of the most original though not perhaps one of the most satisfactory portions of his theory. He shows extraordinary ingenuity in tracing out in literature, in art, and in politics the effect of mimicry. He maintains that in an early state of society men, who are much like children, are, like children, certain to imitate almost any model set before them. Hence, if once any individual, whether a priest or a lawgiver, impresses a certain view of life on a group of men, they are all but certain to mould themselves with one accord on the one type put forward for their imitation. Hence the growth of fixed customs, but hence, too, among fortunate races, the ultimate change of custom. A new type of character arises, from some cause which may be termed accidental, into prominence. If the type is utterly foreign to the society, its imitators fail and die out, but if it commands a certain amount of sympathy the force of imitation has full play, and gradually the whole society is moulded to a new form of character. This course of things is, in Mr. Bagehot's view, traceable in all departments of life. You see it if you look at a class of schoolboys, you may observe its influence in changes of literary taste, you may find it working in all great historical revolutions. In other words, the spirit of an age

means really the spirit of one or two men who influence the age. If society is moulded, as it often is, in so rigid a shape that not even a man here or there can develop a new type of character, then society is stationary. But if even one or two individuals can give free play to their genius, then you have movement and progress.

The three doctrines of the necessity in many early civilizations for a rigid law of some kind or other, the necessity during later stages of breaking through this law, and the immense influence exerted by mimicry, form the backbone of Mr. Bagehot's views. Stated nakedly and without the illustrations and applications by which he impresses them on his readers, these doctrines may sound like rather barren and unimportant dogmas. He proves nothing, it has been said, except that progress depends upon men being at once obedient to law and yet not too obedient to law. But such criticisms are mistaken. He makes suggestions which do not indeed solve the problem before him, but certainly take us some steps towards its solution. He, for example, makes perfectly clear that the very tendencies which aid progress at one stage become a hindrance to it at another, and thus removes at least half the difficulty of understanding why some nations have never progressed beyond a particular stage of cultivation. The force which impelled them to become civilized—for example, the influence of religion—was too strong for its purpose. It drove them so strongly in one direction that it made it impossible for them to turn in another. This is probably not the whole cause of arrested growth, but it is certainly one of its causes. Take, for example, the Mohammedan nations, what progress they have made they almost undoubtedly owe to their religion, but the existence of the religion seems to make further progress impossible. You cannot reform a law which is supposed to be enacted under the sanction of the Deity himself. It is again an immense gain fully to realize the mode in which imitation works. When you hear that the spirit or genius of an age changes, you are apt to have a vague impression that millions of people suddenly undergo some mysterious alteration. Study Mr. Bagehot, and you soon see that this alteration is not in itself a mystery. A very limited number of persons set the pattern of each age. The millions about them imitate the model. If the leading men in Europe were reconverted to heathenism, there is every reason to suppose that the mass of Europeans would take easily enough to the building of temples and the offering of sacrifices to Jupiter. The difficulty is, of course, to show what are the causes which make the leading minds of one age heathen and the leading minds of another monotheists.

Mr. Bagehot's theories have the great merit of throwing real light on their subject as far as they go. Their main demerit is that they do not go very far. Mr. Bagehot, for example, shows with great clearness that a law of some kind or other is an essential condition of early progress. He does not show what are the causes which enable one race to form customs whilst another race fails and goes to ruin for want of any principle of cohesion. He shows, again, the immense power of imitation, but he hardly suggests what are the conditions which make men, after admiring one type of character for centuries, turn as it were suddenly to the worship of another. Why, for example, did Constantine feel an admiration for a religion which Cæsar would have looked upon with detestation? We do not suggest for a moment that this kind of enquiry is unanswerable. In the instance we have given many obvious replies suggest themselves. What we do maintain is that Mr. Bagehot does not even attempt to account for the changes which come over the feelings of different eras. If it were merely that he does not answer a question which is not the problem before him, he would not be open to criticism. He is open to criticism because he does not seem to perceive distinctly that his theories do not account for changes, when they only assume that change will sooner or later take place. His speculations are again marred by a fault which lies deep in the character of his mind. His ingenuity is excessive. You cannot help feeling as you read his speculations that his wonderful power of drawing suggestions from the most ordinary events of life tempts him to believe that if he can explain a little everyday puzzle, he has certainly found the solution for some great question. He gives, for example, a most amusing account of the belief he entertained as a child in the lucky properties of a certain "fish" which he and his companions used in the game of loo, and concludes with the reflection that "many elaborate explanations of the totem, the 'clan' deity, the beast or bird who in some supernatural way attends to the clan and watches over it, do not seem to me to be nearly as alive to the reality as it works and lives among the lower races as the 'pretty fish' of my early boyhood." In other words, Mr. Bagehot has built up a whole theory as to superstition on the rather slender basis of his boyish reminiscences. No sensible person will object to such recollections on the score of the dignity of philosophy. But sensible critics may suspect that Mr. Bagehot has attached very undue weight to a somewhat amusing trait of his childhood. Examine the matter carefully, and you will come to the conclusion both that the analysis of his childish feelings is inaccurate and that the inference based on it is infinitely wider than it will bear. Mr. Bagehot is the dupe of his own excessive ingenuity.

THE MAGAZINES FOR APRIL.

WHAT sort of "medical expert" evidence was given in the late Wharton trials in Baltimore, and the earlier trial of Dr. Schoeppe, is related in the April *Lippincott* by Dr. H. C. Wood, jr., who tells a story that is certainly amazing; indeed, when we recollect that one woman at least has been hanged on the testimony of the chemist who figured in these trials, the story may be called not a little horrifying. Dr. Wood represents Professor Aiken, the chemist in question, as having reported that "he found prussic acid" in the stomach of Miss Steinecke, the woman whom Dr. Schoeppe was charged with murdering; whereupon the jury found the accused guilty, and he was sentenced to death. He came so near suffering death, too, that he was measured for his coffin, and had the dismal satisfaction of hearing of his respite, by special act of the Legislature, at about the same time that he heard the death-struggles of a fellow-prisoner, on the same platform with whom the doctor was to have been hanged. Yet a sifting of Aiken's evidence showed that his "finding" of prussic acid was the discovery of traces of that poison after the distillation of the stomach and contents with sulphuric acid. But inasmuch as saliva contains "ferrocyanide of potash, out of which sulphuric acid generates prussic acid, the latter substance will always be obtained by the process adopted by Professor Aiken from any stomach which has in it the least particle of saliva"—the manufacture being, let us trust, seldom followed by the consequences which came so near following Professor Aiken's. Yet it is probable that such results occur less seldom than could be wished. A local physician, testifying in this same case, swore that in his opinion the deceased came to her death from the effects of some compound poison, because "her eyes looked like the eyes of a hawk killed by himself some years before" with a dose of several poisons mingled in one. Another local physician, when it was urged that Miss Steinecke might have died of a certain disease of the kidneys, the symptoms of which are like those attending her death, swore that he had made a post-mortem examination of the body; that he had not looked at the kidneys, but that the liver was healthy, and, such being the case, the kidneys could not have been diseased—a most extraordinary inference. Again, the jury had it in evidence that Miss Steinecke lingered for many hours after her seizure and after the alleged dosing with poison; and they had the testimony of a competent toxicologist that prussic acid, if it does its work at all, does it in a few moments. But in spite of this the jury without difficulty brought in a verdict of guilty, the bench accepted it, and the prisoner was condemned on evidence "which from the same bench was subsequently stigmatized as being insufficient to warrant his commitment for trial." It will strike most people that it was not "expert evidence" that broke down in this case, but that there was very grave if not very disgraceful incompetency in the legal and judicial management. In fact, had it not been for the immediate and indignant protest of chemical experts all over the country, Dr. Schoeppe must have died an ignominious death—a victim to the lawyers, judges, and jurymen who put forward and who received the evidence of two or three country doctors, obviously ignorant of one branch of their extremely complicated and difficult profession.

All of *Lippincott's Magazine* is readable this month; for if nothing is extravagantly good, almost everything has a flavor of its own, and a flavor unlike that which the other magazines are apt to have in common. It is as the taste of the waters of the Delaware or Rapidan and the taste of the waters of the Merrimack. In "Berrytown" Mrs. Harding Davis hints her rather amusing hatred and contempt for such reforms as incidentally produce long hair but primarily have for their object the setting of all things to rights at once. Evidently she is not fond of the east wind; but her story is striking, and promises to be of her usual excellence. "Wilmington and its Industries," an illustrated paper, most readers will find to be not only instructive but also pleasing by reason of the peaceful, sleepy charm of the old-fashioned days which it brings back to remembrance. The writer should perhaps fear a libel suit, however, for he undertakes to speak of Mr. Charles Reade's 'Wandering Heir,' whose hero served as an apprentice near the ancient Wilmington, and he has the temerity to speak thus: "Reade, so long as he keeps up his friendship with Ferris, is safe, sane, and true. It would have been well if he had kept it up a little longer, for the moment he lets go Ferris's coat-cuff he falls into mistakes, calling the Delaware hereabouts a bay, and speaking of a prickly-pear hedge on a farm only sixty miles from Philadelphia." We may add that Mr. Reade is more in error in this part of his book than our magazine writer points out. For ex-

ample, speaking of the servitude of the poor servants who were shipped to the plantations, he remarks that "the Puritans," although no men talked more of liberty, and although for themselves they obtained it and defended it, yet in the case of the apprentices, etc., etc., meaning to say that at the time of Lord Altham's wanderings, the Delawareans were Yankees and Puritans—a curious blunder which most English novelists might well enough commit, but which is a little odd in the work of a professed lover of the American, and a novelist, too, who demands our admiration for his painstaking accuracy. A Yankee novelist who should introduce Lord George Gordon as a Quaker would do much the same thing that Mr. Reade has done in this instance.

People who are heartsick of hearing about the carpet-bagger and his rascalities, and have begun despairing about the condition of the South, might be recommended to read a lively piece by Mr. R. B. Elder, entitled "A Night in Bedford, Virginia." Bedford is the county just west of Lynchburg, a beautiful and fertile region, and there resides an ex-rebel general whom a young friend, nearly but not quite as well "reconstructed" as himself, visits at his home, where the two talk about the prospects of Virginia landowners, and about a New Hampshire man who has just bought a piece of the general's estate.

What with the articles above-mentioned and those that follow, it will be seen that the April *Lippincott's* is worth reading: "Thackeray's Gray Friars," written by an old gown-boy; "The Glaciers of Paradise," a poem by Mr. Boyesen, whose new language appears not to constrain and hamper him at all; two chapters, satisfactorily long, of Mr. William Black's "Princess of Thule"; "The Sweet Waters," a sketch, by Mr. Edwin De Leon, of the Bois de Boulogne or fashionable pleasure-ground of Constantinople; a second paper on the Kabyles; a good-natured, sprightly little story, "Mademoiselle Stylites," by Miss Margaret Vandegrift: some gossip about several English noble houses, and some good book reviews. To one of these latter we would refer all persons who wish to read up the history of San Domingo, as it supplements, at some length, Mr. Hazard's list of works on that subject. We should have mentioned that Mr. C. P. Cranch makes a rhymed version of a Chinese story which, after a fashion worthy of Æsop, warns against sharp practice and false pretences.

The opening article in *Scribner's*, "An Hour among the Greenbacks," gives a hasty account of the work done in the Treasury at Washington in the way of counting money, detecting counterfeit notes, and cancelling notes returned. Some remarkable things are told. For example: of one young woman who has been in the Division of Issues since its organization in 1862, it is said that she has on many occasions counted fifty thousand notes in five and a half hours. "This is at the rate of 9,090 notes every hour, 150 every minute, and two and a half every second." Often, however, this same counter "picks up" notes at the rate of three and one-third in a second for twenty minutes together. Anybody who does not recognize in this a wonderful feat may, as the writer remarks, readily satisfy himself that it is by undertaking to tap his finger on the table for half an hour or so at the rate of twice or thrice a second. Some other curious information this article contains, as, for instance, in regard to the defaced and mutilated bills and fractional currency returned to the Treasury: one Frenchman sends in a package of minute fragments of greenbacks which have "met with the accident of a little dog." We may remark in passing that apparently the writer has not closely observed the habits of the domestic goat, which, she says, sometimes eats paper money, "the green notes having an inviting and familiar appearance," the fact being that wrapping-paper, wall-paper of any and every color, and newspapers of every grade, are alike welcome to him.

"Moscow and Southern Russia," another illustrated article, comes second in *Scribner's* table of contents, and is by Miss E. D. Proctor, who has travelled among the people, or rather the peoples, of whom she writes with spirit; Mr. Edwin De Leon describes the late Emperor Napoleon at Vichy; "Saxe Holm," a writer fitted for wide popularity, carries further forward the history of her heroine, Draxy Miller; Dr. Holland, in his eighth and ninth chapters, has something to say about the "revival" once so common in New England religious circles, and condemns it strongly; "An Ancient American Civilization" (illustrated) is concerning the Peruvians under the Incas, and is not the regulation article that it may at first sight seem—an eviscerated chapter or two of an accessible book; it is from the unpublished "Travels" of a French gentleman who has recently been exploring Peruvian sepulchres and collecting material to illustrate the history of that unfortunate race; "Needed Modifications of our Currency and Banking System," by Mr. Lyman Atwater, is the solid article of the number; "Hypatia," by Mr. Stedman, appears to be addressed to a female lecturer who favors the woman movement; "Martin Lea's Story," by "Norman Holm," is dismal in the highest and happiest degree; finally, there is much "Culture and Progress," "Nature and Science," "Home and Society," and "Topics of the Time," and Mr. A. C. Wheeler writes of Miss Kellogg as all Americans should be glad to see that lady written about.

Magazine readers who wish to be amused, and who are not easy to amuse, will probably find "Marjorie Daw," in the *Atlantic*, by Mr. T. B. Aldrich, about as well suited to their needs as anything else in the April magazine literature. Anything at once prettier and more farcical, more pleasantly interesting to the end and with an end more unexpected, than this witty little trifle, it would be hard to find. Excellent, too, is another short paper in this magazine—Colonel Waring's sketch of his horse. "Ruby" must have been, as an Irish groom once remarked of another horse, "a most intricate lept one" for clearing ditches and Virginia rail fences; but in spite of his demand on credulity, he stands out in Mr. Waring's description as veritable horse-flesh and worthy of Hector or Assheton-Smith. "Some Impressions of London Life," by Mr. E. S. Nadal, is another clever article that is a little out of the *Atlantic's* usual way, but not the less welcome perhaps on that account; while in the *Atlantic's* accustomed way we have Mr. Parton's "Edmond Genet in the United States," and Mr. Howells's "Chance Acquaintance." "Chopin" is by a writer not hitherto known to us, whose admiration of Chopin we shall call ardent—excessive not being for us to say in such matters. The poetry of the number is of extremely little moment, though Mr. Boyesen is once more successful in his Norwegian legend.

Serpents have always had a sort of horrible fascination for the sons of Eve, and naturally there has been much romancing about their habits, especially the habits of the more venomous kinds. Most readers, then, will be surprised at some statements which they may read in the "Scientific Miscellany" of the *Galaxy*, where a Mr. Morley, chief surveyor of some railroads in Colorado and New Mexico, sets down some of the results of his observation of these reptiles, and corrects several popular delusions in regard to them while confirming some articles of the popular faith. The tales which one may hear among the Southern negroes about the rattlesnake's ability to launch itself through the air to a distance of twice or three times its length, Mr. Morley has never found verified in the course of his experience with many hundred snakes: "It throws itself forward about three-fourths of its length, supporting its weight entirely upon the remaining fourth. In order to strike, it must lie in a close coil, with its head and neck erect." Its venom is not, as has been universally asserted, injected into the wound through a hollow fang; the fangs are hollow for a part of their length, but the tip is never pierced: "the poison-sac, the position of which may be roughly indicated by comparing it to a gum-boil, is in such relation with the base of the fang that, when the animal strikes, pressure is exerted upon the sac, which causes a drop of venom to run down *outside* the tooth into the puncture." Thus it happens that rattlesnakes' bites are sometimes harmless when the creature attempts to strike through cloth, the poison being absorbed by the material. As for the rattle, it is of little value as a warning, for the striking is almost simultaneous with the sound, and is done with electric quickness—sometimes is done twice, contrary to the opinion that venomous snakes do not bite twice in immediate succession. But if the warning is of little value, the bite, on the other hand, is reported by Mr. Morley to be much less dangerous than he had supposed. Of thirty persons whom he has known to have been bitten, all recovered except one, and he lived twelve days after the accident. This one, by the bye, was the only one of the party who had surgical aid. The best cure for the bite, Mr. Morley says, confirming the popular belief, is to make the patient drink whiskey enough to make him drunk; and he further says that much more whiskey is required to produce this effect than if the person drinking had not been bitten. This specific, for such it may almost confidently be called, is also in use in the South, and sometimes really immense doses of spirits are tolerated. The peculiarly offensive odor of these snakes is vouched for by Mr. Morley, who says that if "one is irritated and made to bite the rake or hoe with which it is intended to kill him, the implement will retain the same unpleasant odor for months." One more error he corrects by saying that he has frequently killed the rattlesnake at an elevation of about 8,000 feet, although all the writers on the subject say that he is never found at a greater height above the sea-level than 6,000 feet. These mountain snakes are said to be more venomous than their brethren of the lowlands, but this may be a mere conjecture based on the highland snake's greater vividness of color. Nervous readers may be pleased to hear that the part of the United States where rattlesnakes are most numerous is the strip of land, sixty or seventy miles wide, between the Rio Grande and the Neuces, in Texas, which swarms with them: "One cannot go fifty yards without seeing a rattlesnake." Moccasons, centipedes, tarantulas, and scorpions are other inhabitants of this region.

There is plenty more of readable matter in the April *Galaxy*. Mr. De Forest's "Wetherel Affair" promises to be as good as any novel he has

written, which is saying not a little; Turgenef's "Antchar" has reached its third part; Mr. Justin McCarthy draws a portrait of Mr. Joseph Arch, the Englishman who has taught his fellow-hinds to co-operate and agitate—agitate for four dollars a week of wages, be it remembered; "A Snow Storm and a Baby" is a rapid and fairly well told story; Mr. Bayard Taylor contributes a dignified sonnet; Professor Van Amringe's essay on "Life Assurance" concludes with the third part; Mr. R. B. Kimball speaks a good word for Napoleon Third; and Mr. John Durand accomplishes the incredible by taking up "Hamlet" and saying something new and true—so far as our knowledge and our judgment go—in reference to that play. The character of Ophelia is the matter more especially under investigation, and Mr. Durand dissents from some of the common conclusions. He does not at all believe with Mr. Hudson that the unfortunate girl is perfection itself; nor will he, with Mrs. Jameson, declare that Ophelia loves "in the silent depths of her young heart far more than she is loved." Mr. Durand, on the contrary, thinks that she treated Hamlet with less than true loyalty, and, not to put too fine a point on it, angered him by joining with his enemies in a trick to deceive him, in prosecution of which scheme she told him a falsehood, well-meant, perhaps, surely not ill-meant, but deliberate, and told at the moment when he was trying her to see if she were true. As to the other parts of Mr. Durand's essay, with some we may agree and about others say nothing; but that part of it for the sake of which it was written appears to us a good example of Shakspearian criticism of a kind needed. The multitude of critics and commentators has bred a lazy or a slavish set of readers, and an independent reader who does not go with the many but thinks for himself is not too common, nor indeed can he be.

Mr. Joseph Arch comes up again in *Harper's*, which has a portrait of him, and a sketch of his career, written apparently by Mr. M. D. Conway. Mr. Arch is clearly a man of mark and note, and if the accounts we get of him are unprejudiced, he most probably has a very useful future before him. The following is a glimpse of the misery which he and his coadjutors are now endeavoring—and here is a lesson for a Communist—to get into a Parliamentary Blue-book, after investigation made by a royal commission:

"Mr. Mitchell, the other laboring man who spoke, told a doleful story of how often he had suffered the pangs of hunger when, at eighteen years of age, he had followed the plough, working from six in the morning until ten at night without having twopenny-worth of food in him, and a little sour cider, which was called 'perquisites.' It was the third runnings. The wages were seven shillings a week. 'The living was tea-kettle broth for breakfast. Two or three little pieces of bread were put in the breakfast pot, which held three quarts, and then the bread was soaked with hot water. For dinner they got a few potatoes and a square inch of bacon fried in the pan for a family of seven, the fat going on the potatoes, and the meat being the father's dinner. For tea they soaked burned bread, and put a little treacle on it, that being carried to the husband in the field by the woman. For supper they got little pieces of bread and skim-milk cheese. As for dwellings, I have known thirteen huddling together in one room on what they called a "shakedown," like hounds in a kennel. Last week I spoke to an old man at Yeovil, whose master told him he could not give him more than five shillings a week, and who said he was then literally starving. I will do my best to elevate my countrymen, and run the risk of the horse-pond.'"

The allusion in the last line is to what is now known as "the bishop's baptism." That right reverend father in God, the Bishop of Gloucester, substantially advised the farmers of his diocese to duck in the horse-pond any "agitator" who might come into their neighborhood. That, if the very worst phases of English peasant life were brought forward and insisted upon, Mr. Mitchell's picture might have been painted in still darker colors, is as well-known as it is hard to tell in plain speech. But to work at ploughing for sixteen hours a day "without twopenny-worth of food in one," at seven shillings a week, makes a good enough grievance for the present.

The "Easy Chair" discourses upon Bulwer, the younger Dumas, and his reply to a German who wished to buy a play from him; and upon the eagerness of denunciation which has followed Mr. Colfax, who, the "Easy Chair" says, will probably have explained the charges against him before the reader gets the "Easy Chair's" words—as if there was much need of Mr. Colfax's explaining anything, after admitting his quarterly receipts from the beneficent Mr. Nesbitt.

A Hand-book of Social Economy. By Edmond About. (New York: D. Appleton & Co.).—The general scope and aim of this clever little book may be easily stated in a few words, though for any idea of its brightness, clearness, and interest we must refer the reader to M. About himself. The purpose of the author is to diffuse among the working-classes correct notions on the subject of economics; on the relations between capital and labor; on production; on consumption; and other matters which are usually treated under the head of political economy.

The general conception of the economic cosmos existing in the mind of the workingman is undoubtedly the great obstacle in the way of his progress. He has been taught from his cradle up that mankind is divided into rich and poor; that the interests of these two classes are antagonistic; that the main object of the rich capitalist is to get as much work done for him by the poor laborer as possible at the least expense; that no matter how hard he may work, he will probably remain all his life in the same condition in which he begins it, if, indeed, he is lucky enough to remain where he is, and does not sink to a lower level; and he is taught at the same time certain general ideas as to justice and equality, which seem to him strangely in conflict with the actual condition of the world. Besides this he sees that riches do not by any means fall to the lot of those who work the hardest for them, but are quite as apt to come by lucky speculation, by mere chance, or even by fraud. It is hardly to be wondered at that, in an age of Fisks and Goulds, Crédits Mobiliers, and brummagem empires, the ambitious workingman should be led to thinking that, after all, pillage is the most profitable kind of labor; and, on the whole, if fortunes are to be acquired by any one unjustly, it might as well be by himself as by his capitalist employer.

It is this conception which M. About desires to eradicate from the workingman's mind. The *Commune* has alarmed M. About, as it has most other people, and in the volume before us it is evident that the dangers of such socialistic revolutions are constantly before his eyes. With his usual skill, in order to remove the false impression in the minds of his hearers, he puts before them his picture of the social economy of the world in such persuasive and truthful colors, that no unprejudiced person can fail to be convinced. The world, he says, is no such fighting-ground as you have been taught to believe it. The world is a great workshop in which nature furnishes materials which man by his labor endows with utility. In this workshop it is only the idle and thievish who are out of place—the "parasites," as he calls them, who appropriate and waste the products of the others' labors—thieves, beggars, gamblers, communists. In this workshop each has his place, from the masters, who direct and employ, to the receivers of wages, who handle the machines, stoke the fires, and distribute the goods.

No one can fail to be convinced of the truth of this picture, any more than he can of the other. Both are true. It is true that each man receives from the general fund of accumulated wealth in proportion to the labor he gives, and it is also true that some unscrupulous and clever men always get more than their fair share. In one case it is an Emperor, who gets hold of the revenues of a government by what he calls a *coup d'état;* in the next it is an employer of labor who gets fabulous wealth by what he calls a land-grant; again it is a physician who grows rich by the sale of what he calls a panacea, or a demagogue (a labor-reformer perhaps) who gets money by the sale of what he induces people to believe is eloquence. This has been going on since the world began, and will go on until it comes to an end. All we can do is to confine it within narrow limits, which we certainly do not succeed in doing now. The rest must be done by the gradual elevation of the working-classes themselves in intelligence and self-restraint. They have already taken one great stride from the condition of slavery into that of wage-receiving freedom. From this stipendiary state into that of industrial co-operation they are undoubtedly destined to pass, but only through a gradual change in the mental and moral condition of the world.

Meantime, such books as this of M. About are peculiarly serviceable, as they put before the workingman a true picture of the relations of things as they look from the point of view of enlightened self-interest, as well as from that of unselfish sympathy with the struggles and sufferings of mankind. Teachers will find it an excellent vade-mecum.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*	
Abbe (F. R.), The Temple Rebuilt	(Noyes, Holmes & Co.)	
About (E.), Rouge et Noir	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	
Brooke (H.), The Fool of Quality	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 75
Burr (Rev. E. F.), Pater Mundi; or, Doctrine of Evolution, second series	(Noyes, Holmes & Co.)	
Caddell (Cecilia M.), Wild Times	(Cath. Pub. Soc.)	1 50
Czermak (Prof. J. N.), Ueber das Ohr und das Hören, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Daisy	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	2 00
Dorr (Mrs. J. C. R.), Sibyl Huntington	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 75
Folsom (E. G.), The Logic of Accounts	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	
Freeman (E. A.), Historical Essays, second series	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 50
Halsey (C. S.), Genealogical Chart of the Rulers of England, etc.	(Ginn Bros.)	1 50
Hare (A. J. C.), Memorials of a Quiet Life	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
Hillebrand (K.), Frankreich und die Franzosen, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Hunt (L.), The Wishing-Cap Papers	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Leslie (Miss E.), New Cook-Book	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	1 75
Meyer (Prof. J. B.), Die Fortbildungsschule in unserer Zeit, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Naumann (E.), Deutschlands musikalische Heroen, swd.	" "	
Oncken (Dr. A.), Die Wiener Weltausstellung 1873, swd.	" "	
Sanders (Dr. D.), Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten in der Deutschen Sprache, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Sauzade (J. S.), Mark Gildersleeve	(G. W. Carleton & Co.)	
Shillaber (B. P.), Partingtonian Patchwork	(Lee & Shepard)	1 75
The Workshop, No. 3, swd.	(E. Steiger)	0 40
Whittlesey (Elsie L.), Hemlock Swamp and White Sulphur Springs	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	

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Causes of War in the Existing European Situation. By Emile de Laveleye.—A Conversation with Marcus Aurelius. By W. W. Story.—Louis Napoleon: 1851 and 1873. By Albert Venn Dicey.—Class Legislation. By Henry Crompton.—The New Cure for Incurables. By Lionel A. Tollemache.—Forty Years of the House of Lords. By F. Bowen-Graves (conclusion).—The Eustace Diamonds. By Anthony Trollope (conclusion).—Critical Notices: Murray's 'Manual of Mythology,' 'A Concise History of Painting,' 'Memoir of Nathaniel Hawthorne,' 'The Red Flag,' and other Poems. By Sidney Colvin.

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☞ A New Story, by Anthony Trollope, will be commenced in the April number.

Owing to the misunderstanding incident to the beginning of such an enterprise, the January and February numbers have not appeared as promptly as there is every reason to hope subsequent ones will.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

March 31, 1873.

At a special meeting of the directors of the Bank of England, on Tuesday, the discount rate was raised from 3½ to 4 per cent. At the regular Thursday meeting of the directors, contrary to general expectation, no further advance was made. During the week ending March 27, the Bank lost £945,000 in bullion, which is accounted for by the French indemnity payments to Germany. It was in consequence of this expected drain of specie from the Bank that induced the directors to advance the rate of discount, although it may be partly explained by the feeling on the other side that the practice of loaning sixty days' sterling bills to speculators in this market, upon stock collaterals, should be checked. The amount of sterling loans made in this city has been variously estimated from $20,000,000 to $50,000,000, and some apprehension has been expressed here about the loans being renewed when they fall due. Our information is that the loans were mostly made with the privilege of one, and, in some instances, two renewals.

We have but to repeat that money has remained stringent in this market with $\frac{1}{64}$ to $\frac{3}{32}$ and interest, as the range of rates. We see no sign of any "let up" until the middle of April at least, and we doubt if, during the summer, money will be such a drug as it has usually been. Time money is in demand for six months at 11 and 12 per cent. upon stock collaterals of a desirable nature. Just at this time a large amount of currency is needed in the interior, especially in Pennsylvania, for the purpose of making settlements on the 1st of April; after that date the money will begin to return to the money centres, and by the 10th or 15th is usually all back again.

The stringency in the call money market keeps commercial paper dull of sale. The best names are quoted at 10 to 12 per cent., while paper of an inferior grade, but still quite good, has been sold as high as 18 per cent. and under.

The bank statement is unfavorable, showing a falling off of $867,600 in the reserve, against a reduction of but $1,092,700 in the liabilities. The banks now stand $377,200 below the required 25 per cent. reserve, but the deficiency is confined to the State banks, as the statement published below shows. The following is a comparison of the averages of the past two weeks:

	March 22.	March 29.	Differences.
Loans	$275,198,800	$274,348,760	Dec. $850,100
Specie	17,472,300	16,179,100	Dec. 1,293,200
Circulation	27,613,690	27,635,700	Inc. 22,100
Deposits	194,623,500	193,508,700	Dec. 1,114,800
Legal tenders	38,304,200	38,729,800	Inc. 425,600

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	March 22.	March 29.	Differences.
Specie	$17,472,300	$16,179,100	Dec. $1,293,200
Legal tenders	38,304,200	38,729,800	Inc. 425,600
Total reserve	$55,776,500	$54,908,900	Dec. $867,600
Circulation	27,613,600	27,635,700	Inc. 22,100
Deposits	194,623,500	193,508,700	Dec. 1,114,800
Total liabilities	$222,237,100	$221,144,400	Dec. $1,092,700
25 per cent. reserve	55,559,275	55,286,100	
Deficiency in legal reserve	217,225		
Excess over legal reserve		377,200	Dec. 594,425

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$236,910,000	$37,438,700	$274,348,700
Specie	14,645,900	1,533,200	16,179,100
Legal Tenders	34,726,900	4,002,900	38,729,800
Net Deposits	167,272,700	26,236,000	193,508,700
Circulation	27,592,700	43,000	27,635,700

Business at the Stock Exchange has been very moderate in amount, and, beyond a few speculative fancies, quotations have undergone but little change. Milwaukee and St. Paul has remained strong, and been unusually active. The price advanced to 60⅞ on Friday, with a reaction of one per cent. at the close on Saturday. As we recently stated, the cause of the activity is due to some sort of a proposed agreement to "pool" the earnings of the road with those of the Chicago and Northwestern, so that in future the two roads will work harmoniously instead of carrying on a ruinous competition for business. The stockholders of the Milwaukee and St. Paul will be grateful for an arrangement which will improve their property in any way and ultimately put money in their pockets in the shape of dividends; and to the stockholders of the Chicago and Northwestern an arrangement of this kind will be beneficial, and probably enable them to dispose of their stock. The stockholders of the latter consist of Mr. Jay Gould and his friends in the recent "corner," all of whom retain the stock for the very good reason that no one will buy it from them.

Harlem is very strong, with the report still current of a consolidation with the Central and Hudson, and a prospect of a division of stock to represent the surplus property of the former amongst its stockholders. This consolidation will take place sooner or later, as the two roads run parallel to each other, and are under the same management, and it is very desirable that they should so remain. The *Daily Bulletin*, usually well informed, says:

"Late in the day a meeting was called of the directors of the N. Y. Central and Hudson and the N. Y. and Harlem Railroad Companies for next Tuesday morning, the business before the meeting to be the perfection of the lease of the Harlem to the Central and Hudson. The terms of the lease as it now stands are as follows: Only the Harlem Railroad proper, on which steam is used, is to be leased, and on this the Central and Hudson guaranty 8 per cent. annual dividends to the Harlem stockholders. The city railroads of the Harlem, which are to be reserved to the Harlem, already earn 3 per cent. on the entire Harlem capital. The city real estate of the Harlem is to be sold as soon as practicable, and the proceeds, estimated as equivalent to 30 to 40 per cent. of the Harlem stock, to be given also to the Harlem stockholders. These are the terms as given to us by those who should know and who have no interest to deceive."

Western Union has been weak on a moderate amount of business. At the commencement of the week Pacific Mail and Panama were strong, but at the close prices on both stocks fell off, especially on Panama, which, for some reason, has been pressed for sale; the price on Tuesday reached 116⅜, from which price there was a gradual decline until Saturday, when the lowest point reached was 110⅛. From recent accounts, the grand railroad-steamship-sewing-machine combination has become considerably mixed up, the property of one company having been mortgaged to another, and from present appearances we should judge that no man seeth the end thereof. The property of the Howe Sewing-Machine Company is reported to have been mortgaged for $1,140,000 to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company by Mr. Stockwell, who is the largest stockholder in the former and president of the latter.

The earnings of the Union Pacific R. R. Co. for the month of February and since the beginning of the year have been as follows:

	Feb., 1873.	Feb., 1872.
Earnings	$491,783 55	$531,115 09
Expenses	289,266 22	392,354 05
Net earnings	$202,517 33	$141,761 04

	Jan. 1 to Feb 28, 1873.	Jan. 1 to Feb. 29, 1872.
Earnings	$1,015,758 41	$808,051 17
Expenses	640,833 42	772,095 81
Net earnings	$374,924 99	$35,955 36
Increase gross earnings year 1873 compared with 1872		$207,707 24
Increase net " " " "		$338,969 63

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading Stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending March 29, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101¼ 102¾	101⅜ 102⅞	102 102⅝	102 102⅝	102 102⅛	101⅜ 102¼	87,000
Lake Shore	93⅝ 94¼	93½ 94	93⅜ 93⅞	93⅜ 94	93¼ 93¾	93¼ 93½	46,600
Erie	65½ 65½	64⅜ 65¼	64⅜ 65½	64¾ 65⅜	65⅜ 66	65½ 65½	66,300
Union Pacific	34⅜ 35¾	35⅜ 35⅞	35⅞ 35⅝	35⅝ 35⅝	35⅜ 35¼	34⅝ 35¼	58 000
Chi & N. W.	81	80 82	80 83	 82	....	....	400
Do. pfd	88¾ 88¾	88¼ 88½	 90	88¼ 89	88½ ...	....	700
N. J Central	103¾ 104	104	103⅞	.... 104½	103½	....	1,400
Rock Island	115 115⅜	114⅞ 115½	114⅞ 115⅜	115 115⅝	115⅜ 115⅝	115⅜ 115⅜	15,100
Mil. & St. Paul	56½ 57½	57 57⅜	57 57½	57¾ 59⅜	59½ 60⅜	59⅛ 60	70,100
Do. pfd.	75⅜ 75⅞	75½ 76½	75¾	75⅞ 76½	76¼ 76½	....	1,900
Wabash	73¼ 73½	73 73½	72¾	72⅜ 73½	72¾ 73¼	....	3,900
D. L. & Western	101 101¾	100¼ 101	101¼	100⅞ 101¼	101 101¼	101⅜ 102⅛	1,900
B. H. & Erie	4¼ 4⅜	3⅜ 4⅝	2⅝ 3⅜	2⅝ 3⅜	3⅛ 3⅜	3⅜ 4⅛	33,000
C. & Alton	112½ 113	112⅝	112⅜	112⅜	112⅜	112⅜	....
O. & M	45⅝ 46¼	45¾ 46	45½ 46	45½ 45⅞	45⅝ 46¼	45⅝ 46⅛	25,100
C. C. & I. C	39¼ 40	39½ 40½	39⅜ 40½	39⅜ 40¼	39¼ 40	39⅜ 39⅝	21,000
W. U. Tel	86¾ 87⅛	86⅜ 86⅝	86½ 86⅜	86⅜ 86⅝	85⅝ 86⅛	85⅜ 86⅜	135,000
Pacific Mail	55⅝ 57⅛	56⅜ 59⅝	56⅜ 59	56⅜ 58	56⅝ 58⅜	56⅞ 57⅜	201,300

The Treasury gives notice to-day that during the month of April it will purchase $500,000 5-20s on the 9th and 23d of the month, and sell $1,500,000 gold on each Thursday.

The Government bond market has been very strong throughout the week. A great scarcity of bonds has existed, and the demand for them for shipment to Europe has been steady. Prices at the close on Saturday show a handsome advance as compared with those at the beginning of the week. The firmness of gold strengthens Government bonds so long as the price in Europe holds its own.

The feature of the different markets has been gold. The price on Monday was 115½, from which a gradual advance continued until the close (Saturday) when the price was 117. The imports for the week were very large, amounting to $13,884,598. The possibility that the Treasury will flood the market with new legal tenders keeps up a feeling that gold is good property to hold, and forms a basis upon which the "clique" can advance the price. The large imports are taking a large amount of gold from the banks, as it is needed to pay duties at the custom-house. Altogether the outlook in the gold-room is favorable for the "bulls," and from the fact that 1 per cent. bonus is bid for the privilege of calling it at 120 at any time within four months, it is probable that the price will advance to that figure before the summer is over.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1873.

The Week.

THE facts, so far as they have been developed, with regard to the loss of the *Atlantic* on Meagher's Rock, are these: The vessel left England insufficiently coaled and insufficiently provisioned. On the 31st of last month, when she was 460 miles from New York, there were, according to Captain Williams's statement, only 127 tons of coal and barely two days' provisions left, and the captain, considering that the "risk was too great," determined to run into Halifax. The position of the *Atlantic* was got by "observation and chronometer," and at twelve o'clock midnight was reckoned to be 48 miles off Sambro Light, at the entrance of the harbor, the light bearing almost due north. The speed was then about 12 knots per hour. Captain Williams had never brought a ship into Halifax, and knew nothing about the coast except what is known to every one, that it is perhaps the most dangerous in the world; the third officer had been in the harbor twice; none of the other officers had ever been there. It will be seen that, going 12 knots an hour, the vessel was rapidly nearing the coast; she was already "within soundings." Under these circumstances, the captain, at 12.40, went to bed (no soundings having been made), with orders that he should be called at three o'clock, relying on the clearness of the night, and the certainty of Sambro Light being seen, and intending on getting near the coast to lay to. As a matter of fact, he was utterly mistaken either as to position or else direction, for he was carried miles to the westward of Sambro Light, and driven right on to the coast. At three o'clock the vessel struck. Captain Williams admits that had he taken soundings the loss would not have occurred. Some of the newspapers find fault with the construction of the vessel, and maintain that she was too long for her width, and that if she had been properly constructed she would have "held her own" when she got on Meagher's Rock. Captain Williams, however, whose interest it certainly is to find fault with her construction if it is any one's, says nothing of the kind; and it should be remembered that the *Atlantic* was built for a sea-going vessel, and not for a rock boat.

That Captain Williams was perfectly sober at the time of the wreck, and that he did all in his power to save life, seems to be established, but there are some facts connected with his previous career which have been thus far covered up, but which ought to be stated, as they have a very direct bearing on the culpability of his employers—the White Star Line. Captain Williams was formerly on the Williams and Guion line, and while in the employ of that company so thoroughly disgraced himself by drunkenness that, on the representations of one of the passengers who crossed the ocean in a vessel of which he was in command (he having been helplessly drunk all the way over), he was removed or allowed to resign. This is the real truth of the story that his dismissal was "owing to a difficulty with some of the passengers." The Williams and Guion officials then gave him a letter of recommendation, on the strength of which he got a command from the White Star Line. This makes the shameful story complete. One company dismisses a man for beastly drunkenness; a second company places a thousand lives in his keeping on the strength of a recommendation from the first company. To save a little money, the vessel is insufficiently coaled; and to supply her, she is taken directly on to an unknown and frightfully dangerous coast, the man in charge going to bed while she is running on. It would be worth while knowing what excuse the White Star Line can give for employing an officer dismissed for any reason whatever by another company.

The recent Rhode Island election is hardly worth speaking of. It was a complicated matter, with many interests and issues involved, but all of them local. The Republican candidate for Lieutenant-Governor was beaten, there being a temperance candidate in the field, and no choice by the people. It was thought the presence of a temperance candidate in Connecticut might also have had some effect even upon the choice for the governorship, and it had some, but, as it seems, not very much—prohibition still being a highly fancy stock in State politics, and used mostly in illegitimate operations. More important seems to have been the dissensions among important politicians, which cut down the Republican vote for Mr. Haven in New Haven City by just about the majority which it is now asserted—without corrected returns, however—that Mr. Ingersoll, the Democratic candidate, has obtained. It is said that the Democrats have also carried the House, while the Republicans control the Senate. The chief contest was in the Congressional districts, which stand as before—Mr. Hawley's majority running well up to 1,300 apparently, against 633 last year, when he was elected over Mr. W. W. Eaton, a tried wheel-horse of the straitest Connecticut Democracy. The increase of his majority will be generally looked upon as caused by his anti-back-pay and anti-corruption attitude in the last House, where, although a new member, he was an old enough politician, and near enough to the inner priesthood, to be allowed to make a great deal of noise. On the whole, then, the election is of no particular significance, except as showing that "the people" are not yet up in arms, and that "every man round us may rob as he please," as the song (prematurely) said on the occasion of Mr. Blueskin's cutting the throat of Mr. Jonathan Wild.

When by limitation of time New Jersey became free from the power ignorantly granted to the railroads in the days when little o the future of the new invention could be foreseen, it was hoped that she might become wholly free. The New Jersey Transportation Company and the Camden and Amboy were, however, too much for the efforts of the State, and since the beginning of 1867, when the alliance between these two powers became firm, the two companies have been as strong at Trenton as ever; and to think of the amount of money paid out for their strength is no consolation when we reflect on the persons to whom it was paid, and the lessons it has taught. The last Legislature, however, has secured the gratitude of the country by passing a general railroad law, very good in principle—whatever its working may be in the face of its bitter and able enemies—a law whose passage is a proof of the inherent honesty of the Jerseyman. Their surface history, hampered as they have been by their contract with the companies, and afterwards exposed as they have been to some of the wealthiest corruptors in the world, may seem to indicate something very different from inherent honesty. And an obstinacy, almost of conservatism, has caused the Jersey community in general to fall into the bad graces of some of us; but whoever knows the people of the State, knows that the most conspicuous part of their past history badly represents them, and that the ordinary Jerseyman is as honest a man as can be found anywhere. With rare exceptions, we surmise, other American communities that have sneered for so many years at Jersey may probably look at home.

The Illinois farmers met yesterday week in a convention that must have formed an animated contrast to the regular cut-and-dried American convention, as known to the last thirty or forty years of our politics. Nearly three hundred farmers were present from almost three-quarters of the counties of the State, and these delegates are said to represent about one hundred thousand Illinois electors, and to have been mostly Republicans in politics. A vote to invite Gov. Beveridge to address the convention failed to pass when first offered, but on a reconsideration was got through, in spite of "much opposition" and many voices in the negative, and the governor made a

speech, in which he began by saying that he "recognized the fact that the producing interest in all lands, especially in this Prairie State, the richest country on God's green earth, was the grandest and noblest interest asking for our protection, our fostering, and our care (applause)." The Governor admitted, also, that the railroad companies had been extortionate, and thought it must be admitted that other interests as well as those of the farming classes had suffered. But just how this was to be remedied it might not be so easy to say; all the evil could not be remedied that afternoon, nor that year probably, and perhaps not for five years or twenty-five. He had appointed a good railroad commission, all of the commissioners being farmers who meant work, and intended that the railroads should be the creations of the people's representatives and obey the popular will. An amendment of the Constitution of the United States might be necessary, but it would be easy to get if the farmers showed persistency, and it would at once and for ever abrogate the famous "Dartmouth College decision"—secured by Daniel Webster, Jeremiah Mason, and Jeremiah Smith, pleading before Chief-Justice Marshall against William Wirt, William Pinckney, and John Holmes, in behalf of the college corporation and against the New Hampshire Legislature, which had set aside the college charter. The farmers were at first angry enough to forget all the legal bearings of the work they have gone at with so much zest; but before they got together in convention, they seem to have settled into a fair degree of coolness, and to mean business very distinctly. Their "granges," so called, or anti-monopoly clubs, are now to be found in Illinois, Iowa—where the movement began, and where they are said to have fifty thousand men enrolled—Kansas, Indiana, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

After Governor Beveridge's speech, General John M. Palmer made a speech a good deal less conservative than the official's, and which had for its most important point the suggestion that railroad stocks should be taken by law out of the category of personal property, and thus "withdrawn from speculation." After these preliminaries, and while the Committee on Resolutions were making ready to report, a resolution was offered and adopted which "emphatically placed the seal of our condemnation" upon the increase of the congressional salaries and the securing for each of the senators and representatives "a bonus of $5,000 for services already rendered." The President was also censured by the convention, and we observe that a resolution the same in substance was at the time pending in the Illinois House and Senate. The real business of the convention then began to come on in the reading of the resolutions, which were no less than eighteen in number, and very thoroughgoing; after which adjournment till evening was voted. The evening session was at first confused and noisy, the firebrand being the free-trade resolution calling for the "repeal of the protective duties on iron, steel, lumber, and other materials which enter into the construction of railroad cars, steamships, agricultural implements," etc. It is stated by one correspondent—who represented an entirely free-trade journal—that "a Radical ring," consisting of "Mr. A. B. Meagher, of the National Protective Association, Mr. J. C. Scanlan, of the Irish Industrial League, Mr. John Harper, United States Collector, and Judge Bradwell, the Republican leader in the House," was formed to prevent the farmers from saying anything upon the tariff question, and confine them to attacking the railroads. The resolution passed, however, in spite of interruptions and disturbances of a most unseemly character, due to the late arrival of the elected officers of the convention.

The substance of the principal resolutions is as follows: The railroad companies of the world, wherever governments have not controlled them, have proved themselves as extortionate and opposed to free institutions as the robber-barons of the Middle Ages; their despotism shall be subverted and destroyed; the State, in the convention's belief, did not and could not so far part with its sovereignty as ever to create a corporation that could not thenceforth be controlled by its creator; the railroad corporations (representing in Illinois $250,000,000 of money in the hands of a few men, and representing in the whole country $4,000,000,000) are to be viewed with alarm; the General Assembly must pass laws "fixing reasonable rates for freight and passengers"; the present statute providing for the "classification" of railroads, so as to adjust the tariff of charges according to gross amount of earnings, is a "delusion and a snare," for the roads classify themselves as they please; a bill should be passed which, "recognizing the principle that railroads are public highways," shall compel the companies to make "actual connections" between roads that meet and cross each other; the Legislature should pass a law making it a misdemeanor for a legislator to travel on a free pass from a company; whereas the Constitution of 1848 forbade special charters (except for municipal purposes), it is extremely doubtful whether all Illinois railroad charters granted since 1848 are not invalid; and whereas the Constitution of 1870 forbade the watering of stock, and whereas nearly every railroad in the State has since then issued watered stock, it is the duty of the Railroad Commissioners to institute proceedings against the companies. Of these resolutions all passed without material alteration, as well as the tariff resolution of which we have spoken, and the convention laid on the table a resolution declaring it the duty of the National Government to improve the Illinois River, an affluent of the Mississippi, which waters Central and Western Illinois for a distance of about 500 miles, and is navigable with good luck and sufficiently small craft for about half its length. The farmers were, however, bent on having railroads, and no proposition looking to old-fashioned internal improvements had any chance with them.

"Under instructions of the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. E. O. Graves, of the Civil-Service Board, went South in the middle of last week, accompanied by Mr. S. I. J. Kimball, of the Revenue Marine Bureau, to visit the principal Southern Custom-houses and subtreasuries, and to put in operation the civil-service rules, which will be substantially the same as those at the New York Custom-house. Mr. Kimball goes also in connection with the Life-Saving Service, but Mr. Graves goes with special reference to putting the public service on a civil-service footing. The examination of the 565 applicants for the 40 vacancies in the Treasury was concluded yesterday, and it will be two or three weeks before the result can be written up and tabulated. The candidates for each day who came up to an average of 80 are not more than ten per cent. of each day's list." This we give as semi-official, and the latest news that we have anywhere seen concerning this greatest modern source of interminable and flatly contradicting assertions. From the same authority we quote these further facts, which we leave our readers who know Mr. Collector Arthur and his friends to reconcile as may best be done. "Mr. Curtis alone"—it is about Mr. Curtis's resignation that the correspondent is writing—"warmly espoused the promotion of Mr. Benedict because it would be a conspicuous thrust at the politicians." Except by Mr. Curtis, the promotion was not urged, strange to say; "but the President responded to Mr. Curtis's appeal, and appointed Mr. Benedict." Upon this, "the Senate laid the resolution on the table, and to save it from rejection it was withdrawn." In other words, the Senate would have its way, for whatever reason.

Mr. Albert S. Stickney, who gave signal proof of his ability as an investigator in the Barnard impeachment case, was wisely selected some time ago by the Erie Investigating Committee to conduct their examination for them, and the result has been "astonishing developments." The committee has now had before it an array of swindlers, thieves, "corruptionists," lobbyists, bribers, operators, and other habitual criminals such as probably were never before in the history of the world subpœnaed in any one matter. The testimony lately taken has referred chiefly to the sums of money paid out of the Erie Treasury at one time and another to the various members of this crew. To James Fisk, for instance, one item of $3,000 appears to have been paid for "carriage hire and services";

Tweed received $50,000 for the coal which he distributed in charity to the poor of his district. James Fisk's total "expenses" from March to December, 1868, were $171,400 43. Jay Gould's "legal and incidental expenses" for 1868 were $422,000. Peter B. Sweeny received for "legal expenses" in 1868, $150,000. William M. Tweed, for legal services, received $135,000 altogether; and H. D. Barbour and A. Van Vechten got some of the plunder. These two worthies are professional bribers, and they have testified with much solemnity that they have no recollection as to the nature of the services for which they received the money. Mr. Watson, the new president of the Company, testifies that, after he came into office, he was approached by a number of influential gentlemen, who signified to him, by "nods and shrugs," that, unless he was prepared to "divide," he might as well give up all hope of carrying on the Erie Railroad. He says that they did not make any request for money, and that he cannot, not being himself a master of pantomime, give the committee any idea of the manner in which they expressed themselves; but they made it very clear to his own mind, and he told them in reply that if he expended any money on them at all, it would be in having them incarcerated in the Penitentiary, and on hearing this their interest in Erie reform suddenly ceased. The most atrocious case in the whole list, however, is that of General Sickles, who, having been sent to Spain to represent the United States, requests and obtains a leave of absence, that he may come home and assist a gang of speculators in obtaining possession of a road by bribing a number of the directors. He comes over, gets an order from Washington which is so outrageous that no one is bold enough to use it, swindles everybody, including his employers in the reform movement, and returns to Spain in triumph to represent his country once more.

The Government, it is announced, has selected the Brazilian, Sardinian, and Swiss arbitrators as the recipients of two magnificent silver wine-coolers and a punch-bowl apiece, wrought by Messrs. Tiffany & Co., and given to Count Itajuba, Count Sclopis, and Mr. Staempfli, in recognition of their labors. Mr. Adams gets none, and neither does Chief-Justice Cockburn. As for these gentlemen, the Government appears to have regarded Mr. Adams, and to suppose the British Government to have regarded the Chief-Justice, not as judicial officers sitting to arbitrate, but as a pair of counsellors who were to pull against each other like two advocates, and each extort what he could from his three impartial associates. This, we suppose, is not the view of his duties that was taken by Mr. Adams; but it affords a reasonable explanation of our Government's latest action in the premises. And if the winner in a legal contest behaves with propriety when he makes presents to the judges who have given him a decree, it is perhaps as good a way of disposing of the matter as any. We cannot think, however, but that the thing would be as well undone, considering the dignity of the tribunal, the pleaders, and the cause.

In the House of Commons, on Monday evening, Mr. Lowe presented his budget. The statement shows a reduction of the national debt for the past year of £6,861,000 ($34,305,000); the actual revenue having been in excess of the estimated revenues by £5,762,775 ($28,813,875). The total debt is £785,800,000 ($3,929,000,000). The Government proposes, in view of this exhibit, which was received by the House with marked expressions of approval, to pay half the *Alabama* claims award out of the revenues of the present year, without increasing taxation; to take off 50 per cent. from the duty on sugar, and a penny in the pound from the income tax. This would make the estimated expenditures, for the year ending March 31, 1874, £73,471,000 ($367,355,000), and the revenue £73,762,000 ($368,810,000).

Count Bismarck made a remarkable speech in the Prussian House of Lords on the 10th of March, in favor of changing Articles 15 and 18 of the Constitution, which regulate the relations of the state and the Catholic Church. Like Professor Virchow, he insisted on the historical continuity between the present struggle in Germany and the old conflict of Guelphs and Ghibellines, and, in fact, that conflict of power far more ancient than the coming of Christ, and as old as the human species itself—namely, between royalty and the priesthood. It was, he said, a falsification of the issue to call that a clerical question which grew out of an attempt to subject the secular to the religious authority—an eminently political purpose. The present Papal pretensions have been those of priestcraft since the world began, there having always been priests (titled or untitled) "who declared that they knew the will of God more exactly than their neighbor, and, on the strength of this affirmation, claimed the right to command him." The wars of the Papacy against kings and emperors have had all the characteristics of other political contention: there have been treaties of peace, seasons of pause, and armistices. Some popes have been bellicose and conquering, others peaceful; cardinal prime-ministers of Catholic powers have pursued a violent anti-papal policy, bishops have sided with the emperors of Austria against the interests of the Pope. The question, therefore, is not of the persecution of the church but the defence of the state—the limitation of the powers of the priests and of the king respectively, and in such a way that the state can subsist within the limits laid down.

Since 1848 there has been an armistice between Prussia and the Papacy, as the articles of the constitution under discussion testify. These were framed at a time when the restoration of civil order seemed to depend upon the Catholic rather than upon the Evangelical population, and they would probably have remained undisturbed even now but for the behavior of the Clerical party in the Prussian Landtag. At a time during the Franco-German war when the attitude of the Italians made the Prussian Government by no means disposed to lean to their side in the controversy with Pius IX., the king and his ministers at Versailles were surprised by the formation of a party of the Centre, consisting of the Catholic members of parliament, whose aim was to act in concert for the insertion in the Constitution of the Empire of the very articles of the Prussian Constitution touching the relations of church and state. To this, Bismarck says, he attached little importance, till, on his return from the seat of war, he observed what a powerful organization this party had attained, and how, on the one hand fostering anti-German tendencies in the Polish provinces, and on the other ordering at pleasure the election of obscure and subservient deputies, it strove to supplant the Empire as it now exists with two political organisms working side by side—"one having its staff-officers in the party of the Centre, the other in the directing secular principle embodied in the government and person of the Emperor." This dualism was not to be tolerated, and the Government had been compelled to denounce the armistice of 1848, and establish a new *modus vivendi* between the secular and clerical authorities.

We have thought this abstract worth making not only as a part of the news of the day, but because the situation in Germany as described by Count Bismarck presents such a striking analogy with that in which our own country found itself before the rebellion. We had here exactly that dualism which he justly deprecates, resulting from the armistice between slavery and freedom admitted into the constitution of 1788—an aggressive pro-slavery party of the Centre violently resisting the logical development of our republican principles, dictating who should be candidates for Congress, and elevating the obscurest doughface to the presidency. All the while we listened to complaints of wanton assaults on the divine institution, of intermeddling and "persecution," from the party of mobs and lynch law, until, being no longer able to maintain its staff-officers in Congress, it transferred them to the field of battle, and, still entreating to be "let alone," began at Fort Sumter the attack which ended in the abolition of slavery and of political dualism on this continent.

THE SURRENDER OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

IT is one of the inexplicable phenomena in the life of General Grant, that while, in adverse circumstances, he has repeatedly shown a firmness of character, and especially a tenacity of purpose verging on obstinacy, on the other hand, in very easy circumstances, when almost all obstacles have been overcome, and all opposition has well-nigh ceased, he has shown a weakness, an indecision, a fatal facility for yielding, that we ought to expect only in a very much inferior man. If the master of a vessel, through a prolonged tempest, and indeed through many storms and tempests, should be found heroically resisting the threats and persuasions of his crew, and then, after triumphantly bringing his vessel safely into smooth water, should supinely allow the crew to run away with the ship, his conduct would not be more anomalous than some of the acts of General Grant's life appear. It is unfortunate for him that he deliberately avowed his belief in certain principles looking toward the better government of his country; that they were unpalatable to his political friends and associates, prejudicial, as was supposed, to his immediate political interests, and required an unusual degree of nerve to be carried into operation. It is unfortunate, because these are peculiar conditions of difficulty which General Grant's previous life seemed to assure us he would have been able, of all men, to surmount. That a successful soldier, devoid of all political experience, should not believe in the reform of the civil service, would not have been surprising; that he should have some impracticable hobby of his own which on being tried failed, and was then abandoned, would not have greatly disappointed the people who elected him; but that he should adopt a policy in consonance with the intelligence of the age, and in advance of his political supporters, and should successfully carry it so far into practical operation that his newspaper organs acknowledged it as one of the accomplished reforms of his Administration, and should then yield to the very opposition over which he had triumphed, surprising those who rejected him and disappointing those who had relied upon him, is certainly one of the strange things that nobody but General Grant would do.

Reviewing his surroundings at the particular time when he thus acted, his conduct seems more inexplicable than before. The President had been compelled to meet the opposition of his own friends, and even to endure the sneers and insults of his own political leaders. Mr. Conkling had contemptuously belittled the reform as altogether too ethereal for practical life. Mr. Morton had conjured up a caste of aristocratic office-holders lording it over the free and humble citizens of the Republic. Mr. Carpenter had flung a resolution of enquiry against it, and sneered at the President's commissioners as "a board of schoolmasters," sitting at the other end of the avenue to determine who should and who should not hold office under the Government of the United States. Against such opposition as this the President had persevered; and he had carried his derided measure of reform into practical operation without the cordial support of a single politician or a single organ of his party. He had also gone through the ordeal of a renomination, and was conceded to have carried his party through the second election, giving it more than he received, and owing it less than it owed to him; and he had reached that independence which so few men have ever obtained—the independence of being no longer eligible for the Presidency. Besides this, the arrogant power in Congress whose interference with the Executive has been the chief cause for civil-service reform, had received a check, occasioned by its own corrupt practices; and no Congress for the last fifty years had expired so much despised by the people or so little to be feared by the President. And then, at that moment, when all opposition seemed to be overcome, and the chief enemies of reform overthrown, General Grant yielded to a pressure which had almost ceased to exist.

At this time of writing, the latest intelligence from Washington authoritatively asserts that, although the civil-service commission is dissolved, the principles which it was intended to establish will be adhered to, so far as the minor offices are concerned, and indeed that an officer of the Treasury has been sent to put the system into operation in the Southern Custom-houses. But we read in the Administration papers at Washington that the President, having been so audacious as to exercise his own discretion in the matter of an appointment of a postmaster, felt constrained to offer the defrauded member of Congress the following very expressive apology, which, it is needless to add, the Washington organ publishes as something highly creditable to the President's head and heart:

"*To the Hon. James A. Garfield:*

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, D.C., March 18, 1873.

"DEAR GENERAL: In your absence I appointed a lady for postmaster at Ashtabula, Ohio, in your district. It is of a class of appointments I am glad to make, where it can be done—that is, it is giving a soldier's widow an opportunity of supporting herself and orphan children. I hope it will be satisfactory to you and to the citizens of Ashtabula.

"I am, General, very truly yours, U. S. GRANT."

We are, therefore, constrained to think that if it was necessary for the President of the United States to explain to a member of Congress, on the 18th of March, why he made an appointment of this character, no very hopeful anticipations of his independent action can be indulged in early in April.

The motive which has actuated General Grant is one not easy to understand. If, after two or three years of patient and faithful trial, the President had become satisfied that his system was incapable of accomplishing the desired results, or that it had been carried too far, and applied to officers who might be better selected in another manner, we should be bound to exonerate the President from any improper motive. If, without any such trial, General Grant had adopted the views of Messrs. Morton and Carpenter, and boldly asserted that the system was a mistake, "incompatible with free institutions," and incapable of producing practical results, a very damaging blow would have been struck at the subject of civil-service reform. But up to the latest hour the country had received continued assurances of the success of the new system, with promises of its extended application. The President had not only availed himself of Mr. Curtis's services, but he had allowed Mr. Curtis to speak repeatedly for him, and had accepted the support of that gentleman's powerful influence. It is needless to say that it was an influence that could not have been bought, and that it was powerful because the country knew that Mr. Curtis would never have given it except in the honest belief that the President and himself were fully agreed in the matter which he so earnestly advocated.

We have hitherto spoken of civil-service reform as a fact accomplished, so far as its acceptance in the popular mind was concerned, though by no means a system completed, perfected, or in successful operation. It is now apparent that it is a reform which will require renewed effort on the part of those who believe in it, before it can be considered accomplished. Whether it be continued in the weak and modified manner promised by the Washington despatches, or whether appointments be wholly abandoned to members of Congress and politicians as before, it is equally evident that civil-service reform is no longer having a fair trial. A false trial, as every intelligent man knows, is incomparably more dangerous than none at all. Many a useful measure has been thrown back for a generation by the artful expedient of pretending to try it, and then condemning it for its want of success. Whatever the President's motives may have been, we do not attribute to him any such deceitful purpose. But, however honest his motives were in the past, or will be in the future, civil-service reform is by his management placed in the false position of appearing to be tried when it has in fact been suspended.

Let us here point out a fallacy which has generally been accepted throughout the country. The system which the President has introduced has been termed, and is believed to be, civil-service reform. It is simply competitive examination. Competitive examination is not civil-service reform, but merely a means toward that end. It is possible to have the latter without resorting to the former. Indeed, many civil-service reformers are opposed to competitive examination, and hold that in England it is about to be carried too far, and that it will operate imperfectly in the civil service, and affect injuriously the ge-

neral cause of popular education. Let it be, then, understood that although this experiment of the President's should fail, nothing is proved by the failure; and that if the experiment should be fairly tried and should fail, all that would be proved is that we have resorted to defective means for reaching a most desirable end.

In England, the singular spectacle may now be seen of the opponents of the Administration opposing competitive examinations, and insisting that fitter appointments can be made by their political adversaries than by independent non-political boards. In America, our civil service is in no such plight. It is political, and nothing but political in the worst sense of the term—without system, without merit, and, we may add, in our great cities without decency. However defective competitive examination may be as a system, we accept it for the present as the only system that can raise our degraded service out of the political mire. If the congressional politician had only kept his hands off of it, it would before this have done much to reform itself. Mr. Trumbull was not far from right when he proposed to make it a misdemeanor for a member of Congress to intermeddle with the executive appointments. But such a statute would be disregarded by members of Congress just as statutes against corruption have been disregarded, and Congress is emphatically the branch of the government that the people cannot trust. So long as secretaries surrender their entire appointing power to members of Congress, and presidents write them apologetic letters, and our legislators use the executive offices of the country as their political property, it is necessary, if we would have reform, to select a system of appointment which will leave as little as possible to what is called "discretion." Public competitive examinations, in which the best man shall win irrespective of his politics, or color, or influence, seem to constitute a system that on the one hand will eradicate the party element from the appointments, and on the other will give us men who certainly cannot be very bad. In England, the system is objected to on the ground that it is not certain to select the best candidates; in America, we have not yet reached that ground of objection, and must resort to whatever system will be most likely to strain out the worthless material with which party managers would otherwise flood the service. Such a system General Grant led us to hope would be effectively established, and such a system he seems to have now abandoned.

THE "FARMERS' CLUBS" AND THE RAILROADS.

AMONG the numerous figures of speech for which the recent Presidential campaign was noticeable, that of the "prairie fire" was not the least common. This conflagration was continually promised and continually looked for, but it would not come. The prairies in fact, until after the election was over, were in a decidedly uninflammable condition. No sooner, however, was the great result decided, than, at a moment when such a phenomenon was least anticipated, they suddenly flashed up into a blaze which seems likely to make the State of Illinois, at least, uncomfortably warm in a political sense for some time to come. They had been ignited by a spark from a locomotive.

Seriously, the recent convention of the Farmers' Clubs at Springfield is perhaps the most noticeable political gathering which we are likely to see for some time to come. Very few people in the East have paid much attention to it, or to the circumstances which led up to it, and yet they possess a deep political and financial significance. They constitute in fact an earnest, though almost inarticulate, protest against the whole present organization of the railroad system of the country—a protest the more dangerous because both unintelligent and angry. The history of the Illinois movement is somewhat as follows: Under our system of railroad ownership, an excessive competition exists for the business of all competing points, while the local business of the various competing lines is an absolute monopoly. This has naturally resulted in compelling the corporations to do through business at rates often ruinously unremunerative, which again has compelled these companies to recoup themselves for their losses and secure their profits by excessive charges on the local traffic, of which they hold undisturbed possession. A case of merchandise, for instance, would be carried on through-rates a thousand miles, from New York to Chicago, for $5; but the Illinois road which took it a hundred miles out of Chicago to its point of destination, would make a further charge on it of perhaps $5 50; and this, too, though that same road would probably have completed the carriage from New York to St. Louis, another competing point, for a mere trifle more than the rate to Chicago. The local business, in fact, had to pay all.

As long as the times were good and prices high, as long as the farmers found ready markets and cash sales, this evident abuse, though noticed, excited little clamor. During the last few years, however, enormous areas of new country have been brought under cultivation, harvests have proved abundant, and prices have fallen, until now at last freights to market consume the entire margin of profit. It has ceased to be profitable to raise food. As this unpleasant fact has gradually forced itself upon the notice of the farmers, they have more and more turned their attention upon the question of railroad charges, and two years ago the present agitation began to take shape. Of course, the first resort was to legislation. A law would easily regulate the whole difficulty. Was it not notorious that a usury law always established the rates of interest? Why, then, should not a similar one settle the question of freights? Unfortunately, in granting charters to their railroads, the Legislatures of the Western States had never reserved the power either to amend or repeal those charters, or to regulate the fares and freights which the corporations might charge under them. These charters, therefore, under the famous decision in the Dartmouth College case, amounted to contracts between the States and the corporations, and, as such, came within the scope of the constitutional inhibition of laws impairing the obligation of contracts. In no way daunted by this obstacle, the first Legislature which met under the new constitution of Illinois proceeded to enact a most intricate law, establishing maximum rates of fares and freights for all the railroads in the State, and at the same time erected a board of railroad commissioners to look after its enforcement. Then came the first trouble. The corporations of course contested the validity of the law. If the Legislature could establish one rate at which they should do the work of transportation, it could establish another. They were fighting for their lives and property; it was again taxation without representation. With much trouble and popular perturbation, a case was brought before the Supreme Court of the State, which at last held the existing law establishing fixed maxima to be constitutionally invalid, but at the same time intimated that the corporations, as common carriers, were bound to transport at "reasonable" rates, if only in each particular case what was reasonable could be ascertained. Then the Legislature, impelled by the Farmers' Clubs, took the question up again upon this basis, and proceeded to fix by a rule a test of the "reasonable." New statutes were prepared, establishing rates which were to be held to be reasonable, unless otherwise decided by a jury of twelve men. The power of the State was invoked to prosecute all cases of violation of the law, and a new board of commissioners was selected, which was supposed not to be more enlightened than the old one in the discussion of railroad questions, but more, as it is termed, "in sympathy with the people." Here the case now rests. The wheel has fairly gone round its entire circumference, and the people of Illinois have got back in the nineteenth century to the position of England in the sixteenth. An arbitrary power is claimed in the supreme legislative body to decide on the reasonable rates of the cost of private services. Just as three hundred years ago the price of bread and of labor was regulated by act of Parliament, so now the cost of transportation is to be fixed by a jury of twelve men. Almost necessarily, the verdict of the twelve men can be known in advance. They may be counted upon to declare any rate reasonable which the Legislature fixes, and the corporations may make up their minds to a succession of highly unsatisfactory verdicts. We say that these verdicts may be counted upon in advance. At first glance, it may seem as though this inference was unjust, and yet, let any man who thinks at all conceive for himself, if he can, the result of a system of

legislation which made the use of boots or cotton cloth or bread depend upon the verdict of a jury of twelve men sitting at the doors of each bakery or factory. It requires no great knowledge of human nature to anticipate in such a case the speedy cooling of ovens and cessation of wheels.

Thus far, therefore, the result of the Illinois railroad war must be regarded as rather portentous than satisfactory. Legislatures are once more to try their hands at the great work of fixing prices, and juries are to decide whether the prices thus fixed are what they ought to be. Such attempts are by no means new—hitherto they have not proved beneficial. The farmers of Illinois, however, may revolutionize the ripe experience of all times and of all countries, but if they do it will be through the use of a singularly mediæval machinery. While we in New York are struggling to bring about the repeal of our ridiculous usury laws, in Illinois they have not only just re-enacted them, but they are exerting themselves to extend their operations over railroads, elevators, and cattle-yards—over, in a word, the whole machinery of their business. While we are discussing the shortcomings of the jury system, they are elevating that somewhat obsolete tribunal into a species of grand, general financial regulator. The panel is, in future, to pass upon disputed points of political economy—a method of arriving at correct results which never probably suggested itself to the late Dr. Adam Smith. Still, unique as the machinery is, it will not improbably grind out the result immediately desired by its ingenious inventors. But what then?—will their condition be thereby improved? This we gravely doubt.

What, after all, is the occasion of this plethora of the produce of the West, which has gone on reducing prices until profits are now wholly eaten up in freights? Manifestly it is due to the fact that railroad development has extended the area of attainable food-producing lands over so wide a region that more food is produced than can be disposed of to a profit under the present cost of production. Let us suppose that the hope of the farmers was realized, and that their great staples could be brought to the market at half of the present cost, what would be the result to them? Would they profit by the reduction? It is difficult to see how they could. The immediate result would be a vast extension of even the present area of profitable food production, and the introduction of a new host of competitors. Every reduction of rates would thus enure wholly to the consumer—not at all to the producer. Return freights might be lower, which would somewhat, though to a very small degree, reduce the price of manufactured articles in the West, but the farmer would have no more money in proportion to buy them with. The difficulty is in over-production at the present cost of production, not in high rates of carriage. To increase his profit, the farmer must reduce the cost of growing his crops, and at the same time limit the area which competes with him, otherwise every dollar yielded to him or extorted by him in rates will accrue not to his benefit but to the benefit of the consumer, and of other farmers further West now excluded from the market.

So far as the present phase of this question is concerned, therefore, the remedy would seem to be beyond the reach of the railroad corporations. Every possible concession which the most enthusiastic farmer demands on their part would but remove the seat of the struggle. But it still brings forward into clear, strong light what must inevitably prove one of the momentous questions of the future. In its essence, that which the farmers demand is just. They ask for an access to their markets which shall combine the three elements of certainty, economy, and impartiality. All these are reasonable demands, and yet these are just what the existing system of transportation can never afford. It is not the fault of the railroad corporations. It is nothing less than the breakdown of competition as applied to our railroad system. The cost of transportation cannot be certain where it is necessarily subject to periodical wars of rates, resulting in brief truces of extortions; it cannot be economical while performed by many agents dividing the traffic, which can only flow cheaply when concentrated in single broad, deep channels; it cannot be impartial while the results of ruinous competition at one point must necessarily be made good by double profits at another. In other words, we are gradually realizing that this enormous interest has been built up on a false economical principle—that competition will regulate where it has free, full play, but where it has not such full, clear play, it must confound.

A vague glimmering of this difficulty is beginning to dawn on our people. The remedy for it lies far beyond the verdict of any twelve men in a jury-box; however intelligent these may be, they can hardly supplement defective laws of trade. The contest now going on in Illinois is one of the early skirmishes of the impending war, which, unless we greatly err, is destined to produce industrial, social, and, above all, political changes in this country of the most startling description. The locomotive is coming in contact with the framework of our institutions. In this country of simple government, the most powerful centralizing force which civilization has yet produced has, within the next score years, yet to assume its relations to that political machinery which is to control and regulate it.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, March 22, 1873.

WHEN last I wrote to you, we were still looking forward to the great fight over the Irish University Bill. I was at that time disposed to think that the second reading would pass, but that the bill would be hopelessly mangled in committee. The result, however, was, as you already know, more speedily and decisively unfavorable. Mr. Gladstone's administration has received a severe blow, and, though it has now come back again in its old shape, its prestige is seriously diminished. The bill now deceased may be dismissed with a very brief epitaph. Nobody was in favor of it with the exception of the Ministry and their thick-and-thin admirers, and nobody will weep over its remains. The only real question was whether the party ties of the majority were strong enough to stand the strain of so unpopular a measure, and that question has been decided in the negative. Mr. Gladstone's normal majority is between 80 and 90; some 35 Irish Roman Catholics deserted on this occasion to the enemy; and the supplement necessary to convert the majority into a minority was derived from the ranks of the discontented Radicals. Mr. Fawcett and about seven others went into the lobby with their natural enemies, the Conservatives, and with the natural enemies of both, the Ultramontanes; and thus a heterogeneous body was brought together, just sufficient to give a quietus to the Irish Bill. And then appeared the admirable nature of the British Constitution, which gave us once more the edifying spectacle of a ministerial crisis. Everybody knows that our Constitution is the pride and envy of the world, and secures liberty without license, flexibility without weakness, and, as somebody says, a good many things without a good many other things. However, the venerable machinery is at times a little cumbrous, and can only be made to work by a vast expenditure of solemn and, to the irreverent, rather tiresome speechmaking. Our Government, as Mr. Bagehot explains with sympathetic admiration, is in reality government by a committee of the House of Commons; but the beauty of the system is that we carefully conceal the fact from ourselves and from everybody else. The veil of royalty descends over the great magicians who arrange the working of the machinery, and shrouds them in sacred obscurity whilst they are going through their mysterious observances. The effect of this upon the language of the chief actors is not a little bewildering. Mr. Gladstone is in his way a master of English, though at the best of times he is apt to be verbose and intricate. But when he comes forward to reveal to the outside world the principles which have guided his steps in the innermost sanctuary, his language becomes so stately as to be barely intelligible. Here, for example, is a sentence literally copied from a document which he laid before the Queen, with the view of accurately defining his position for Her Majesty's satisfaction:

"In humbly submitting this representation to your Majesty, Mr. Gladstone's wish is to point out the difficulties in which he would find himself placed were he to ask your Majesty for authority to enquire from his late colleagues whether they or any of them were prepared, if your Majesty should call on them, to resume their offices, for they would certainly, he is persuaded, call on him for their own honor, and in order to the usefulness of their further service, if it should be rendered, to prove to them that according to usage every means had been exhausted on the part of the opposition for providing for the government of the country, or, at least, that nothing more was to be expected from that quarter."

All which means, in brief, we won't come back to office unless it is quite clear that the opposition can't take our places. The position, in fact, is simple enough. The present Government has a very large majority on all questions but one. By a special infelicity, they happened to knock their

heads against that particular wall. They have found the wall harder than they expected, and in that direction are brought to a dead stop. The natural conclusion is that they ought to go on with the work which they can do, and waste no more time over the work which they can't do. Let us by all means drop this dead bill and pass the Judicature Bill, settle the budget and the taxes, decide upon our foreign policy, and carry on the business of the country, which is of pressing importance. That, in fact, is the conclusion which we have reached, but we have had to reach it through all manner of devious and intricate paths. Government had to show that they were in earnest; they were bound to resign when the bill failed, and give every chance to other men to take their places. Consequently, the abandonment of the bill involved throwing the whole machinery out of gear for a fortnight or so, and all the proper constitutional parade of interviews between Her Majesty and Her Majesty's humble servants, and the production of elaborate manifestoes, such as that from which I have quoted. Well—there is little enough harm done as matters stand; we have got back again to our old position, and the Government will go on, with some injury to its reputation, but it is to be hoped with a greater eagerness to retrieve its reputation by hard work in other departments of legislation. The great anxiety of the House of Commons was to know whether a dissolution was to be expected this autumn. The general impression seems to be that it will take place, inasmuch as members are growing unruly, as the Government has shown its weakness, and as the natural end of the Parliament approaches.

For this reason, the byplay which took place between Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Disraeli was watched with special interest. Mr. Gladstone, it was generally thought, was sincerely anxious to retire. He has done a great deal of very hard work during the last four years, and is a man who never shirks his work, or, indeed, takes it as easily as a man of calmer temperament would consider wise. It is supposed that he would not be unwilling to retire into the comparative quiet of opposition, when he might employ his leisure in writing a great theological work for the confutation of Strauss. As he is the greatest of living financiers, and not precisely the greatest of living theologians, he naturally imagines that theological speculation is his proper calling. However, this is a mere guess; and his readiness to retire admits of a different interpretation. Mr. Disraeli evidently thinks, and there is some plausibility in the theory, that this wish for retreat is merely another form of a desire for power. Pope, indeed, observes of his friends:

> "If merely to come in, sir, they go out,
> The way they take is strangely roundabout."

In fact, however, roundabout ways are occasionally the shortest. In the present case Mr. Gladstone—if Mr. Disraeli be a fair interpreter of his motives—was playing a very simple game. By inducing Mr. Disraeli once more to take office whilst in minority, he would be making his opponents ridiculous. Mr. Disraeli, indeed, has been caught in that trap twice before, and is too clever a politician to fall into it again. In a very clever speech, full of his usual keen wit, Mr. Disraeli painted the miseries of a ministry which only holds office on sufferance. The majority, whilst making great professions of fair-play, can easily subject him to constant humiliation; and, after a few months' uncomfortable balancing in the seat of power, the luckless minister has to appeal to the country under the burden of misfortunes for which he is not really responsible. The portrait was painted with infinite spirit, for it was painted from the life. In short, if Mr. Gladstone is sincerely anxious to retire, Mr. Disraeli is as sincerely anxious not to come in. He will not have his hand forced by his antagonists. He is playing a waiting game, and hopes—not, it must be admitted, without some justification—that a few more blunders and failures of the existing administration will turn the stream still more decidedly in favor of the Conservative reaction. With great cleverness, he made a speech calculated to serve as a manifesto in view of a coming dissolution. He could not, indeed, hold out any very distinct line of policy, for he argued rather extravagantly that it was unfair to expect that an opposition leader should be provided with a definite policy, inasmuch as he was not in possession of the necessary information. But he touched with infinite dexterity on the various weak points of the existing Government. He took care to repudiate any connection with the Catholics, who had accidentally voted with him in the last division. He referred to the great expenditure in which we are still plunged, although the profligate expenditure of the Tories had been the main cry at the hustings on the last occasion. He noticed the various humiliations incurred by our foreign policy, and hinted that he possessed the true secret of solving the Asian question and satisfactorily settling neutral rights. He declared that, as awkward questions had been effectually cleared out of the way, a great career offered itself to the Conservative party of the future; and although this part of his speculations was concealed under a judicious haze of generalities, he succeeded in conveying the impression that he would be an admirable party leader when the right time came, and that meanwhile any discontent felt by his followers at his reluctance to take office was thoroughly unreasonable.

For the rest of the session we have no definite reason to expect any very exciting topics. The great subject of debate ought to be Lord Selborne's Judicature Bill, on which opinions are very much divided—some lawyers arguing that the reforms proposed are really delusive and nominal, whilst others regard them as a long step towards better things. At any rate, it brings up a subject of very great importance, and one is glad to see a substantial effort at law reform occupying the attention of Parliament, which is too apt to prefer more flashy and popular subjects.

Notes.

A NEW work, 'Play and Profit in My Garden,' by Rev. E. P. Roe, author of 'Barriers Burned Away,' will be published this month by Dodd & Mead, who announce also 'Questions of the Day,' by Rev. John Hall, D.D., with a new edition of his 'Paper for Home Reading.'——The Executive Committee for the collection of the Woolsey Fund of Yale College report an aggregate of $154,394 53 as having been subscribed, and of $69,580 79 as being in the treasurer's hands on March 15. It is desired to pay over the first instalment of $100,000 on Commencement Day (June 26), and contributions should be sent either to Mr. Henry C. Kingsley, Treasurer of Yale College, or Mr. Alexander H. Stevens, Treasurer of the Committee, Gallatin National Bank, N. Y.——Carl Habel, Berlin, has in press 'Prolegomena' to a new edition of the 'Imitatio Christi' of Thomas à Kempis, which is to be not only an introduction to his complete works, but an attempt to establish finally his authorship of the 'Imitatio.' For this purpose his original autograph will be made use of as never before, with due reference to its peculiarities (especially its punctuation, neglect of which has obscured the rhyme and rhythm of the composition), to its division into chapters, etc. Numerous facsimiles of important manuscripts, including that of the 'Imitatio' itself, will be given. Pastor Hirsche of Hamburg is the editor.——Joseph Albert, the well-known Court-photographer of Munich, and inventor of the permanent-printing process which bears his name, invites subscriptions to a large quarto 'Album of the Passion Play at Ober-Ammergau.' This is an account of the play, with the text and songs of the chorus, by John P. Jackson, illustrated by a series of twenty etchings from the drawings of 'The Homes of Ammergau' by Eliza Greatorex, and sixty large photographs of the scenes and tableaux taken by Albert himself. Mr. Jackson has already edited a similar work on a much smaller scale, but without illustrations. The 'Album' will contain, besides those mentioned, a view of the village of Ober-Ammergau, and portraits of the delineators of Christ in 1850, 1860, 1870, and 1871—in all, more than eighty pages of art leaves and two hundred pages of text. Two hundred copies only will be published, and the price is fixed at £10 10s.——'The Life of Friedrich Schiller' is the latest volume of the admirable ninety-cent edition of Carlyle's complete works. (New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong.)——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have issued the 'Pickwick Papers' as the first of a new library edition of Dickens, printed in large type on the best paper, and illustrated with steel engravings by H. K. Browne, Cruikshank, and others. They announce as in press the following works; 'Work, Play, and Profit,' by Anna M. Hyde, being gardening for young folks; 'Thinkers and Thinking,' by John Darby; 'Thoughts on Life and Character,' by S. P. Herron; 'The "Spiritual" Delusion,' by Dyer D. Lum; 'The Great Trial,' by A. C. Harness—an arraignment of the Genius of Civilization; 'Gone Before,' by Henry Southgate; a novel, 'Under the Surface,' by Emma M. Connelly; poems, 'Leisure Moments,' by H. Helen Nunes; and 'Queen Loo, The Prehistoric Woman, and Other Poems,' by G. Narramore.——The spring announcements of Holt & Williams include 'Essays,' selected from the papers of the late Professor James Hadley; 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity,' by Fitzjames Stephen; Strauss's 'Old Belief and the New'; Tylor's 'Primitive Culture' and 'Early History of Mankind'; 'History of German Literature,' by Gostick and Harrison; the second volume of Freeman's 'Historical Course,' being the volume on England; and a large addition to their 'Leisure-Hours Series'—novels by Turgenef, Cherbuliez, Droz, Freytag, etc., and 'Scintillations from Heinrich Heine,' translated by Simon Stern.

—*Hygiene* is the name of a fortnightly journal of sanitary science published in this city through Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons, which we can confidently praise for the intelligent manner in which it is edited, as well as for the excellent taste displayed in its typography. In form it is an 8vo of 32 pages, convenient for binding, though the plan and scope of this periodical

make of every issue a valuable tract for public distribution. It is very far, however, from having the scrappiness and disjointedness of a tract. It has regular departments, not, as in the case of the so-called health journals of another stamp, for general, unsystematic, and more or less charlatanical talk on hygiene, but for the practical discussion of current topics from a scientific point of view, giving to the meaning of "hygiene" such an extension as makes it equally proper to discuss the physical aspects of hanging and to point out defects in the construction of the Warren Cooker. There is an evident purpose to avoid anything like padding. We should mention as being particularly interesting and valuable the summary called Health-Notes, the Analyses and Comments, and the Book-Notices. A little later in the field is the monthly journal, the *Sanitarian*, edited by Dr. A. N. Bell, and published by A. S. Barnes & Co., New York City. It has a less popular character than *Hygiene*, giving in full what the latter gives in abstracts, and so rather addressing itself to the profession, who ought to find their account in it. The April number (No. 1) has an article on the New York Quarantine Establishment, by the editor, with illustrations and a quarantine chart of the harbor.

—A noteworthy series of papers, by Mr. Howard Staunton, has lately appeared (and, it is to be hoped, is not yet finished) in the *Athenæum* on "Unsuspected Corruptions in the Text of Shakespeare." All such contributions to Shakespearian literature are to be warmly welcomed. They are not the haphazard guesses of a novice, but the results of years of such training as the editing of Shakespeare can alone give, and are supported by parallel passages from Shakespeare's own works and from contemporary Elizabethan literature. Although we may not always be convinced that the passage in question is corrupt, or that, if corrupt, Mr. Staunton's conjectural emendation is the happiest to be found, yet the mere fact that so keen a critic has expended on it some of his best thought is sufficient to make us pause and reflect—and is that time ever to be counted lost which has been devoted to a passage in Shakespeare? It is minute verbal criticism which is the very life of Shakespearian study. Without it there can be no genuine æsthetic criticism. Dr. Arnold felt this clearly when he said: "My delight in going over Homer and Virgil with the boys makes me think what a treat it must be to teach Shakespeare to a good class of young Greeks in regenerate Athens; to dwell upon him line by line, and word by word, in the way that nothing but a translation-lesson ever will enable one to do; and so get all his pictures and thoughts leisurely into one's mind, till I verily think one would, after a time, almost give out light in the dark after having been steeped, as it were, in such an atmosphere of brilliance; and how could this ever be done without having the process of construing, as the grosser medium through which alone all the beauty can be transmitted, because else we travel too fast, and more than half escapes us?" Every student of Shakespeare will echo these true words, and respectfully entertain conjectural emendations when proffered by such scholars as Mr. Staunton.

—That very large portion of the unscientific public which is interested in questions relating to the "future of the earth," will do well to look at No. 7 of "Half-hour Recreations in Popular Science," published by Estes & Lauriat, Boston. The number in question is a paper by Prof. A. Winchell, of the University of Michigan, on the "Geology of the Stars," in which he gives a summary of the present condition of scientific knowledge with regard to the history of matter, from its nebulous to its stellar, and, finally, its planetary condition. On the probable future of the earth, the first two phases throw no light, but the last does. There is in the moon, as every one knows, no present evidence of the existence of an atmosphere or of water; but their "former existence is a fair and direct deduction from the doctrine of the common origin of the earth and moon." But if they once existed, how shall we explain their disappearance? They have been absorbed by the rocks. In an age long gone by, the moon was in the same physical condition as the earth. The water on its surface, or that which descended in periodic storms, as it percolated the porous rocks and thin crust of the moon, soon reached a temperature which dissipated it in vapor, and returned it to the surface, to be recondensed. But the moon, having only one-forty-ninth the bulk of the earth, cooled forty-nine times as rapidly as the earth, and at length a temperature was reached at which the rocks on the surface took it in faster than it could be evaporated again. "The moon is a fossil world, an ancient cinder suspended in the heavens, once the seat of all the varied and intense activities which now characterize the surface of our earth, but in the present period a realm of silence and stagnation."

—Such will be the fate of the earth. Already our planet has passed through the "ring condition" now presented by Saturn, and the stage now seen in Jupiter, in which "a water mist begins to condense in the peripheral regions," and gathers with a vaporous envelope; this precipitates an aqueous rain, which ultimately finds a resting-place upon the incrusted nucleus. Later, life makes its appearance. Then comes the terrestrial stage, in which we now are, and in which the "organic phase culminates." Then comes the stage in which Mars now seems to be, with diminished vapors and infrequent rains, encroaching cold, and "decline of the organic phase." Last of all will be the stage in which the moon now is, beginning with the disappearance of aqueous vapors, ending with the total absorption of ocean and air, the extinction of organization, and final refrigeration:

"The progressive cooling of the earth will allow the waters to circulate deeper and deeper. When the thickness of the terrestrial shell, which must be saturated with water, has doubled, the increased demand must lower the waters of the ocean, and long before refrigeration has reached the centre the thirsty rocks will have swallowed the sea and all our surface waters. The drained, and shrunken, and shivered zone lying nearer the surface will suck in the atmosphere, and this will disappear in the pores and the caverns of the worn-out world."

—The cumulative plan of voting has received a check in Pennsylvania, where there was reason to hope much from a trial of it, as we intimated in our recent notice of Senator Buckalew's work on the subject. It now appears that the act passed through his influence, providing that councilmen, etc., in boroughs throughout the State should be elected by the cumulative vote, proved so unpopular that during the winter several boroughs procured the passage of acts exempting them individually from the application of it. These the Governor vetoed, on the ground that it was better that a general law should be abrogated all at once rather than by piecemeal; upon which the Legislature, with yet other special acts looming up before it, passed an act repealing the Buckalew statute, and last week the Governor gave it his signature. We must freely admit that this result is more disappointing than discouraging. Pennsylvania is but stony ground for political reform, even of a sort not more advanced than cumulative voting. It is now in order for Mr. Buckalew and his friends to reopen the discussion of minority representation, and to continue it until comprehension of the principle leads naturally and without coercion to the adoption of practical measures as fast and as far as enlightenment spreads.

—That interesting question regularly discussed in American society after dinner, "How ought Englishmen to be put to death?" will be the subject of more lively debate than ever when our public become aware of certain statements which are made by the well-known Dr. Letheby; and we suggest that the discussion be brought to a close at an early day, debate having already too long postponed action. Dr. Letheby, Toxicologist, Medical Officer of Health for the City of London, M.B., Ph.D., Fellow of the Linnean and the Chemical Society, Lecturer on Chemistry to the Corporation of London, etc., etc., etc., when, in his excellent book on 'Food,' he has occasion to speak of the people of the United States and their *cuisine*, puts forth many nefarious sentiments, of which this that follows is a sample: "The sallow, weazen look of the natives of the Northern States of America is thought to be due to the indigestible preparations of Indian corn, called *mush*, *hominy*, or *Johnny*, which constitute the chief portion of their daily meals." Again he says: "In certain districts of North America, especially on the Allegheny Mountains, the flesh of all the cattle is poisonous, and so, also, is the milk they yield, and the cheese which is made from it." And yet again—after being compelled to admit that "hares" [a British animal—ED. NATION] which have fed on the *rhododendron chrysanthemum* "are frequently unwholesome"—he makes haste to add that "the same is the case with pheasants in Pennsylvania and Philadelphia" (*sic*). Philadelphia pheasants, it seems, "feed during the winter and spring on the buds of the wild laurel" which abounds; and Dr. Letheby has also known "many instances of serious mischief from prairie birds, which are largely imported into this country from America, and attributes it to the food made use of by the bird." Over here, Tenterden Steeple is supposed to be the cause of these seizures, which are never severe, the usual remedy being a few less prairie "birds" at a time. As for the "mush or Johnny," it is at least better than the cow-heel and three half-quarterns of gin which constitute [fact—ED. NATION] Dr. Letheby's notion of "a square meal," as the English call it. We may return to this subject again; meantime, if distinguished English gentlemen, when writing about the thirty or forty weazen millions of their kith and kin on this side of the water, would take half the pains to be correct before they talk that we over here always take whenever we have to speak about distinguished Englishmen, it would be "more better," to use the language of Andrew Marvell, private secretary of Milton, whose immortal works both countries possess in common.

—The *Athenæum* speaks of an English lady, Miss Anna Blackwell, who has recently had printed, for private circulation, a pamphlet entitled 'Spiritualism and Spiritism,' which must be rather curious. Miss

Blackwell claims, it is said, the credit of being the person who first introduced Spiritualism into France (so long ago as 1850), and now of laying before the English public "the far more intellectual and refined doctrine of Spiritism." Spiritism appears to have for its distinctive features the doctrine of the reincarnation of souls, and thus to differ little, if at all, from the ordinary belief in metempsychosis—though we speak under correction from any heathen reader skilled in this latter doctrine. A principal difference between the two is perhaps that, according to Miss Blackwell, some of the more highly endowed subjects of the Spiritistic reincarnation have not merely Plato's "dim reminiscences" of the soul's former habitation in this world, but a perfect knowledge of their former estate. Thus, the late M. Allan Kardec could recollect the time when he was here as John Huss, the Bohemian Reformer, who was burnt at the stake in 1415. As 1415 is only four hundred and fifty-eight years ago, and as M. Kardec died some time since, it will be seen that his life in his last human form—if that of Huss was his last—must have been acceptable to the powers controlling the transmigration, four hundred and odd years being a rather short interval between human incarnations. In Miss Blackwell's own case, if we may trust the *Athenæum's* brief synopsis in a matter of this degree of delicacy, the interval since she was last in human form is rather more than five thousand four hundred years; and for reason good. She says that she has authentic evidence, revealed to her by two spirits, that in the year 3543 B.C. she was a princess of Abyssinia. The first spirit who communicated this intelligence to her was her father of that date, and the second spirit-witness confirmed the father's testimony in the following dialogue:

Miss Blackwell—"Are you a friend?"
Spirit—"Enemy."
Miss B.—"Of this life?"
Spirit—"No. Long ago."
Miss B.—"In what quarter of the globe?"
Spirit—"Africa."
Miss B.—"In what country?"
Spirit—"Abyssinia."
Miss B.—"Before or after Christ?"

The spirit names the date as above given, says that she was one of the attendants of her questioner in the state of existence which they shared in common so long ago, and that the questioner was a king's daughter. The conversation concludes as follows:

Miss B.—"Was I good?"
Spirit—"Wicked and ugly."

The fact that the attendant is still in the spirit-world, and has not been allowed to return to the comfortable life of humanity, may be taken, we trust, as militating against her testimony, and probably we cannot be too cautious in accepting her word as to the character and personal appearance of her former mistress. But it may be that the "ugly" is used in the sense which that word bears in some American quarters, and means "cross," and has no reference to physical graces or deficiencies of any kind.

—The year 1872 has, on the whole, been well represented in historical literature, and has produced several works of permanent value. The fourth volume of Mr. Freeman's great work was late enough in 1871 to count here, and at any rate was not noticed in our last annual survey (see No. 348). This indefatigable worker has not failed to produce two or three slighter books in the interval between his fourth and fifth volumes—the 'Essay on the English Constitution,' the 'Rede Lecture,' and the 'Outlines of History,' all of which have been noticed by us. Mr. Froude, too, nearly as active in his field, has produced his 'History of Ireland,' certainly in the midst of a storm such as seldom greets a new history. On the other hand, we cannot say much for American writers, nor for English writers of the second class: there is little deserving mention under either head, except Mr. Frothingham's 'Rise of the Republic' and the two books of the Messrs. Drake—the 'Biographic Dictionary' and 'Old Landmarks of Boston.' Two important reprints—Greene's 'Historical View of the American Revolution' and Ticknor's 'History of Spanish Literature'—also belong here. In ancient history, Mommsen, no less voluminous a writer than Mr. Freeman, and who never does anything without making a mark, has issued the first volume of his 'Roman Constitutional Law' (*Staatsrecht*), unquestionably the most important work in this field since 'Niebuhr'; it forms an epoch in this branch of enquiry, as the history of the same writer does in Roman history. Dr. Ihne has issued the third volume of his Roman history, a work which is not without value, even by the side of Mommsen's greater work. His point of view is antagonistic to the Romans, and very favorable to Carthage; this third volume comes down to the fall of Numantia. Mommsen does not yet give us the Roman Empire, so long desired from his hands; but one of his pupils, Schiller, has published a history of the reign of Nero, which has received great commendation. We will also mention Planta's 'Ancient Rhætia' and Professor Nitzsch's 'Roman Annalists,' the volume published extending down to Valerius Antias. In this category belong also Burn's admirable 'Rome and the Campagna' and the first instalment of Smith's splendid 'Ancient Atlas'; while the Cesnola collection of remains from Cyprus certainly deserves mention in a survey of the year.

—The Historical Commission of Munich has published fewer important works this year than usual; one or two of the most important—as the first volume of the great 'German Biography' and the 'Chronicle of the City of Nuremberg'—are just ready for publication. Three volumes have been issued of the history of sciences in Germany—of Technology, by Karmarsch; of Zoölogy, by Carus; and of Philosophy, by Zeller. Other important works of this series (now numbering thirteen volumes) are the histories of Constitutional Law by Bluntschli and of Philology by Benfey; it is worth mentioning, as illustrating the calm, scientific spirit in which history is studied in Germany, that the histories of Protestant and Catholic theology stand side by side in the list. Of the great English series of mediæval documents published under the direction of the Master of the Rolls, we have the completion (Vol. IV.) of Roger of Hoveden, by Professor Stubbs, and the first volume of Matthew Paris, by Mr. Luard. This is also the place to mention Professor Stubbs's great collection, 'Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents,' Vol. III. containing the Anglo-Saxon Church to Alfred. Vol. I. comprises the early British Church; and Vol. II., edited by Mr. Haddan—not yet published, on account of his illness—will be devoted to the Scotch and Irish Churches. The English Historical Commission continues to unearth numerous valuable documents, chiefly belonging to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; but they are historical materials rather than history. Other histories of importance are Monod's 'Grégoire de Tours,' Hausrath's 'Neutestamentliche Geschichte'—both of which we have mentioned before—and a collection by Amédée Thierry of his papers in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* upon the history of the fifth century—somewhat similar to his brother's 'Récits des Temps Mérovingiens.' Baron von Helfert's 'History of Austria since 1848'—written in support of the reaction of 1849—should also be mentioned. Evans's 'Stone Age of Great Britain' belongs in a sense to history. The period of the Hussite Wars, the study of which received a new impulse from Palacky's great work, has of late attracted a great deal of attention from German students. Dr. Wilhelm Berger's 'Johannes Hus and König Sigmund' gives a full and graphic sketch of the Hussite movement down to the death of Huss, from an almost exclusively political point of view—a very careful and thorough study. He takes the same ground as Hefele (see *Nation*, No. 312), that Sigismund was guilty of no breach of faith towards Huss; his safe-conduct having no validity against judicial process, to which Huss voluntarily submitted himself. Those who desire a sketch of the career of the religious reformer will find Köhler's 'Johann Huss' a good popular work. The author has since published a similar work upon Luther. Professor Grünhagen, of Breslau, has published a detailed history of the Hussite Wars in Silesia, to illustrate the view that these wars were rather national—Slaves against Germans—than religious. Two volumes of the 'Scriptores Rerum Silesiacarum' (VI. and VII.) have also appeared, under Grünhagen's editorship, covering the period of the Hussite period and the Podiebrad period respectively. To these wars is traced the origin of the antagonism between Silesia and Bohemia.

ZOÖLOGICAL MYTHOLOGY.*

THE literature of comparative mythology, which, for so young a science, is already abundant and well matured, has been enriched by two recent publications, very different in scope and character, but perhaps for that very reason none the less adapted to be considered together. Professor De Gubernatis of Florence has published in English an elaborate, and for all practical purposes exhaustive, treatise upon one portion of the great field embraced by the science; and Mr. Fiske, of Cambridge, has presented in a few graphic chapters a summary of some of the most important of the results already reached, joined to a discussion of what we may term the philosophy of mythology and its relation to the other branches of primitive culture. We need only premise that both writers have done very satisfactorily what they set out to do. Mr. Fiske's papers are not merely a popular presentation of results reached by the study of others; in a science like this, which is essentially comparative, nothing is more serviceable than that students who are not specialists in it should from time to time examine the state of the science, and help in establishing its philosophy. These papers discuss one by one some of the leading classes of myths, grouped about the idea

* 'Zoölogical Mythology; or, The Legends of Animals. By Angelo De Gubernatis, Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Literature in the Instituto di Studii Superiori e di Perfezionamento at Florence, etc.' In two volumes. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1872. 8vo.

'Myths and Myth-Makers: Old Tales and Superstitions interpreted by Comparative Mythology. By John Fiske, M.A., LL.B., Assistant Librarian, and late Lecturer on Philosophy at Harvard University.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873. 12mo, pp. 251.

from which they seem respectively to have been developed; the three last are of a more general character, and the last, 'The Primeval Ghost-World,' analyzes the process of myth-making with great clearness of insight. The book, by its calm and broad spirit, is well suited to those who find themselves unprepared to follow Professor Max Müller and Mr. Cox to the full length of their hypotheses.

Professor De Gubernatis's work is, on the other hand, intended for the use of special students, and would as a whole be dry reading for anybody else. His theme is, the animals in mythology so far as they had their origin in the observation of celestial phenomena. It is true there are not infrequent expressions which would seem to imply that the author regarded this as the sole origin of all zoölogical mythology, as in the Preface, p. xv.: "There is but one general domain in which all the animals of mythology are produced, and made to enact their respective parts. This domain is always the heavens." But he admits (vol. ii., p. 422) the danger theorists are in "of confining their observations to one special favorite mythical point or moment, and referring almost every myth to it"; and says explicitly, p. 424: "It would be an exaggeration to ascribe to all the myths one unvaried manner of formation." At any rate, the most hasty consideration will suggest zoölogical myths of which this work takes no account; such, for example, as the *totems*, treated by Mr. McLennan. And it would be preposterous on the face of things to maintain that in all cases where a myth relates to animals whose home is the earth or the water, it must be ascribed to some resemblance to sun, moon, star, or clouds.

Still, one is astonished at the clearness with which this connection between the animals of mythology and celestial phenomena is proved in a vast number of cases where it is at first sight very obscure. The chief value of the book is that it goes back to the very earliest myths, those of the Vedas, gives these in detail, and then traces in each case the shape which the myth assumed, in later Hindu tradition, and among the Iranians, Turanians, (by intercourse), Slavonians, Scandinavians, etc. The materials are drawn least from the classic, the Scandinavian, and other mythologies which are generally familiar; most copiously from Asia and Russia. One is, as we have said, astonished at the variety of the symbolism found in the Vedas, and the multitude of different animals which are identified with these phenomena of morning and evening. For example, the antelope, not an animal that we should think especially likely to suggest such images: "The Rig-Veda represents to us the Marutas, or winds that lighten and thunder in the clouds, as drawn by antelopes. The Marutas are born 'shining of themselves, with antelopes, with lances, amid thunder-peals and flashes of lightning.' 'They have yoked, with a red yoke, the antelopes. The young battalion of the Marutas goes of itself, and has an antelope for its horse.' The horses of the Marutas, which we already know to be antelopes, are called winged, and are said to have golden forefeet. The antelopes of the Marutas are splendid. Nor are the Marutas only carried by antelopes; they also wear upon their shoulders antelopes' skins" (ii., p. 83). The wealth of symbolism in the Vedic myths, and its development into all the later phases, is shown most completely in the chapter on "The Cow and the Bull," which occupies more than half of the first volume, and which demonstrates many remarkable transformations of myths; although we cannot think that this single aspect exhausts the extensive and varied mythology of these animals.

In the chapter on "The Horse" we have a graphic and picturesque account of the growth of mythical pictures from the phenomena of dawn and twilight. "This continuous succession of shadows, penumbræ, chiaroscuri, and shades of light, from the black darkness to the silver moon, from the silver moon to the gray twilight of morning, which gradually melts into and confounds itself with the dawn, from the dawn to the aurora, from the aurora to the sun; the same variations recurring, but inversely, in the evening, from the dying sun to the reddish and blood-colored sky or evening aurora, from the evening aurora to the gray twilight, from the gray twilight to the silver moon, from the silver moon to the gloomy night—this continual change of colors, which meet, unite with, and pass into each other, originated the idea of celestial companions, friends, or relations, who are now in unison and now separate, who now approach to love each other, to move together, and affectionately follow each other, now rush upon each other to fight, despoil, betray, and destroy each other turn by turn, who now attract and are now attracted, are now seduced and now seducers, now cheated and now deceivers, now victims, now sacrificers" (i., p. 320). Further on, in speaking of mythical characters: "In their nocturnal journey the moon plays the part now of the good old man or the good fairy; now of the good cow or the bull; now of the gray horse, the steed of night, who in three stations bears them to their goal; now of the bird who, nourished upon their flesh, carries them to their destination; and now we have, on the contrary, the monster itself or the step-mother who threatens, tortures, and persecutes them" (p. 325). This is clear and instructive; only, while recognizing that the makers of myths saw all these things, we surely need not conclude that they saw nothing else.

Even Mr. Fiske, whose point of view is a philosophical one, is not free from this tendency of the pure philologists—exemplified in Mr. Cox and Professor De Gubernatis—to see in myths nothing but phenomena of nature translated into language; in the words of Max Müller, that "mythology is only a dialect, an ancient form of language." Mr. Fiske says, p. 22, that "it is characteristic of a myth that it is spread in one form or another over a large part of the earth, the leading incident remaining constant, while the names and often the motives vary with each locality." This language would seem to imply that nothing is a myth unless it possesses this universality; that a myth may be suggested by the daily course of the sun and moon, by the winds, the stars, and the clouds, but not by anything that is exclusively local or individual. To be sure, it is largely a matter of definition and limitation. If Hercules was the sun, and thus was identical with Perseus, Achilleus, Sigurd, and other solar heroes, still the elements of his several labors, the lion of Nemea, the hydra of Lerna, the birds of Stymphalos, must have been associated with some special local phenomena. And if a genuine myth may thus be associated with a special locality, why may not a myth be formed which is exclusively local—not connected with sun, moon, or stars, but with exclusively local phenomena, and, it may be, with temporary and exclusiveiy local occurrences—a meteor, for example, or a mirage?

Max Müller and his followers have done an inestimable service to the study of mythology, and have placed it at last upon a sure foundation. The various systems of symbolism and allegory which were proposed in former times were all inadequate because founded upon inadequate data. Mythology could not be anything but empirical until there were materials for its comparative study; now, at last, with investigations such as this of Professor De Gubernatis, we may feel that we are actually getting at the bottom of the subject, that we have an hypothesis which explains the phenomena, and which will never be set aside.

At the same time, while admitting all this, we cannot but think that the present method is inadequate likewise—not in the same way and degree as earlier theories, for this is fundamental and scientific, while those were partial and empirical—still incomplete. What has become of that interpretation of local myths which appeared so fruitful and suggestive when brought forward by Karl Ottfried Müller? It is wholly ignored and indeed denied by the new school. What has become of the historical mythology so eloquently developed by Müller's pupil, Ernst Curtius, both as representing events in early Greek history, and especially as embodying the influence of foreign thought upon the religious ideas of the Greeks? The one is absolutely denied, the other neglected. Now, if we are ever to have a really rich and edifying science of mythology, it must, to be sure, be based upon these comparative studies; but it must be recognized that the Greeks, too, as well as the primitive Aryans, possessed a constructive imagination, and that what they added is of value as well as what they inherited. A third element, too, must be recognized—that of the direct influence of more cultivated nations. For example, Hercules is not only the primitive sun-god; he is also the Phœnician Melkarth; and, for the matter of that, so far as the Greeks were concerned, he was no sun-god at all, but the heroic champion and reformer.

The execution of 'Zoölogical Mythololgy' is modest and every way satisfactory; the use of the English language is remarkable for one who "for the first time in his career as a student ventures to address himself to a foreign public and clothe his ideas in a foreign tongue." We have noticed only one incorrect expression—"skilful to rob" (i., p. 328, note). There are scattered through the rather dry treatise many brief sentences which go to the root of the matter. "It is these inconsistencies which have caused mythology to be condemned by the crowd of old but prolific pedants as a vain science; whereas, on the contrary, it is precisely these inconsistencies which raise it in our esteem to the rank of a valid science" (i., p. 89). "This is unnatural in zoölogy, but it is very natural in mythology" (p. 370). "Because the primitive man was not so much inclined to make abstractions as comparisons (to represent strength, for instance, he had recourse to the image of the bull, the lion, or the tiger; . . .), in the primitive speech of mankind no conjunctions existed by means of which to write the two terms of a comparison: hence a strong king became the lion, a faithful friend the dog, an agile girl the gazelle, and so on" (ii., p. 427). "Primitive man does not ascribe to the god any other form than those which he sees round him and which he knows; the god cannot have wings of his own, divine wings; he must become a bird in order to be winged" (p. 428). This remark may be supplemented by Mr. Fiske's, p. 79: "To the ancient there was nothing necessarily diabolical in the transformation of a man into a beast."

We will add a few words from the preface, upon the varied development

received by the same myth in different communities: "It is sufficient here to cite the complete epos which formed itself in Europe concerning the fox, to which the Indian traditions, which prefer to dilate upon the cunning of the serpent, assign quite a secondary place. It is true that here zoölogical geography comes in to explain the apparent interruption in the series of comparison, showing how it was impossible that in the Hindu legends the fox, an animal far less familiar to those regions, should become the highest type of feminine malice; while for the same reason the elephant, the giant ape, the gigantic turtle, which occupy such an important position in the Brahmanic mythology, could scarcely find a place in the mythical legends of Europe" (p. xiv). It is also a suggestive remark, of the truth of which those more familiar with the habits of animals can judge, that "the cunning of the fox has been exaggerated by popular superstition as much as the stupidity of the ass, for a mythical reason and from tradition, far more than by the observation of exceptional habits in these animals"; the fox, from its color, being "the reddish mediatrix between the luminous day and the gloomy night"—"the hour of twilight is the time of uncertainties and of deceits" (ii., p. 122).

While saying that the detailed comparison of myths, their genesis and development, is, as might be expected, rather monotonous and dry, we must not forget to mention the numerous stories introduced, especially the unpublished Italian legends, which our author has picked up himself, and those from the Russian of Afanasief. We will close with one of the most entertaining of the latter, relating to the little jorsh (perch), who appears to play the part of Br' Rabbit in the negro stories:

"The bream accuses the little jorsh, the wicked warrior who has wounded all the other fishes with its rough bristles, and compelled them to forsake the Lake of Rastoff. The jorsh defends itself by saying that it is strong in virtue of its inherent vigor; that it is not a brigand but a good subject, who is known everywhere, highly prized, and cooked by great lords, who eat it with satisfaction. The bream appeals to the testimony of other fishes, who give witness against the little perch, who thereupon complains that the other fishes in their overweening importance wish, by means of the tribunals, to ruin him and his companions, taking advantage of their smallness. The judges call the perch, the eel-pout, and the herring to give witness. The perch sends the eel-pout, and the eel-pout excuses itself for not appearing, pleading that its belly is fat and it cannot move; that its eyes are small and its vision imperfect; that its lips are thick, and it does not know how to speak before persons of distinction. The herring gives witness in favor of the bream and against the little perch. Among the witnesses against the jorsh the sturgeon also appears; it maligns the jorsh, alleging that when he attempts to eat it he must spit out more than he can swallow, and complains that when it was one day going by the Volga to Lake Rastoff, the little perch called him his brother and deceived him, saying, in order to induce him to retire from the lake, that he had once also been a fish of such size that his tail resembled the sail of a ship, and that he had become so small after having entered Lake Rastoff. The sturgeon goes on to say that he was afraid, but remained in the river, where his sons and companions died of hunger, and he himself was reduced to the last extremities. He adduces, moreover, another grave accusation against the jorsh, who had made him go in front in order that he might fall into the fishermen's hands, cunningly hinting that the elder brothers should go before the younger ones. The sturgeon confesses that he gave way to this graceful flattery, and entered into a weir made to catch fish, which he found to be similar to the gates of great lords' houses—large when one goes in and small when one goes out; he fell into the net, in which the jorsh saw him, and cried out, deriding him, 'suffer for the love of Christ.' The deposition of the sturgeon makes a great impression upon the mind of the judges, who give orders to inflict the knout upon the little jorsh, to impale it in the great heat, as a punishment for its cheating; the sentence is sealed by the crayfish with one of its claws. But the jorsh, who has heard the sentence, declares it to be unjust, spits in the eyes of the judges, jumps into the briar-brake, and disappears from the sight of the fishes, who remain lost in shame and mortification" (vol. ii., p. 346).

GERMAN NOTIONS OF OUR FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.*

ABOUT three years ago, in a review of Mr. Blankenburg's book on 'Die inneren Kämpfe der nordamerikanischen Union bis zur Präsidentenwahl von 1868,' we complained that German scholars, in striking contrast with their usual painstaking thoroughness, are wont to consider the United States as a kind of literary *terra nullius*, of which everybody may take possession. In this solitary case, a real knowledge of the subject treated is with them an object of hardly secondary consideration. So far as they condescend at all to collect material for their work, they read "with a wet finger," sighing for some ingenious Yankee to invent a machine for turning over the leaves of the books with tenfold speed. This is strong language, but it is high time to put a stop to this disgusting book fabrication, by making these easy-minded type and paper wasters understand that they will henceforth be watched and mercilessly exposed.

On page 39 of the second volume of Mr. Rüttimann's 'Nordamerikanisches Bundesstaatsrecht," we find the above-mentioned work of Mr. Blankenburg quoted as authority, and for no less a question than the reconstruction of the rebel States. This single fact sufficiently proves how competent a man Mr. Rüttimann is to write a work of two volumes on the constitutional law of the United States. We do not mean to put him in the same category with Mr. Blankenburg, which would, indeed, be doing him gross injustice. On the other hand, we cannot measure the two men by the same standard. Mr. Rüttimann is not, like Mr. Blankenburg, a general publicist of rather indifferent standing, but professor at a university, whose principal task it is to train future scholars, and whose book pretends to be a strictly scholarly work. By this pretence, he challenges a careful and thorough examination of the work, and hardly a single page can stand such a test.

One need not be very deeply versed in the constitutional law of the United States to know that it is absolutely impossible to write a good work on it without having acquired a thorough knowledge of the history of the United States. In this Mr. Rüttiman is almost entirely lacking. Want of space forbids us to prove this assertion, and to point out all the important omissions and inaccuracies consequent upon the author's inefficiency in this first requisite. We must content ourselves with mentioning that by far his principal historical authority is Neumann's 'Geschichte der Vereinigten Staaten,' one of those "wet-finger works" whose only real merit is that it strenuously upheld the cause of the Union and of the free-labor North against secession and slavery—a work so superficial that, for instance, even the main motions in the debate on the Missouri question are radically misstated. Our general judgment upon Mr. Rüttimann's work can be amply justified by stating a simple fact, and illustrating by a few examples the unavoidable consequences of it.

The original sources from which the constitutional law of the United States has to be gathered, *i.e.*, the decisions of the courts, chiefly of the Supreme Court of the United States, Mr. Rüttimann has never had in his hands. It even seems in the highest degree probable that the United States statutes at large are not among the works used by him; his knowledge of the constitutional law is entirely derived from second and third-hand sources. The manner of quoting leaves the general reader in doubt whether or not the author pretends to have consulted the original sources; an expert sees at a glance that he has not. On page 21, for instance, we read: "12 Howard 443 . . . " the quotation follows, and at the end, in brackets: (Gardner 226). According to the German manner of quoting, it should be: Howard, or Howard's Rep., xii. 443. Now, turning to 12 Howard 443, we find that there the report of the case of *The Propeller Genesee Chief* v. *H. Fitzhugh* begins. The quoting of the page where a report begins, so common in American law books, is quite unknown in Germany if a particular sentence is referred to. Finally, the sentence quoted by Mr. Rüttimann is not to be found at all in the report.

One other example of the same kind, but still more striking. On page 15, the decision of the Supreme Court in *Brown* v. *Maryland* is mentioned, and then added: "*In a later decision*, this too unconditional and general sentence has been narrowed down and rendered more exact *by the Supreme Court* in the following manner:" then follows a long quotation, which, as the author correctly states, is to be found 5 Howard 574, 575. If he had read the report himself, he would, however, have found the following sentence preceding the quotation: "This question came directly before the court, for the first time, in the case of *Brown* v. *The State of Maryland*, 12 Wheat. 419. And the court *there* held . . . ;" and immediately after the quotation: "This I understand to be substantially the decision in the case of *Brown* v. *The State of Maryland*." Furthermore, this résumé of the decision in *Brown* v. *Maryland* which is given as a later and more or less differing opinion of the court, is, in fact, not even a résumé made by the court, for no opinion of the court was delivered. "Each justice gave his own reasons for affirming the decisions of the State courts," and the résumé is to be found in the "reasons" of Chief-Justice Taney.

On pp. 57, 58, the unfortunate Gardner is again made responsible for the assertion that "*the Supreme Court* of the United States has *decided* that, if the forms and conditions of the revision (of a State constitution) are not regulated by the constitution of a State, the legislative authority of the same has alone the right to determine when and how a change of the constitution can be effected." Here allusion is made to the case of *Luther* v. *Borden*; there, however (7 Howard 40), we read: "The point, then, raised here has been already decided by the courts of Rhode Island. The question relates, altogether, to the constitution and laws of that State; and the well-settled rule in this court is, that the courts of the United States *adopt and follow the decisions of the State courts* in questions which concern merely the constitution and laws of the State."

So the author gropes on in a dim twilight, absolutely dependent upon

* 'Das nordamerikanische Bundesstaatsrecht verglichen mit den politischen Einrichtungen der Schweiz. Von Professor Rüttimann.' Zweiter Theil. Erste Abtheilung. Zürich. 1872. pp. 290.

the spectacles of Duer, Pomeroy, Gardner, Walker, etc., all doing pretty well on their rightful owners' noses, but none of them exactly the thing needed for Mr. Rüttimann, who should have learned to use his own eyes before he undertook to lead others. Yet we are comparatively well off where he holds fast to the coat-tails of the above-named gentlemen, though he is often not quite clear whence they come, nor whither they are going. Whenever he has to trust his own legs, a really painful stumbling begins. On page 31 he says: "To the States which had seceded from the Union and waged war upon it, Congress granted a restoration to their former status only on condition that *none* of their citizens (*Angehörige*) should enjoy the active right of a citizen (*Aktivbürgerrecht*) who could not take an oath that he had never broken the allegiance due to the Union." It seems hardly asking too much that a man who writes a voluminous work on constitutional law should have read the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution and the Reconstruction Acts of March 3 and 23, and July 19, 1867; but to have read them and write such a sentence is simply impossible. Perhaps Mr. Rüttimann's excuse is that he only knows of a Reconstruction Act of February 20, 1867 (p. 38). To this it could be answered that Mr. Rüttimann reads altogether too little, for it even seems doubtful whether he has read the entire Constitution of the United States. He says on page 44: "For this purpose [to fill a 'gap in the existing penal law'] the conceptions (*die Begriffe*) of a high crime and a high misdemeanor have been *created* (*gebildet*) by the laws of July 31 and August 6, 1861." In the opening argument in the impeachment trial of Andrew Johnson, Mr. Butler (i., p. 88) said: "It is but common learning that in the English precedents the words 'high crimes and misdemeanors' are universally used." We don't know whether Mr. Rüttimann will agree with Mr. Butler on this point, but he certainly might agree with us in asserting that it *should* be rather "common learning" for a writer on the constitutional law of the United States that Article III. Sec. 4 of the Constitution reads: "The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other *high crimes and misdemeanors.*"

We have purposely confined ourselves to the first sixty pages of the book. We could easily point out *in these* a dozen other blunders, some quite as great, and all of them bad enough. If a professor is not ashamed to put his name to such a fabrication, what is to be expected of the general crowd of "article writers"!

SOME NEW FRENCH BOOKS.*

THE publication of an important historical (posthumous) work from the pen of M. Villemain is the literary event of the day in Paris. From the press of Didier & Co. has just appeared a 'History of Pope Gregory VII.' on which M. Villemain bestowed the labor of nearly forty years. In 1827, the work was announced to be published by subscription, and the list was immediately filled up. At this period M. Villemain had been forced out of the Council of State by the Villèle Ministry, and the resumption of his course of lectures at the Sorbonne engaging his attention, his 'History of Gregory VII.' was not completed until 1834, when he had the manuscript recopied with the intention of immediate publication. The work, however, now appeared to him incomplete without some account of the rise and origin of the Pontifical power and policy which Gregory VII. carried to its apogee. M. Villemain therefore resumed his labor upon his book, and continued, down to the year 1845, writing a preliminary history or Introduction and retouching the chapters already completed. Although at this time two copies of the work were written out for the press, M. Villemain still retained it, making additions and corrections from time to time almost down to the period of his death (May 8, 1870). Of the four hundred and fifty pages of the first volume, more than one-half are devoted to the Introduction. Down to the beginning of the present century, the character of Hildebraud, as Gregory VII. is frequently called, was very far different from that given him by subsequent historians. In France Guizot, and in England Dr. Arnold, have vindicated his memory, while the great work of Voigt, the Protestant Professor at Halle, is at once the highest historical authority and the strongest eulogium concerning him. From a comparison of dates, M. Villemain would appear to have commenced his work before the history of Professor Voigt was announced.

Some forty years ago, Michel Chevalier's work on the United States was the revelation of a new country to the people of France, who had almost forgotten that the greater part of our territory once belonged to them, and that, at a period when men of English race had planted a struggling colony on a strip of barren sea-coast, France explored the immense Valley of the Mississippi, held the line of the great lakes and the St. Lawrence, built a fortress at Quebec, cities at Montreal and New Orleans, and dotted Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan with military posts and agricultural colonies. The desire in France to know more of the United States very naturally increased after the failure of the Southern rebellion, in support of which the French invasion of Mexico was mainly planned, and which terminated in a peremptory order of the United States Government to Louis Napoleon to take his troops out of the country. French scholars and public men had already begun to pay some attention to our literary and our political system. Guizot wrote the life of Washington. Laboulaye, Montalembert, and Gasparin vindicated the action of the Government in suppressing the rebellion, translations were published of Marshall's Washington, of the Constitution, Bancroft's History, Story's Commentaries, etc., etc.; and we now have an original French work on the history, rise, and progress of the United States. Of its six hundred pages, more than three hundred and fifty are devoted to the Colonial period and the War of the Revolution, with what seems to us a disproportionate attention to the history and affairs of Canada. Although little more than a compilation, the work will doubtless be of service in giving to strangers some general idea of the history and progress of our country. M. Fontpertuis does not appear to have any personal acquaintance with the United States, and in many minor matters his book is full of inaccuracies. Thus we have Washington writing to his dear wife "Petsy"; we are told of the Newbury Address, in which it is difficult to recognize the Newburg Letter; and we learn that the steamboat which Robert Fulton built here in New York, and which he navigated to Albany, was propelled by machinery constructed by MM. Bolton & Watt in England.

In 1869, a French pianist, proprietor of the Polish name Kowalski, made a concert tour through the United States. We have his word for it. Personal knowledge of the fact, even from hearsay, have we none. Returned home, he experiences the necessity, *il sent le besoin*, of writing out and publishing his impressions of travel. Many of the impressions are amusing, and much of the information he imparts to his countrymen is startling. Thus:

"In every other country young men make love to young women, but in presence of the parents, who closely watch their interviews. In America there is no surveillance, the young girl makes free use of her liberty, and accepts the attentions of the young man, who from this moment is her *lover*. This is called *flirter*, from *flurty*, an English word signifying to make love," etc.

Then his readers are enlightened as to the Richardson-McFarland affair. "The trial opened, and Mr. Horace Greeley, a distinguished lawyer and the editor of the *Tribune*, appeared as counsel for Mrs. Richardson." We will not shock our readers by a reproduction of the surprising psychological argument of the lawyer in question. One "Tweed," we learn, "was comptroller of the finances of the State of New York, and for many years concealed in his books a deficit of a hundred millions of dollars." At Albany our author falls a victim to an unlettered hotel-keeper, who persuades him that it is the oldest city in the United States. This, however, is not difficult to believe after the statement that vessels of fifteen hundred tons burthen ascend the Hudson River a distance of one hundred and fifty leagues. Forewarned, forearmed; so that if we wake up some fine morning and find ourselves bound hand and foot by our German fellow-citizens, Mr. Kowalski will be justified in saying, "I told you so." He warns us (p. 103) that in America "the naturalized German in no way accepts the usages of his new country. He remains what he is. They have their own places of assemblage; and first of all, the breweries, where tranquilly smoking their pipes they enunciate principles of a profound Macchiavellism. They conceal their ambition under an outside of good-fellowship (*une enveloppe débonnaire*), and, looking upon the United States as a country without owners, they hope finally to grasp the rich booty." We trust that Mr. Eugene Lawrence, who is especially charged by the Messrs. Harper with the care of our liberties, will look into this matter, and expose the nefarious plot. Finally, we take Mr. Kowalski's inspiriting galop, *Ventre-à-terre*, to be a better composition than his work, although many musical ladies were puzzled as to how its title should be translated, and naturally shrank from asking for information.

The position occupied by the Comte de Chambord lends an interest to his own individuality. It was with the hope of increasing our knowledge of the man himself that we took up 'Henri de France.' He has been so generally represented as in every way mediocre that we felt more than willing to study the other side of the question in a work written avowedly in his in-

* 'Histoire de Grégoire VII., précedée d'un Discours sur l'Histoire de la Papauté jusqu'au XIe Siècle. Par M. Villemain.' 2 vols. 8vo. Paris: Librairie Académique Didier et Cie. New York: F. W. Christern.

'Les Etats-Unis de l'Amérique Septentrionale. Leurs Origines, leur Emancipation et leurs Progrès. Par Adalbert Front de Fontpertuis.' 1 vol. 8vo, 600 pp. Librairie de Guillaumin et Cie., Paris. New York: F. W. Christern.

'A Travers l'Amérique. Impressions d'un Musicien. Henri Kowalski.' Paris: E. Lachaud. 1872. New York: F. W. Christern.

'Henri de France; ou, Histoire des Bourbons de la Branche Ainée, pendant quarante ans d'exil, 1830-1870. Par M. Alfred Nettement.' Nouvelle Edition. Paris, 1872. New York: F. W. Christern.

terest, though to be sure M. Nettement professes to be an impartial historian, with no desire but to present the exact truth to the body of French voters for whom his narrative is evidently intended. We rose from the tedious perusal of the two small volumes with the impression that the author is a political monomaniac, a man with a fixed idea, for which he is scarcely responsible. There is no reason to doubt his facts. His dates and details are unquestionably derived from good authority, perhaps from personal acquaintance with the *entourage* of the exiled prince. He gives a minute account of his education, which would have been completely under the control of two Jesuits, had not their order been so detested in France, even by the Legitimists, that it was absolutely necessary to select other tutors for him. We are assured by M. Nettement, with rather a suspicious amount of repetition, that his education was most successful, and that one of its principal results was the intense love for France preserved by the Comte de Chambord through his forty years of exile. According to our author, the Prince, who hopes to become Henry the Fifth of France, is a being almost superior to common humanity, endowed not only with all the virtues that grace an exiled prince, but pre-eminently with all those which should adorn a king of France. We are given to understand that his political ideas, though they are not specified, are the only ones which can harmonize all national liberties with the rights of the king himself, and place the government of France upon a sure, permanent, and Christian basis. His religious views are not more easily ascertained, but we presume that he does not approve of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. He trusts, however, that the virtues of St. Louis will cover a multitude of the sins of his descendants. After the fall of the younger branch of the Bourbons, he was ready to forgive them with royal magnanimity for having occupied a throne from which the French people had driven his grandfather, but only on the condition that they should prostrate themselves before his own divine right of reigning over them. He has the innate Bourbon belief that his race is as necessary to the French as the French are to his race, and he acts accordingly.

M. Nettement's book reaches to the year of its publication. The author shudders at the present state of his country. He sees no hope but in the blissful reign of Henry the Fifth. In the meantime, the Comte de Chambord himself, who will not even recognize the tricolored flag, is apparently waiting in philosophic calm until the French surrender at discretion, and call him unconditionally to the throne. He will then of his free grace grant them what political liberty they must have. In spite of M. Nettement's book, we do not feel much increase of respect for the last descendant of Louis XIV., nor any great belief that his reign would be less precarious than that of his relatives.

'*The Ocean, Atmosphere and Life*: being the second series of a descriptive history of the life of the globe. By Elisée Reclus, author of 'The Earth,' etc. Illustrated with two hundred and fifty maps or figures, and twenty-seven maps printed in colors. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873. 8vo, pp. 534.)—Among the good popular scientific books which could be selected for translation into English, 'La Terre,' by Elisée Reclus, is one of the best. Until recently the author was probably known to but few American readers, the principal popular works on natural history of which translations have been republished in this country being the sensational and somewhat superficial works of Figuier. The author of 'La Terre' has, unlike most of his countrymen, a perfect command of English and German, he has travelled extensively, and while familiar with the original scientific works relating to Physical Geography which have appeared outside of France, he has freely consulted the great Book of Nature, and has translated the labors of his peers into familiar language in a most attractive and instructive manner. 'La Terre' is an admirable popular sketch of Physical Geography, and, like all the illustrated works of Hachette et Cie., it is beautifully executed; its typography is excellent, the woodcuts are well done—clear, precise, and to the point, while the larger maps (freely scattered through the volumes), intended to illustrate some of the more general phenomena of the earth's surface, are sufficiently well executed to do credit to many a more scientific volume.

The book issued by the Messrs. Harper under the name of 'The Ocean' is a mere reprint of an English translation of the second volume of 'La Terre,' published in 1869. The translation has evidently been made by some one totally ignorant of the rudiments of Physical Geography; the French technical terms are not reproduced by their corresponding English ones; we have a medley of English and French, showing at a glance the ignorance of the translator and the very unsuccessful use made of a French-English Dictionary. What can be said to excuse such translations as the following: "Fixation of the sands by seeds"—*fixation des sables par les semis*; "barometric measures"—*mesures barométriques*. Does the translator intend to give us a chapter on pecks and quarts reduced to French measures? "Calm during a hurricane"—*calme sous le vent!* When we have such excellent terms as bores for *mascarets*, why call them tidal eddies? Why speak of the "reclamation of the earth by cultivation"? The following phrases selected at random illustrate inaccuracies to be found on every page of the reprint: "Speed of the cyclone"—*vitesse de translation du cyclone; sur le pourtour*—"path"; *demicercle maniable*—"semicircle manageable"; *Banquise*—"Antarctic land." It becomes impossible to distinguish between ignorance of the subject-matter and insufficient acquaintance with French. There is no uniformity in the standard of measures; the metric system, used of course in the original, is sometimes changed into feet, sometimes into fathoms, or sometimes retained without a word of explanation. The scale of the woodcuts, always carefully given in the French edition, is omitted. The list of the woodcuts and plates given at the commencement of the book is, in the majority of cases, rendered inaccurate and meaningless by the bungling manner in which their explanation has been curtailed. The alterations needed in the electrotypes of the cuts and in the plates of the larger illustrations, to make them available for English readers, are not well done. As little as possible seems to have been altered, and, as might be expected from such a course, the cuts and plates present an agglomeration of French and English which is disgraceful in a popular scientific book, the value of which must depend upon its strict accuracy. The thin varnish of English laid on some of the maps is altogether too transparent; we find throughout the illustrations such excellent English idioms as "Ocean Pacific, Ocean Atlantic, Sea Baltic, Sea North, América du North, Gulf of Gascogne." When more important changes were required, the purpose of the original figure has generally been lost; thus, the figure intended to show the Mediterranean flora, and especially the large map illustrating the distribution of rain, are admirable examples of useless illustrations, and many others will prove serious puzzles to the enquiring mind. We are told that the large maps were printed in England and two of them incorrectly numbered. Nothing would have been easier, we should suppose, for an establishment having the facilities which the Messrs. Harper possess, than to rectify these blunders and to have placed the maps as they are to be found in the original. This was not done, although we are informed that the error had been rectified. It certainly is fortunate for the credit of this country that the maps were printed in England; they have lost immensely by the many transfers and changes they have undergone, and cannot be compared with the French impressions. There are mistakes regarding this country which we may pardon in a foreigner, but there is no excuse for repeating such blunders when issued in a translation on this side of the Atlantic. To foist upon the intelligent American a map of Florida (Fig. 22), full of such nonsense as "Bank of Caye de Sel" ("Salt Key"), is presuming too largely on his ignorance. Nothing better could be expected of a translator who knew so little of American scientific men as not to correct Reclus in alluding to the late Professor A. D. Bache of the Coast Survey as "Franklin Bache," because he was a descendant of Franklin. The original was published in 1869, before the great explorations of the deep-sea bottom undertaken by the Swedes, Americans, and English; but might we not reasonably expect in 1873 to have this most important chapter brought down to the present time, and to find something more satisfactory than the closing lines on that subject added by the translator?

If American publishers wish to obtain the assistance of scientific men in introducing popular scientific works to the public, let them meet the growing demand by furnishing a good article; let them entrust the choice, the editing or translating, to persons who are conversant with the subjects, and not bring science into disrepute by making of an excellent book a miserable caricature, totally unfitted for its purpose.

Memoirs of a Maryland Volunteer. War with Mexico in the Years 1846-7-8. By John R. Kenly. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.)—At the outbreak of our war with Mexico, fifty thousand volunteers were called for by President Polk. In response to this call our author raised at Baltimore a company of infantry, in command of which he landed at Brazos St. Iago early in July, 1846. The book has but slight military value. An infantry captain, fresh from civil life, forced to wrestle with the harassing complications of drill and guard mounting, and whose mind is torn with distracting doubts as to the proper form of muster-rolls, can hardly be expected to be capable of imparting much valuable strategic information. One well-established fact, though, in the history of volunteer armies he appears to have reached at an early period of his experience. It is that "without pay, a soldier is one of the most disagreeable beings on earth, and without pay soldiers are not easily commanded." At the storming of Monterey, his command was repulsed with severe loss. In connection with this fact, he relates a characteristic incident concerning General Twiggs,

which is in entire harmony with all the army traditions concerning him. Twiggs should have been in the attack of the 21st of September as commander of the first division, but was absent, Col. Garland, next in rank, commanding in his place. Major Kenly relates:

"I saw General Twiggs when he came upon the field, riding from the direction of the camp, but well out of the range of the guns of the citadel. This was, I think, about noon; it might have been a little earlier, but it was after the repulse of our first assault. I was so struck with his coming almost alone, and in such very unmilitary garb, that he noticed me, and, approaching, said, 'I expected a battle to-day, but didn't think it would come off so soon, and took a dose of medicine last night, as I always do before a battle, so as to loosen my bowels; for a bullet striking the belly when the bowels were loose might pass through the intestines without cutting them.' I was very much interested at hearing all this from so old a soldier, but still it didn't satisfy me; and I wasn't astonished when I heard subsequently that General Taylor had quietly ignored his being present, and suffered the command of his division to remain with Garland."

In the matter of fighting, our author does not appear to have been fortunate, for although serving on both the lines of operations—Rio Grande and City of Mexico—he does not appear to have 'assisted,' as the French have it, at any of the important battles, after Monterey, which decided the issue of the campaign. Buena Vista was fought after his command was marched to Tampico. He left Vera Cruz for the interior, with the rank of major, but was stationed with his command at the National Bridge and Jalapa during the active operations of General Scott's army before the city of Mexico. Although the work gives us descriptions of the battles of Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey, and Chapultepec, they are not from the author's personal observation. With the aid of copies of official documents and general orders, a connected relation of the events of the campaign is presented, which, aided by the writer's sketches of what he saw, makes a work of fair interest for the general reader.

Healthy Houses. A Handbook of Drainage, Ventilation, Warming, and kindred subjects. By William Eassie, C.E. (New York: D. Appleton & Co.)—Mr. Eassie, though an Englishman, and writing for his countrymen more particularly, has kept an eye to American improvements in building and domestic conveniencies, and seldom closes a survey of any one of his topics without some allusion to what has been accomplished in the United States. We mention this, not because it adds so very much to the value of his book, but because it may reconcile the American purchaser to him, it being not unnatural to suppose that even if English hygiene is the same as American hygiene, the practical contrivances which the author describes with so great fulness are rather adapted to the conditions of English than of American living, besides being difficult to procure over here. This is of course true to a certain extent; for example, the chapter on chimneys has a much greater importance for our British cousins than it has for us with our bright skies and prevailing dry west wind. Possibly we may also think we have little to learn from them in the matter of stoves. But in the case of drainage, ventilation, water-supply, fireproofing—in any case, indeed—the description of a great number of different inventions to effect the same object necessarily involves the principles on which the discussion must turn in this country as well as abroad. With this explanation, and with the further remark that Mr. Eassie exhibits a wide practical experience of all the branches of his subject, and employs copious diagrams to illustrate it at every step, we can recommend his manual to heads of families, to architects and builders particularly, and, last of all, to the inventors.

Before yielding the floor, however, we will call attention to a work of similar purport, but written in French, 'La Maison,' by Prof. J. B. Fonssagrives, a prolific and elegant writer on hygiene, two of whose works (the 'Mother's Register' and 'The Mother's Work with Sick Children') are already accessible in an English dress. There is a general similarity in the topics treated by this author and by Mr. Eassie, but a great difference in the mode of treatment, Prof. Fonssagrives indulging in historical retrospects which, combining ripe scholarship with the natural graces of the French style, make 'La Maison' pleasant reading as well as profitable. The chapter on light—"Le Soleil et la Lampe"—has no parallel in the English work just noticed, and it marks the distinguishing point of view of the physician as opposed to the civil engineer and contractor. Beginning with the motto, "Where the sun does not enter, the doctor will," Prof. Fonssagrives insists upon the importance of choosing carefully the site for a house with reference to the points of the compass, and deciding how many windows there shall be, how large, and how disposed. He tells how to determine whether the *carré d'éclairage* (total lighting surface of a room or of a house) is sufficient for health, suggesting the use of sensitized photographic paper for this purpose. Next he passes to the quality of the glass fit for use in ordinary and in exceptional conditions, considering also its effect upon the sight; then to the use and abuse of shades and curtains, the choice of wall-papers, and so on to the subject of artificial light, of which the French would seem to have neither an abundance nor the best of the cheaper kinds.

Whether this book would bear reproduction as it stands we can hardly say. We can recommend it to architects and builders, and to persons acquainted with French, and not averse to mingling the *utile* and the *dulce* in their reading. The following extract, on the moral aspect of the open fire-place, is a good instance of our author's manner:

"Moreover, this is one of those questions which do not wholly belong in the physical category, since they involve a sentiment. The open fire-place has become, not without reason, the symbol of domestic intimacy, the centre of family gossip, the witness of all the joys and sorrows of private life. For my part, I could never, when passing before a house either in ruins or while building (and Paris has given us in the last twenty years ample occasion for meditations of this sort), behold without emotion the long black riband traced of yore upon a wall by the smoke of a fire-place. Sometimes one sees only a bit of casing, and near it a few dangling strips of carpet. It is nothing, and yet everything. Argos was once there. There have people been born and loved one another, and witnessed the birth and death of some one of their circle, and suffered, and played with children, and chatted, and read. All this makes the fire-place sacred. It must not be disturbed. . . . Though one be warm already, he still seeks the fire-place. We say domestic hearth (*foyer domestique*) to express the house (*maison*), the *home*, the 'chez-soi,' the lesser and dear fatherland; we shall never say the 'domestic heater' (*calorifère domestique*) to express the same thing. It is invincible as a tradition and as a sentiment."

Hinsides Atlanterhavet. I. (New York: F. W. Christern.)—Mr. Robert Watt, editor of the *Day's News*, a lively daily paper published in Copenhagen, is the author of this book of American travels, written in the Danish language, whose title signifies "Beyond the Atlantic." Mr. Watt is a spirited and fluent writer. He takes the reader with him across the ocean and lands him in Quebec; thence by Montreal to Niagara Falls, describing life on board the steamship, and sketching the interesting scenery of the St. Lawrence, with episodes from the early French wars, and some account of the manners and habits of the French inhabitants. Next follows a graphic description of Chicago, and especially of the great public works of that vigorous young city—the stock yards, the lake tunnel, the parks, and the successful turning of the current of the Chicago River backwards into the Illinois River. Mr. Watt was for a whole week an eye-witness of the great fire, whose scenes of horror, suffering, and death he paints in lively colors, not forgetting to applaud the astounding energies which it aroused. He next visited the Scandinavian settlements in Wisconsin and Minnesota, and gives useful and accurate information of the present condition and future prospects of the immigrants, with sketches of the trials and dangers incurred by many of them in the war with the Dakotas in 1862, when whole families of these hardy pioneers were butchered by the savages.

Although it is evident the author has been painstaking in the collection of his facts, yet this part of his book is open to the criticism that its description of early settlements in the West is much too rose-colored. He passes over the years of necessary trials and privation, and the climatic diseases which the new-comers rarely escape; nor does he allude to the severe winters in which, especially in Minnesota, as was sadly exemplified during the bitter season just past, many of the immigrants succumb. In speaking of fortunes acquired by individuals his figures are always in the millions, and he hardly alludes to the best citizens of the Republic—the tens of thousands who, by dint of industry and temperate living, rise from humble origins into easy circumstances and moderate wealth. It would also have been quite in place had Mr. Watt devoted a chapter to the honor in which work and workmen are held in America, in contrast with the false notions of respectability which prevail in monarchical countries. In his closing chapter, however, on the men and women of America, the author reveals his appreciation of the best traits in the American character, showing that he has not in this respect permitted himself to be affected by stale European prejudices. We hope that in his second volume, which we shall be glad to read when published, he may be more careful to avoid the appearance of writing in the interest of certain steamship and railway companies, rather than in that of his countrymen alone. Even the appearance of evil is to be avoided.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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High Life in New York	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	$1 75
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Owing to the misunderstanding incident to the beginning of such an enterprise, the numbers have not appeared as promptly as there is every reason to hope subsequent ones will.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

April 7, 1873.

THE week in Wall Street has witnessed the severest "pinch" in money that has yet occurred since the present stringency commenced. On Monday ¾ of 1 per cent. a day was freely paid, and we have heard that loans were made as high as 1 per cent. over-night.

The range of rates has been from $\frac{1}{16}$ and interest to 1 per cent. per diem. Notwithstanding the many calls made upon the Secretary of the Treasury to draw upon his "44 millions legal tender reserve," he has so far wisely abstained from availing himself of this doubtful method of making things lovely for Wall Street, and has kept on in the even tenor of his way; possibly Mr. Richardson has learned something from his predecessor, and has made up his mind to keep out of Wall-Street affairs. Although hard upon speculators, they can afford to stand the present high rates, but the merchants are seriously inconvenienced by them, interfering as they do with the sale of commercial paper, which, during the past week, has been almost unsalable.

The bank statement indicates that legal tenders have been locked up by the clique engaged in the manipulation of the stock market; and although there have been daily reports of the arrival of currency in this city from the interior, the clique has been strong enough to absorb and lock it up with about four millions additional. The extortionate demands of the money-lenders have caused a bitter feeling among merchants and others, who are generally borrowers, and some of the daily papers have been loud in their demands upon the District Attorney for the enforcement of the usury laws, and for the trial and indictment of the offenders. Should this be done, and one-half or even one-fourth of the parties tried who have loaned money at usurious rates of interest, the courts would have nothing else to do but to try these cases for the next twelve months; and should the parties be convicted and punished to the full extent of the law, as the papers in question demand, there would be but few moneyed men left in Wall Street to transact business. The repeal of the usury laws has so far been defeated at Albany, and we hope that those in favor of their continuance are satisfied that matters would be worse if they were repealed.

The bank statement for the week is very unfavorable, showing a loss of $4,304,000 in the total reserve, and a decrease in the total liabilities of only $5,741,600.

The banks are below their legal reserve $3,245,800, the lowest point yet reached.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	March 29.	April 5.	Differences.
Loans	$274,348,700	$273,534,000	Dec. $814,700
Specie	16,179,100	15,664,400	Dec. 514,700
Circulation	27,635,700	27,715,800	Inc. 80,100
Deposits	193,508,700	187,687,000	Dec. 5,821,700
Legal tenders	38,729,800	34,940,500	Dec. 3,789,300

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	March 29.	April 5.	Differences.
Specie	$16,179,100	$15,664,400	Dec. $514,700
Legal tenders	38,729,800	34,940,500	Dec. 3,789,300
Total reserve	$54,908,900	$50,604,900	Dec. $4,304,000
Circulation	27,635,700	27,715,800	Inc. 80,100
Deposits	193,508,700	187,687,000	Dec. 5,821,700
Total liabilities	$221,144,400	$215,402,800	Dec. $5,741,600
25 per cent. reserve	55,286,100	53,850,700	
Deficiency in legal reserve	377,200	3,245,800	Inc. 2,868,600

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$236,004,500	$37,529,500	$273,534,000
Specie	14,165,400	1,499,000	15,664,400
Legal Tenders	30,915,900	4,024,600	34,940,500
Net Deposits	161,488,800	26,198,200	187,687,000
Circulation	27,672,800	43,000	27,715,800

Considering the condition of the money market, stocks have kept up remarkably well, but it has generally been the case that, when money has been made artificially tight, prices have been supported by the large holders, who prefer paying the going rates for money to selling their stocks. In the present disturbance the "bulls" have been encouraged to hold on by the constant hope that the Secretary of the Treasury might come to their relief by drawing upon his so-called "legal-tender reserve." This hope, so far, however, has proved delusive, and they were left to paddle their own canoe as best they might. The greatest effect produced upon the prices of stocks by the stringency in the money market was on Monday, the first day of the squeeze; and by a reference to the daily range of prices published below, it will be seen that the market declined but little, if any, below the lowest quotation of that day on the very active speculative stocks, against which the demonstration was directed, while the price of investment stocks seems to have been quite as much affected as those of the "fancies." There has not been anything like a panic in the market, and the decline that has taken place has been made by a gradual falling off in prices.

At the meeting of the directors of the Central and Hudson and the Harlem Railroads on Tuesday, an agreement was made whereby the latter is leased to the former on the following terms: The Central leases the Grand Central Depot and all the track and real estate of the Harlem from Forty-second Street in this city to Chatham Four Corners, for the term of 401 years. The Central agrees to pay 8 per cent. annual dividends upon the Harlem stock and interest on its bonds. The Harlem retains possession of the Fourth Avenue line of horse-cars, and all its real estate below Forty-second Street.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange, for the week ending April 5, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100	101⅜	100	101⅝	100¼	101⅝	99¾	100¾	101	101¾	101¼	102	151,700
Lake Shore	91⅛	93⅛	91⅛	92⅜	91⅝	92⅞	9[illegible]	9[illegible]	91½	92½	91⅝	93	136,900
Erie	64	65¼	65⅜	64⅝	63⅞	64⅝	63½	64½	63¼	64⅛	63⅞	64¼	74,400
Do. pfd	74	74½	....	75	....	73½	72	74	72½	73½	.....	.....	.....
Union Pacific	33⅜	34⅝	33½	34¼	34	34⅞	33⅞	34⅜	34¼	34⅝	34⅛	34½	40,600
Chi. & N. W.	80	....	77	....	78½	....	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	300
Do. pfd	88	....	86½	87	87	88	86	88¼	87½	....	.....	.....	1,200
N. J. Central	103	....	102	104	....	104	101¾	102½	101½	....	.....	.....	800
Rock Island	113⅜	115¼	113¼	114½	113⅜	114¾	112⅝	114	113⅜	114	113¼	113¾	42,500
Mil. & St. Paul	57⅜	59⅜	57⅜	59⅞	58½	60	57⅞	59¼	58¾	59½	58¾	59½	59,900
Do. pfd.	74½	....	74½	75¼	75½	....	....	76	74¼	74⅜	.....	.....	800
Wabash	71½	72½	71⅜	72¼	69½	72⅜	69¼	70½	70¼	71	70¼	70⅜	10,200
D. L. & Western	100	100⅜	100	....	99⅜	101	99¾	99⅞	99¾	....	99¾	99¼	3,300
B. H. & Erie	3½	4⅜	4⅛	4⅜	4⅛	4⅜	4	4⅛	3⅞	4⅛	3⅞	3⅞	29 400
O. & M.	44⅛	45⅜	44¼	45⅜	44⅜	45½	44⅛	45⅜	44⅜	45⅜	44⅜	45¼	60,300
C. C. & I. C.	36⅜	39¼	37⅜	39¼	38⅛	39¼	38⅛	39	38⅜	39⅛	38⅜	39⅛	34,200
W. U. Tel.	83	86	84¾	85¼	83⅛	85¼	83⅜	84¼	84	84⅞	84½	85⅛	215,300
Pacific Mail	52⅜	56⅜	53	56⅜	54⅜	56½	54½	56⅜	56⅜	58¼	57¼	58	233,700

During the height of the monetary pressure, the price of Government bonds yielded, and on Wednesday quite a break occurred in the market, caused by sales of bonds made, it is said, for the purpose of raising money. The decline on Wednesday was equal to 1⅛ per cent. on the 5-20's of 1867—the leading bonds dealt in at the Stock Exchange. This decline lasted but for a short time, being followed by a reaction the next day, and, after going through a wide range of fluctuations, the market finally closed on Saturday at higher prices than the closing ones of last week, the improved condition of the market being due to the higher price of gold.

The following shows the course of the market, the closing quotations being given for Saturday, April 5:

	Saturday, March 28.		Wednesday, April 2.		Saturday, April 5.	
6s 1881 Coupons	120⅛	—	118⅞	119¼	120⅜	120⅝
6s 1864 5 20 "	117⅛	—	115¾	116⅛	117⅛	117⅛
1865 " "	118⅛	—	117	—	119	119⅛
1867 " "	118⅛	118⅜	116½	117⅝	118¾	118¾
1868 " "	117⅞	—	115	116½	117¾	118
5s 10-40 Coupons	112¼	—	111¼	—	112¾	113

The Treasury purchased no bonds during the week.

The market for State and railroad bonds has been dull and neglected, as might naturally have been expected; beyond some few sales of Tennessees at 80 and 80¾, and Virginia consolidated 6's at 52, scarcely anything was done in the former. In railroad bonds, prices have been well maintained in spite of the "flurry" in money, the principal effect being more to prevent transactions than to depress prices.

The Treasury received on Thursday bids for gold amounting to $5,540,000, at 117 to 117.56. $1,500,000, the amount advertised to be sold, was awarded at 117.28½ to 117.56 to ten firms. If Mr. Richardson's idea was that his programme for April would put down the price of gold, we think that he must be greatly disappointed by its effect upon the market. The first movement of the "bulls" on Monday was to run the price up to 118⅜ from 116¾, the price in the morning. Considerable realizing sales were made at the advanced price, on which the market fell off to 116⅞, only to start up again later in the week, until at the close on Saturday the quotation was 119½. The general opinion prevails in Wall Street that the movement is not by any means over, and that, before summer is passed, the price will have seen 125, if not 130. It is, however, perfectly natural that people loaded up with an article they would like to sell at a higher figure should set afloat the most extravagant predictions as to the future price.

The imports for the week were $7,576,073, against $13,886,000 for the week previous. The specie shipments for the week amount to $1,246,187, consisting principally of silver bars. The total amount shipped since January 1, 1873, is $14,593,505, against $6,101,098 for the same period in 1872, $14,978,470 in 1871, $6,679,819 in 1870, $9,678,966 in 1869, and $17,117,326 in 1868.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 17, 1873.

The Week.

IT was with profound regret that the country read on Sunday morning of the treacherous murder of General E. R. S. Canby, who was killed by the Modoc "Captain Jack" while engaged in a last conference with the Indians, whom he had little hope of conciliating, so insolent had their recent successes and their strong position made them, but whom he was desirous of sparing if he could. "He had already completed the necessary military preparations to enforce obedience to the conclusions of the Peace Commissioners," says General Order No. 3, which announces his death, "after which he seems to have accompanied them to a last conference with the savage chiefs, and there met his death by treachery outside his military lines, but within view of the signal station." The Commissioners appear to have told the Indians present at the interview that certain demands of theirs—made probably with no expectation of compliance, as the killing was already resolved upon—could not be complied with, and that the ultimatum of the Commissioners must be accepted, whereupon Captain Jack called out "all ready," and the white men were at once fired upon, Jack killing General Canby with a pistol bullet, which entered under the eye. "Thus," to quote General Sherman's order again, "perished one of the kindest and best gentlemen of this or any other country, whose civil equalled his military virtues." He was indeed one of the American citizens whose careers have been a source of pride and consolation to the country.

General Canby was a Kentuckian by birth who went to West Point from Indiana, his place of residence in 1835, graduating in 1839. Thirty-four years he had been in the service. He began his fighting in the Seminole war, and afterwards was greatly distinguished for bravery in Mexico. The outbreak of the rebellion found him in New Mexico, where the defection of his superiors left him in chief command of the loyal forces. With these he defeated his old subordinate Sibley, who was made a Confederate General, and led a force of Texans against his old commander, and he entirely cleared his sub-department, that of New Mexico, of rebels. After this, General Canby was with Secretary Stanton at the War Department; in command in this city at the time of the draft riots of September, 1863; back again at the War Department, sincerely respected and trusted; in command of the Military Division of the West Mississippi between May, 1864, and June, 1865, during which time he captured Mobile, and received the sword of General Richard Taylor, and afterwards that of General Kirby Smith, thus ending the war. Then he commanded wisely and skilfully, during reconstruction times, in the Department of the Gulf and that of Louisiana and Texas, showing himself, amid all his arduous and delicate duties, to be, as we gladly remember saying, "one of the glories of West Point"—a cultivated, law-abiding, cool-headed soldier and governor. He was sent to Oregon for needed rest and quiet, and the General of the Army and the Interior Department were only too glad that a man of his skill, experience, and courage should have happened to be on the ground when the Modoc troubles came up. His scalp is now at Captain Jack's belt, we suppose; and we hope there will be some reflection on this fact, among others, namely, that several hundreds of our estimable fellow-citizens—pious editors and members of the Indian Ring, rum and blanket and bacon sellers, Indian agents, and so on—are to-day rich men by reason of the sale of Colts, and Smith & Wessons and fixed ammunition to these Captain Jacks and Boston Charlies. Canby is dead, but some of the rest of us are above want.

It would be very absurd to allow the tragedy, however, to bring what is known as the peace policy of the Administration towards the Indians into contempt, as many people in the first moment of excitement seem disposed to do. That policy has not been tried long enough to test it thoroughly. The effects of a century of rascality and cruelty cannot be wiped out by any policy, however wise, in four years nor in eight. Moreover, it cannot possibly be sound policy for a civilized community either to treat any body of men, however degraded, as wild animals, or to give them up as fair game to a gang of thieving, lying, cozening politicians calling themselves "agents" and "contractors." In so far as General Grant is trying to get the Indians to adopt a civilized life, and to protect them from knavery, we do not well see how he is to be condemned. But one thing that is wrong in the policy of the Government, and what has led to the recent tragedy, is the practice of considering roving tribes of Indians as sovereign powers, and negotiating with them as such with all the forms of diplomacy. This reached the last extremity of absurdity when General Canby sat down on behalf of the United States in conference with Captain Jack, Nasty Jim, Bogus Charley, Hooker Jim, and other worthies of the same kind, representing not even a tribe, but forty or fifty thieving cut-throats who were lurking behind the adjacent rocks, and had for two months been bidding defiance to the Government and the laws. We ought not to have needed this shocking affair to demonstrate the unwisdom as well as ludicrousness of proceedings of this sort. The "peace policy" needs, as a necessary accompaniment of it, the repeal of all legislation exempting any persons living on the United States soil from the operation of the laws of the land, the relegation of the Indians, like other people, to the jurisdiction of the courts and the pursuit of the sheriff; the treatment of all roving tribes as, what they are, bands of murderers and marauders, and the rigid and persistent presentation to them, without ifs or buts, of the alternative of agriculture or death, and the employment of such force as may make this alternative a dread reality. The pursuit of these people with such little detachments as we now employ is cruel to them and discreditable to us.

Mr. Curtis's letter of resignation has been published during the week, and gives as the reason the fact that the circumstances under which several important appointments have recently been made, seemed to him to show an abandonment both of the letter and spirit of civil-service regulations. This drew a sort of (apparently) semi-official reply from the Washington *Chronicle*, according to which the cause of the difficulty was a difference of opinion, originating some time ago, between the President and Mr. Curtis—the President holding that the rules ought to be so modified as to permit the transfer of officers from one branch of the service to another, which, in Mr. Curtis's view, would be hostile to the leading principles of reform, these requiring an officer's retention in the discharge of the duties to which he is trained, and the reasonable assurance to him that his chance of promotion within his own field shall not be diminished by the intrusion of outsiders. The President's view was, however, carried out in the Benedict case, in defiance of the rules; whereupon Mr. Curtis resigned.

The bad features in the Benedict case were, that the Deputy-Surveyor, after being nominated for the Surveyorship, was withdrawn from the Senate, without reason assigned; that the members of the Ring here boasted or announced that the withdrawal was made in obedience to their wishes; that the committee appointed to select another appointee from among the Custom-house officers, never acted, or else that, without waiting for their report, the President appointed Mr. Sharpe, the Marshal of this District, to fill the vacancy, apparently under advice from the Ring managers. The answer made, or which would be made, to all this is, we be-

lieve, that Benedict's name was withdrawn because it was found that Mr. Conkling would not consent to his nomination, which would, of course, carry an adverse vote in the Senate; and that the Committee did not act because Mr. Curtis was sick, and nobody else cared much about the matter; and that in the absence of any report from them the President, who did not care much about the matter either, without thinking very much of the rules, appointed Mr. Sharpe, in accordance with Tom Murphy's suggestion; in short, that the miscarriage was the result partly of misfortune and partly of carelessness, and showed no intentional disregard of the regulations on the President's part, and that he is as zealous in the reform as ever; but that his zeal is tempered by the insouciance of the "average man," of whom he is a fair representative. Mr. Curtis has denied the difference of opinion with the President about the modification of the rules in an "interview" with a *Herald* reporter.

Messrs. Phelps, Dodge & Co. have finally settled their differences with the Government, and have published a statement of the affair, which the public will read with sincere satisfaction, as it is a complete vindication. With it comes a letter from Judge Noah Davis, who was United States District Attorney when this trouble began, and whose testimony nobody will question. He says that the members of the firm from the first invited "the closest scrutiny," met the charge in "a spirit of most perfect fairness and frankness," at once put their books and papers into the hands of the Treasury Agent, and gave every assistance in the subsequent investigation. He says that he found there had been, during five years, a considerable number of infractions of the revenue laws "by the house," but evidently without any intent to defraud; that these infractions left a million dollars' worth of property exposed to forfeiture, though the value of the articles on which the under-valuation occurred was only $260,000, and that the firm, at his suggestion, agreed to pay in this sum in settlement, and this has been finally accepted. He adds that "in a business of many millions of dollars during the period of five years in which these irregularities had occurred, and during which they (the firm) had paid to the Government several millions of dollars in duties, the whole amount lost by the alleged fraud fell short of the sum of three thousand dollars"; and, to crown all, Judge Davis declares that he has since ascertained that the application of the rule under which the Messrs. Dodge made this under-valuation, has in other cases produced an over-valuation, "under which the Government received duties beyond what would have been payable under the correct rule of valuation, to an amount very considerably in excess of the duties lost." We propose to say something more about this remarkable case next week, because it furnishes a valuable illustration of the relation of the Government to the trade and industry of the country.

We have received from Messrs. Williams & Guion a very energetic oral remonstrance for what they allege to be the injustice done them by our paragraph of last week, in which we said that Captain Williams, of the steamer *Atlantic*, had been guilty of drunkenness on duty while in their employ, that "he was removed or allowed to resign," but "the Williams and Guion officials then gave him a letter of recommendation, on the strength of which he got a command from the White Star Line." What Messrs. Williams & Guion particularly complain of is the charge that they gave Williams a letter of recommendation, which they flatly deny; but they do not deny that he did get drunk on duty, and that in consequence of this he resigned, and would have been dismissed if he had not done so. The assertion that "the Williams & Guion officials" gave him a letter of recommendation we made on the strength of the *Tribune's* report of an interview with Mr. Sparks, the manager of the White Star Line. Our error, it seems, lay in the use of the phrase "Williams & Guion officials." Messrs. Williams & Guion form a firm on this side of the water, while the line is managed and the captains employed on the other side by the firm of "Guion & Co." Messrs. Williams & Guion, therefore, did not give Captain Williams a recommendation; but we now learn directly from Mr. Sparks that Mr. Stephen Guion, of the firm of Guion & Co., in Liverpool, "particularly requested" Mr. Ismay, in Liverpool, of the White Star Line, to take Captain Williams into their service, although he (Mr. Sparks) is not sure whether this request was made in the form of a letter or not.

The result of Mr. Richardson's claim that he had presumptive power to expand the currency—that is, to adulterate the coinage to the extent of nearly 7 per cent.—was that when he took office, after Mr. Boutwell's resignation, the expansionists in Wall Street at once got up a tremendous "squeeze," for the purpose of making him "come to the relief of the country," or help to "ease the April settlements," by issuing his "reserve greenbacks," and for some days at the beginning of the month money was lent at the rate of about 300 per cent. per annum. Mr. Richardson, however, we are glad to say, came not, having either learnt wisdom since last fall, or not having the courage to carry out his views, and the pressure was falling off, when an attempt was made to enforce the usury laws by summoning large numbers of bankers and brokers before the Grand Jury to give evidence as to violations of them. As everybody in New York has during the last half-year violated them without the slightest scruple, whenever he had any occasion to do so, this is of course a kind of burlesque performance, and it makes the maintenance of the law by a community of adult business men a curious and somewhat puzzling problem. It is believed at this writing, however, that the enquiry by the Grand Jury will amount to a *reductio ad absurdum*, and lead to a repeal of the law at Albany, if not as regards the whole State, at least as regards this city.

It is said that the complete history of the wine-cooler presentation by our Government to the arbitrators, Staempfli, Itajuba, and Sclopis, is this: These gentlemen declined to receive any money from England and the United States, while Mr. Adams and Sir. A. Cockburn were paid a regular equivalent for their services. Under these circumstances, it seemed best to both Governments to make presents, in ackowledgment of the obligation they were under. The three foreign ambassadors will receive the usual diplomatic snuff-boxes from England as well as the plate from the United States. All things considered, it seems a pity that the thing should not have been made public at the outset, and much misunderstanding thus prevented. It would have been better, too, if no presents at all had been given, and regular salaries had been taken; these are days in which the air is full of suspicion, and the practice of "gift-taking" in these latitudes has been pushed to such an extreme limit that there is a large number of respectable people who have come to regard a present or any sort of a gift—particularly of a wine-cooler—as "on its face corrupt."

Mr. Robert Roosevelt, a member of Congress from one of our city districts, set an example, the other day, which constituents in other districts might be very glad to have their members follow. He made an address in which he taught his hearers some of the technical and routine difficulties which beset the new member; and he made plainer than it has been to most people how entire a tyranny the majority of the House can exercise; how ignorantly they vote; how powerful the Speaker is in virtue of his appointment of Standing Committees and Committees of Conference, and how despotic and arrogant he can be if he so pleases. Mr. Roosevelt said, in so many words, that, wishing to speak on the report of the Poland Committee, he went to Mr. Blaine and asked to be recognized when he rose. Mr. Blaine said that he wished both sides to be heard, but

feared that ten minutes was all the time that Mr. Roosevelt could be allowed. He then, however, asked the latter what action he intended urging, and on Mr. Roosevelt's replying that he intended to urge the expulsion of some members whom the report recommended for that fate, Mr. Blaine said, "I fear I shall not be able to give you an opportunity;" and Mr. Roosevelt, often as he afterwards tried, could not catch the Speaker's eye, and described himself to his audience as a victim of "outrageous abuse of authority." Rules and orderly methods there must be in all such assemblages, and much must be left to the judgment of the presiding officer, and, although Mr. Roosevelt is a responsible person, and makes a grave charge against the adroit politician who has offended him, perhaps the only moral we need to draw is the indirect one that constituencies may easily set on foot too rapid "rotation" in the representation of their districts, and that it is a clear advantage to a Congressman not only to love his native country but to know the ropes, as the phrase goes. Mr. Roosevelt also enlightened his audience as to the "previous question" device, a brutal way of shutting off discussion, only to be resisted by the barbarous practice of filibustering, calling the yeas and nays on the question of adjourning. By this rejoinder to the previous question, twenty-four men can indefinitely prevent the majority from doing anything. The gigantic power of the Speaker in appointing the committees, who each really make and pass the bills which annually go through a House seven-tenths of whose members do not know what they are voting on; the Speaker's power thus to oblige monopoly companies of all sorts; the means which have been devised abroad for taking the yeas and nays mechanically in a few seconds, thus saving much valuable time; the Congressional habit of crowding business into the last ten days of a session—these are a few of the matters on which it would be well if electors and candidates had a fuller and freer understanding.

The prediction that Mormonism would not long survive the entry of the railroad into Utah and the invasion of the Gentile miner, and the advent of fashionable female apparel on the backs of the Gentile women, appears to be in process of fulfilment. At the Spring Conference of the Latter-Day Saints, Brigham Young resigned his position as trustee of the church, a position which made him paramount over its finances. He had previously resigned all his other offices; his successors have, we believe, been chosen; and he is reported to have divided his property among his wives and children. He has become old, he said, and the work should be laid on the shoulders of younger men. The fact is, however, that for two or three years now the Mormons have been restive under his leadership; 1873 is not 1847, and the diffusion of intelligence in our frontier countries within the last thirty years has been so enormous that we suppose another Joe Smith, or Sidney Rigdon, or Nauvoo, or Salt Lake City, with its band of Danites, and all the dense and dirty stupidity of Mormonism, could nohow again be possible. It is said that Young meditates a new settlement with some of his followers in Arizona or some other region further from civilization than Utah now is. Not the less, however, would it seem that the long-standing Utah disgrace is now at last soon to disappear from our contemporary history, and the prophet, priest, saint, and administrator is to give up the contest and take himself out of sight.

The late Mr. Greeley made it a capital offence in Mr. Motley, when this gentleman represented the United States at the Court of St. James, that he had dukes at his dinner-table. But most Americans know enough of diplomacy to understand that the dinner-table is one of its favorite resources, and that a success may be assured by the mere fact of getting a duke for an after-dinner talk. A notable instance of this dinner diplomacy was the new convention between Germany and France, lately signed at Berlin. Lord Odo Russell, the English Ambassador, gave a dinner, at which the Emperor William and Viscomte de Gontaut Biron, the French Ambassador, were guests. The Emperor took occasion to be particularly gracious to Count Biron, and the latter, watching his opportunity, expressed the hope that his majesty would favor with his presence the reception-concert to be given at the French Embassy, and added that he would gladly have made this a ball in honor of the Emperor, but the continued occupation of France was a barrier to such a festivity. With great cordiality the Emperor expressed his desire to evacuate France before the time stipulated by the last convention, and his readiness to listen to any proposals to that effect from the French Government. Count Biron at once telegraphed this table-talk to Paris, and shortly received the new terms of President Thiers. A few days later, March 12, the throne-speech to the Reichstag expressed the hope that the time was not distant when the financial condition of the French Government, so rapidly developing, would warrant the entire evacuation of French territory earlier than was at first anticipated. On the 15th of March the new convention to this effect was signed by the two governments, and on the evening of the same day the Emperor and Empress appeared at Count Biron's reception, where the former attracted the attention of the company by his marked courtesies to the Ambassador and his family. Thus the by-play of social diplomacy came in to smooth the lingering asperities of war.

The burden of the Emperor's speech at Berlin, on the opening of the Reichstag, was the care of the fortresses, the development of the navy, the increase of pay to the army, and the nurture in every way of the defensive power of the nation, so that Germany, like the strong man armed, may keep her palace and her goods in peace. The army of the German Empire, upon the peace basis for 1873-4, is fixed at 401,659 men, at a total cost of 90,373,275 thalers. Officers, 17,033; under-officers, 48,073; surgeons, 1,679; paymasters, 681; horses, 96,152. A third company is to be added to each artillery train. In addition to these ninety millions for the army, the Government calls for sixty-eight millions for the fortresses, of which nine millions are for Cologne, eight millions for Königsberg, ten millions for Wilhelmshaven, seven millions for Posen, five millions for Thorn, four millions for the lower Elbe, five millions for the lower Weser, and the remainder for points less exposed to attacks from without. The speedy capture of many of the smaller forts in France demonstrated that the strengthening of fortifications had not kept pace with the improvements in artillery, and it is proposed to transform the principal fortresses of Germany in accordance with the exigencies of modern warfare.

The Russian expedition against Khiva is supposed to have, by this time, started, but nothing very certain is known about its route and composition. That it will not much, if at all, exceed five thousand men, with forty pieces of artillery in all, is generally conceded, but this will be an abundantly strong force, once it reaches the Khivan oasis—the defences of the place being contemptible. Vámbéry, writing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, estimates the force the Khan can put in the field at 25,000 men, but this would be wholly irregular cavalry, which might harass the columns in the line of march in the desert, but could do nothing to save the capital. As regards the routes to be pursued Vámbéry says: there are four, varying in length from five hundred to a thousand miles, and the story from St. Petersburg is, that the force is to advance in four divisions—one along each of these routes, and to continue on reaching the oasis. He treats this, however, as ridiculous, and evidently thinks five times as many men necessary. Sir Henry Rawlinson, on the other hand, lecturing before the Royal Geographical Society, declares himself satisfied that the expedition will advance along one route only, the easiest one along the shores of the Aral to the Oxus, and in successive divisions. Meantime, it is reported from St. Petersburg that trouble has broken out in the household of the Khan, who has been executing and imprisoning right and left the officials most hostile to Russia, has released the Russian prisoners, and sent them to meet the column advancing from Orenburg.

"FEDERALISM" IN SPAIN.

WHEN the last Spanish Revolution took place, very few persons, certainly, imagined that federalism would prove the worst enemy of the new régime, and fewer still had formed an adequate idea of what federalism means in the newest political vocabulary of European radicals. In the mouths of Republicans like Castelar and Figueras, it is a very harmless word, describing simply that division of political power of which the governments of Switzerland and the United States furnish the most striking modern examples; and, taken in this sense, there is not much in the term for enlightened and patriotic men to quarrel over. Whether all the powers of government shall be concentrated in one organization, or divided in certain proportions among several, is after all in a great degree a question of detail, if the fundamental principles of the government are well settled and generally agreed upon. But the Spanish Republicans, properly so called, are not only, as Señor Figueras somewhat sadly admitted in his speech the other day, a small minority of the nation, who have been indebted for their present supremacy to a happy combination of accidents rather than to the deliberate action of public opinion, but they are not by any means agreed among themselves as to the basis of social order. In other words, the "Federalists," who to all appearance constitute "the bone and sinew" of the Republican party, not only do not want a unitarian republic, administered by scholars and gentlemen at Madrid, with the aid of a large standing army and on the soundest principles of political economy, but they do not believe at all in the ideal of social order cherished by the Republican leaders. They differ from the latter not only in thinking that Castile and Aragon and Catalonia and the rest ought to have governments of their own, but in thinking that the aim of government should be to reorganize society on a more equitable basis. In fact, they are much further in advance of Castelar than he was of King Amadeus. He wanted to protect property in one way—Amadeus in another; whereas the Federalists believe the protection of property as at present a crime against humanity. In fact, Señor Castelar and his friends have travelled thus far, as we ventured to predict at the outset that they would, on the sorrowful road on which M. Lamartine preceded them in 1848, and with somewhat the same result. They have got rid of the monarchy with great ease, but in doing so they have raised devils which they can neither lay nor satisfy, and they have, in carrying out the revolution, made one great mistake into which "the friends of order," or "moderate republicans," in France never fell, in disorganizing the army. One of the most striking features of all the French revolutions since the first has been the abstinence of the army from all share in bringing them about; and, as a general rule, the army, when handled vigorously and energetically, has never shown any reluctance in resisting them. In fact, the French troops have, on the whole, preserved the fundamental principle of military morality—obedience to the powers that be—with extraordinary tenacity; and this virtue, without which an army becomes a pure and unmitigated curse, has really made the French soldier, on more than one occasion, the saviour of French society. He has not "meddled in politics" except at the command of the civil ruler or "chief of the state." In each successive revolution, too, all parties have taken pains to preserve the army and its discipline intact amid the prevailing disorder.

In Spain, on the other hand, the army has long ago "gone into politics." Most Spanish generals of distinction have, for more than half a century, been more politicians than soldiers, and no political revolution has occurred or been attempted during that period in which portions of the regular troops have not been found on both sides, and many abortive "pronunciamientos" have been the work of a restless officer with one or two regiments at his back. The consequence is that Spanish politicians of the best type, men like the present Republican leaders, profoundly distrust the army; and the leaders of the Republican party evidently did not feel sure of their republic a single day after the departure of the king until they had in some way crippled the military force. This they did very effectually by abolishing the conscription and preparing to arm "the people" or the national guard with breech-loaders. The abolition of the conscription, of course, ought not to have affected the discipline of the men now in the service, but, with the usual perversity of events, it did. In fact, it seems to have spread insubordination through the whole force. Men who had been forced into the ranks naturally asked why, if the principle of the conscription was bad, it should be allowed to operate in their case any longer, and, if volunteering was the proper mode of recruiting the force, why they should be shut out from its benefits. The officers, on the other hand, however indifferent they might feel about the mode in which their soldiers were procured, saw in the suddenness of this reform not only a proof of Government distrust of them, but a striking warning of the uncertainty of their future. That under these circumstances the desertion and mutiny of whole battalions and regiments, and the spread of Carlism among the officers, should form the leading incidents of Spanish telegrams, is not to be wondered at.

The disorganization of the army has thus brought the Government face to face with one of the most unpleasant facts of the situation—a fact which can, it would appear, only be dealt with by military force. Not only are they compelled to give the northern provinces up to Carlist raids and excesses, but they are compelled to witness the experiment of "federalism" put into practical operation in many districts in spite of them, and amidst the wildest disorder—disorder which in some places seems to threaten social dissolution. This "federalism" has now become a distinct plank in the Socialist platform, although it was never prominently heard of until the reign of the Commune in Paris. What it proposes is neither more nor less than the splitting up of the nation into a multitude of small communities—cities, towns, and villages—almost or totally exempt from the interference of any central authority, and this not with the view of better administering local affairs, in one sense of the term, but with the view of giving the local majority more complete control of the local property. The new Federalists would, in short, have no political unit so large that a trades-union, or committee of workingmen, could not readily manage it by fixing wages, dividing profits, keeping down riches, or generally regulating the lives of the inhabitants; and their political ideal is now a collection of these units, mutually independent, and perfectly secure against interference from the outside on the part of armies or great social agglomerations of any kind. They tried hard after this ideal in Paris, and in some of the cities of Southern France, in 1871, and actually declaimed with so much unction against "centralization" as to persuade some of our great publicists over here, such as Mr. Ben. Butler and Mr. Wendell Phillips, that what they were aiming at was "municipal independence" as Samuel Adams and Dr. Franklin understood it. What they were really aiming at was a chance of dealing with rich men on principles of pure "equity," without interference from constitutions interpreted by the courts or police sent down by the general Government.

The Federalists are, in fact, now opening the eyes of many estimable gentlemen in Spain, as the Communists opened the eyes of a good many estimable gentlemen in France. Castelar and Figueras are finding out that they are by no means in the front rank of "advanced thinkers," and the beautiful picture they draw of Spain, as they would wish to see her, is in the eyes of other Republicans only a dreary waste, which has to be traversed before the promised land can be reached. These gentlemen, in fact, like a great many other progressive politicians, seem to have been ignorant, when they took charge of their country, of the enormous change in the political ideals and aspirations of the working-classes which the last thirty years have wrought. They have gone on dreaming about a "republic," meaning thereby universal suffrage without a king, just as the previous generation went on dreaming about constitutional monarchy, and flattering themselves, and trying to flatter others, that a panacea for the ills of modern society was to be found in a change of the form of government; and hence the pæans, embraces, and "hailings" which marked the flight of poor Amadeus

—the fact being that the portion of Spanish society, like the portion of every European society, which detests kings, detests just as much the kind of government which middle-class Republicans, whether in Europe or America, would set up in their stead. It is this dislike of existing social arrangements, the profound belief of a large body of the poor that poverty can be cured by the strong hand, which constitutes the most important and most dangerous element in the problem of modern politics, and it constitutes the one great fact with which political reformers have to deal. To any one who seriously considers the nature and bearings of this fact, the rejoicings of some of our brethren over the expulsion of a king, and the setting up of a president, while the social, moral, and mental condition of the population remains unchanged, have something very melancholy about them.

A THIRD STAGE OF CONSTITUTION-MAKING.

THE new constitution adopted by Illinois, the deliberations of the convention in Pennsylvania, and now the amendments proposed by Governor Hoffman's Constitutional Commission to the constitution of New York, all point in the same direction. They indicate very clearly that the country has begun to enter on its third stage in constitution-making—a stage to be marked by very novel features. In the Constitution of the United States we have the fossil type of the first period. In it we easily distinguish the highly "differentiated" organs called legislative, judicial, and executive, "each independent within its own sphere," and all deriving their powers from the consent of a small body of native-born and well-to-do electors. The terms of office are long, and the tenure of office secure; the final arbiter of all domestic disputes is the judiciary. The type is evidently foreign; it is English, with such adaptations as different circumstances of political climate and soil—or, as a naturalist might say, "the environment"—have made necessary. We find the same type in most of the old thirteen colonies. In the New York constitution of 1846 we have a second fossil type. In this the basis of suffrage has become almost universal, the judiciary has become elective, terms of office are short, and though many resemblances to the old type still exist, it is evident the fundamental principle of the new one is radically different. The judiciary, the legislature, and the executive have ceased to be highly "differentiated," and have in consequence lost their vigor. This has been reabsorbed as it were by "the people," who are unwilling any longer to part with it, except for very brief intervals. They have, to be sure, retained the representative machinery, but their representatives are rather to be regarded as delegates than as anything else. It is the type of pure democracy. This type, too, is an importation, but this time it comes from France, not England.

The third period has now begun, and the type, so far as it can yet be seen, is very different from either of the two preceding it. For the third time within a century, the People come together to deliberate upon their basis of government, and perhaps the most noticeable thing about their deliberations and their votes is a general agreement that, during the past thirty years, they have themselves been abusing the power which thirty years before they gave to themselves. In no historical constitutional movement has this before been the case. In England, in France, in Italy, in Germany, the progress of society from one condition to another has almost always (we must indeed except such modern administrative reforms as those of Stein and Scharnhorst in Germany) been accomplished by a struggle between classes whose interests conflicted—between king and nobles, nobles and commons, church and state. But we have abolished classes, and the only dangerous power with which we find ourselves face to face is the power we have given ourselves. The third period of constitution-making in this country has already for its distinguishing trait the effort of the people to take away from themselves or from their representatives some of this power. The new Illinois constitution is chiefly remarkable for the fact that it puts an end to special legislation; or, in other words, the people find that they cannot elect men who have sufficient honesty to be entrusted with the discretion which special legislation requires. The legislature is in a peculiar manner the agent of the popular will, and, thirty years ago, a suggestion that the legislature could not be trusted would have been considered as an insult to the people themselves. The executive might not be trustworthy, and the judiciary might prove unreliable, but the legislature, being directly responsible to the people, was in fact the people themselves in a compact form. This is all changed. To put an end to special legislation is one of the main objects of the Pennsylvania reformers, and in the amendments proposed to the constitution of New York we find that the legislature is prohibited from passing private or special acts in some eighteen different classes of cases.

The same distrust of the legislature—the popular body *par excellence*—is curiously shown in the "Proposed Amendments" by the provision that "no bill shall become a law after the final adjournment of the legislature unless approved by the governor within thirty days after such adjournment," and by a multitude of provisions with regard to the order of legislative proceedings—the "readings," the "yeas and nays," titles, amendments, and so on, which have in reality the very good reason for their adoption not only that, as the Commission says, it is impossible for senators and members of the assembly to understand, in the tremendous press of modern business, in a becoming manner "what they are doing," but that, even when they do understand it, they cannot be trusted to do what they ought. This sufficiently appears in the report of the closing scenes of any legislature. The last legislative adjournment took place at Harrisburg. The following paragraph gives a fair idea of the evils with which constitutional conventions and commissions have to deal:

> "Disgraceful as are always the closing days of a session at Harrisburg, this year's performance caps the climax. With a reckless, riotous rush, bill after bill, resolution after resolution, was brought forward and put through, nobody knowing exactly what was done or left undone; and endless, of course, will be the sins of omission and commission discoverable when we come to review the scenes of the struggle. The bills poured in by swarms, by shoals, on the day before adjournment; and they might as well have been passed in a lump for all the deliberate attention they got. The press report of the proceedings, stating the case in the mildest form, says that things were done 'with such remarkable celerity that bills of three, four, or five printed pages in length were passed by their titles in about three minutes. In many cases the rapidity was so great as to prevent the reporters from obtaining the titles satisfactorily, and it was, of course, out of the question to attempt to analyze the bills.'"

We are also told by another well-informed authority that whereas this especial legislature had a good many important duties to perform, *e. g.*:

> "To establish the boundaries of the congressional districts, the apportionment bill adopted at the last session having failed to receive the Executive approval; to provide for the election of a state treasurer, under the provisions of the recently adopted constitutional amendment; to adopt a plan for the reorganization of the militia; to enact a general law defining the liability of property to taxation, as well as laws to regulate the sale of inflammable oils, and for other similar purposes; to amend the oppressive libel law; and to give the citizens of Philadelphia a chance for fair elections and honest juries"—

it did as a matter of fact pass an apportionment bill which is an "outrageous gerrymander"; by "blundering" and "bungling," it left the State without any treasurer at all for the coming year; it passed a militia bill which "does not seem to give satisfaction to anybody"; the exemption law "might have been put into better shape"; "the oil inspection bill" and two or three "other inspection bills, and other schemes, some of which succeeded and some failed, were contemptible frauds"; and the remaining duties were left unperformed.

The general distrust of the popular machinery is still further indicated by propositions like these made by the New York Commission—Art. VIII., Secs. 10, 11:

> "Neither the credit nor the money of the State shall be given or loaned to or in aid of any association, corporation, or private undertaking. This section shall not, however, prevent the legislature from making such provision for the education and support of the blind, the deaf and dumb, and juvenile delinquents, as to it may seem proper. Nor shall it apply to any fund or property now held or which may hereafter be held by the State for educational purposes.
>
> "No county, city, town, or village shall, hereafter, give any money or

property, or loan its money or credit, to or in aid of any individual, association, or corporation, or become, directly or indirectly, the owner of stock in or bonds of any association or corporation, nor shall any such county, city, town, or village be allowed to incur any indebtedness, except for county, city, town, or village purposes. This section shall not prevent such county, city, town, or village from making such provision for the aid or support of its poor as may be authorized by law"—

and still more openly in Art. XV., Sec. 3, in which the very valuable amendment is proposed that in every incorporated city there shall be a board of audit, elected by all the taxpayers who have property assessed at $250, and that the assent of this board shall be necessary to the passage of every resolution involving the expenditure of money—the first recognition that we have seen of the real character of a modern city. The legislative power of the common council in cities—a power which we have heard described by a politician of the old school as that of a chamber which "never in the experience of the race—no, never in that of the Gothic or the Slavic, or any of the white-haired races, has been dispensed with"—that, too, is to be done away with.

The judiciary and the executive, on the other hand, are not popular bodies, and we may see the same general tendency to restrict popular power, and place it in other than "popular" hands, in the adoption of the "judiciary article" in this State in 1869, which lengthened judicial terms, increased judicial power, and required the legislature to "provide for submitting" to the people, "at the general election in the year eighteen hundred and seventy-three," the question whether in future part or all of the judicial offices shall not be filled by appointment instead of election. In the same way, the new Commission proposes that "judicial officers of courts not of record, in the several cities of the State, having a population of not less than three hundred thousand, shall be appointed by the Governor, with the consent of the Senate, for a term of four years."

In the same way, too, the Commission proposes that the Governor shall hold office for three years instead of two; that at extraordinary sessions of the legislature no subjects shall be acted on except such as he recommends; that in money-bills he may veto particular items, while approving the rest. The Commissioners say with commendable frankness that

"In regard to extending the term of office of the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor to three years, the change would be in accordance with general public sentiment, and would advance the interests of the State, by obviating too frequent changes in policy and offices, and, in some degree, increasing the respectability and dignity of the offices."

Ten thousand dollars is proposed as the Governor's salary, and four thousand as that of the Lieutenant-Governor. In cities, mayors are to have the power of appointment, subject to confirmation by the aldermen, and heads of departments are vested with power to appoint and remove the subordinate officers.

Critics who stickle for distinctions may say that there is here to be seen no tendency to restrict the power of the "people," but only to impose restrictions on the legislature and to increase the power of the executive and judiciary. But when the people solemnly proclaim, as they have by constitutional votes in Illinois, that they cannot select legislators good enough to be allowed a general discretion as to the subjects on which they legislate, and that they cannot select good judges by means of frequent elections, they do in so far confess their own incompetence, and relinquish power, just as individuals do in private life, because they have too much to use well.

When we consider what, from a historical point of view, the executive (with his appointees, the judiciary) is, and what, in actual fact, "The People" is, we shall see that the new movement now going on to restrict and curtail the popular powers granted thirty years ago, is merely a repetition of a very old and familiar movement which has been taking place in all countries for many centuries. The "executive" is the historical sovereign. "The People" is the actual sovereign. The executive in English history is the crown, and the growth of liberty in the Anglo-Saxon world was the result of a long struggle between the old sovereign and his subjects. At last the struggle ended, and the subjects became themselves sovereign. But when they became so, their minds were so imbued with the lessons they had learnt during the long conflict that their principal aim in forming a new government in this country was to guard against encroachments from that branch of the government which theoretically represented their old enemy, wholly overlooking the fact that the real sovereign they had to dread and guard against was themselves. They therefore made a determined onslaught upon the new executive and the new judiciary, thinking liberty perfectly secure if the people were only sure that there should be no one above to trample on and abuse them. But, in reality, it was the People who had become sovereign, and the People who were to be dreaded in the new order. Therefore it is that we find that our predecessors of the Jeffersonian school of Democracy, in weakening the executive and the judiciary and strengthening the legislature, were in reality strengthening the sovereign, and making the same kind of mistake that would be made in England to-day if reformers were to suppose that, because the Queen selects a committee of the House of Commons as a ministry, she therefore is the source of the power by which that committee governs. It has always been a fundamental maxim of politics that any sovereign who has absolute power will before long abuse it—whether he be a king, an emperor, a house of peers, or a dictator. It remained for America to strengthen and confirm the truth of the maxim by demonstrating that it is equally true where the sovereign is a sovereign people. In other countries abuses of power by the sovereign have been met by revolutions, by popular risings, by the transfer of power from one centre to another. With us these remedies are no longer possible, for we are ourselves both sovereign and subjects. The only means of relief left us are those left to individual men who abuse their freedom by extravagance—that of imposing, of our own free-will, restraints upon ourselves. This is the real meaning of the elevation of "the respectability and dignity" of the executive and judiciary, as well as the curtailment of legislative power, which mark the opening of the third period of constitution-making in the United States.

SOME FRENCH SALONS.

PARIS, March 28.

THE study of French society has at all times seemed very interesting to foreigners. We like to read in Walpole's correspondence a lively account of French society at the time of Madame Dudeffant; it is a great pity that no writer as yet has given us a faithful and detailed account of the Directory period. I presume that the society which was adorned by Madame Récamier and by Madame Tallien was not very unlike Parisian society at the present moment. Then, as now, after very tragical events, all the social elements were for a moment mixed and almost blended together. The elasticity of the French mind is such that, after two years of depression, the instinct of sociability has become once more triumphant, and, in a certain sense, Paris has never perhaps been so gay as it is now; at any rate, I have never seen it under such extraordinary colors, so well worthy of close observation. The present state of society is, so to speak, the social representation of the political state of things; it may be called the "truce of Bordeaux" of the *monde*. For the first time, all parties have a legal right to aspire to the direction of the country; the Republicans enjoy the Republic *de facto*, the Monarchists enjoy the Monarchy *in ovo;* M. Grévy, the Speaker of the National Assembly, who represents perhaps even better than M. Thiers this curious political combination of forces, cannot give a dinner without balancing the Right and the Left in the list of his guests. After the Commune, passions ran so high that it was next to impossible to bring together the men of opposite parties; but now a *modus vivendi* has been found, and Republicans and Monarchists are seen in many places together.

Among the most brilliant receptions of the winter have been, for instance, those of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. de Rémusat, and nobody was better placed to form a connecting link between the various elements of society. Madame de Rémusat by her connections is united to the oldest families of France, but the blood of Lafayette is in her veins—she is a Liberal as well as her husband; and though they have both belonged till the present time to the Orleanist party, they are quite at home in the Republic of M. Thiers. Besides the diplomatic body, which naturally is always a great centre of attraction, there may be seen in Madame de Rémusat's rooms the

representatives of all the old parties, as well as Republicans even of the deepest dye. Count Arnim, with his high forehead and his inquisitive eye, will be near some deputy of Gambetta's party; an Arago will be announced immediately after a Clermont-Tonnerre; people look at each other with some curiosity. The scene is very much like a *première* (a first representation) at some theatre, where the ladies of society turn their glasses on the ladies of the half-world, and where the young dandies stare at such men as Dumas the younger, About, or the most famous critics and dramatic authors. It may also be compared to the short truce of two armies, when the officers are allowed to mix and exchange newspapers and cigars. A deep feeling of hostility is felt running under the soft manifestations of worldly politeness. I saw a lady the other day shudder when she heard the servant announcing M. Challemel-Lacour, the deputy who wrote at Lyons the famous note, "Shoot all these men," on the margin of a report. But M. Challemel-Lacour has been a professor in the university, he is a scholar, and is quite capable of playing his part in a salon.

At M. de Rémusat's receptions, as well as at all the official receptions, only one element is missing: the Bonapartists are not invited by the Ministers of M. Thiers. But the Empire had lasted so long that they had become quite an important element in French society. The diplomats, who for years have been in relation with them, cannot drop them completely; but it is only in their houses that they are to be met. Princess Orloff, who lives in the heart of the Faubourg St. Germain, receives more than any other member of the diplomatic body; and I saw a few days ago, at one of her routs, the too famous Duc de Gramont, for the first time since the war. All eyes were directed on him—on the tall and majestic form of the man who had played with the destinies of France with a levity worthy of the younger days of his famous ancestor. Not far from him was Marshal Canrobert, so long an intimate friend of the Emperor, still respected for the great courage he displayed at the battles before Metz. You can hardly take a step in one of these reunions without meeting some suggestive name or person. Here is the Comte de Paris talking to some deputy on the book he has just published on the condition of the workingmen in America; not far from him glides the Duchesse de Mouchy, who is a Murat, and who regrets in her heart the glories of the Imperial court. That young officer yonder, Count Beugnot, was with General Lecomte in the Rue des Rosiers on the 10th of March, when the old general was shot; he himself barely escaped, and came back to Versailles with his uniform in rags. This old general with the white beard is the silent Governor of Paris, Ladmirault, who is answerable for the maintenance of order in the communistic capital. These gentlemen, covered with crosses and ribands of all colors, are quite unknown; and they are seen bowing to their Ministers, who have not even the little riband of the Legion of Honor. The other night, at the new Prefecture of Police, I glanced a moment though the window, and saw the ruins of all the palaces and houses which have been burnt round the Sainte Chapelle, and wondered how the noble spire had been saved. Was it possible! all these flowers, and this music, and this quiet urbanity—was it only the dream of an hour? In this palace of the police, I could not help remembering a day when I was riding on the plateau of Chatillon, and met a poor woman who was crying hysterically. She was the wife of a policeman, had run away from Paris, and was finding her way to Versailles, ignorant of the fate of her husband. How distant all these memories seem already, and, if it were not for the awful skeletons of our palaces, how unreal all this seems now! We have all heard of the *bals des victimes* after the Terror; we also have our balls, where the victims of yesterday meet the victims of to-morrow.

One of the finest and most hospitable houses in Paris is the hôtel of the Countess Duchâtel, the widow of one of the last Ministers of Louis Philippe. The magnificent collection of pictures would be enough to attract anybody; and besides, this salon has the privilege of uniting the Orleanist and the Legitimist society. It is in such places that you can better understand the difficulties of the Orleanist party, which, by its principles, is almost drawn to the Republican side, while socially it has always been drawn towards the Legitimists. And the Legitimists, unfortunately, have the most untractable leader in the person of the Comte de Chambord. For many months the hope of a complete fusion between the two branches of the royal family was naturally the occasion of the most cordial fusion of two societies which before had little in common. The young duchesses and marchionesses of the noble faubourg were only too glad to abandon the solitary and gloomy salons where their mothers had cherished for years the fires of hatred against modern France, modern ideas, and 1830; the handsome Duchesse de Larochefoucault-Bisaccia opened her house, which was once guarded like the paradise of Legitimacy, to the colleagues of her husband in the Chamber. The Legitimists are, socially speaking, such an important element in French society that this fusion was quite an event in itself. The Liberals, to their great delight, found that there were many men in the Legitimist camp who were very open to progressive ideas; the Legitimists, in their turn, found that the Liberals were not all of the school of the Commune; but this happy union did not last long, and the letters of the Comte de Chambord have again disunited the ranks of the monarchical army. The connections which have been formed will, however, not be broken immediately.

Among the private houses which a foreigner ought to take especial care to visit, if he can, is that of M. Guizot. The old veteran lives in a very modest apartment, but every Thursday evening you can meet there all the distinguished in every rank of literature, of politics, and of fashion. The rooms are so small that all the visitors can hardly remain a long time, so that there is a constant succession of visitors. M. Guizot receives everybody with a grace you would hardly expect from such a stern statesman. He is still handsome, very erect, and he has an affable word for all. It is quite the custom there, as it is at M. Thiers's, to form a nucleus round him, and to hear him talk upon some topic of the day. What M. Guizot does every week M. Thiers does every night; he is ever ready to talk on every subject. There is hardly any conversation at his house, it is a long monologue; his visitors, as in the dialogues of Plato, are only expected to furnish him a subject. The powers of M. Thiers as a *causeur* are certainly very remarkable, and at the time when I used to see him at the Place Saint Georges, I liked particularly to hear him talk on art. It is perhaps a failing of mine, but I have always preferred reading the American Constitution, or even the telegrams in the newspapers, to hearing empty discussions upon the question of the Upper Chamber or the prerogative of the Executive power. Politics, of course, play at present a great part in the conversation of our salons, and a visit to the Assembly is quite an attraction for the ladies of fashion. But even politics in conversation ought to be lightly touched, on the old principle: "Glissez, n'appuyez pas." On the whole, I do not find that our essay of a pseudo-republic has made French society more vulgar or coarse; it has added some valuable elements to its composition, and added something more *piquant* to its contrasts. There is a foundation of urbanity in the French character which, I hope, will not be altered by any revolution.

SIGNOR SELLA AND HIS CABINET.

FLORENCE, March 15.

THE present Italian Cabinet may be styled a government which, politically speaking, represents the advanced Liberal party, socially the middle classes, and provincially, if I may say so, reaction against exclusive Tuscanism. Nominally, it is presided over by an honest mediocrity, an ex-doctor of Casale, a small provincial town, S. Lanza, a veteran of the old *bourgeois* Opposition of Piedmont. But the real soul of it is the Minister of Finance, S. Sella, by profession a geologist, a man of modest origin, but who has acquired wealth by industry and rigid economy. Three others of the Ministers, S. Castagnola for commerce, Admiral Ribotty for the navy, General Ricotti for war, are also Piedmontese, and thus give a decided preponderance in the Cabinet to that province, as well as to the *bourgeois* class they all belong to. S. de Falco and S. de Vincenzi are Neapolitans, and also belong to the Centre of the House and the cultivated middle classes of society. The former *consorteria*, with its decidedly French and semi-clerical tendencies, finds its representative in one man only, S. Visconti-Venosta, an elegant young Lombard, clever, insinuating, high-bred, timid, and serving on the whole as a species of moral clog to the rest of the Cabinet. It is easy to imagine how haughtily the political men who had held office from 1861 to 1869 must look down upon the self-taught parvenus of the present Administration, in the proud self-consciousness of superior scholarship, noble origin, and more elegant appearance. Nor is it difficult to understand their disappointment when they see those very Ministers whom they allowed to take office by sheer tolerance, in the secure conviction that they would not be able to hold it for a fortnight, and must ultimately have to give back the helm into their own experienced steering hands—when, I say, they see these very men keep their seats successfully longer than any of their own party ever could manage to do. And yet they feel they cannot do away with them, for the coalition against the *consorteria* and its wide-spread unpopularity is in full force. Nor is the Left, under the leadership of that clever old war-horse, Ratazzi, who has gone over to them with *armes et bagages* since the unfortunate Mentana episode, of which he alone was the cause, any better able to overthrow the present Cabinet.

So we have the situation as follows: When the Ministers propose a radical measure, it is but natural that the Radicals should think themselves alone justified in taking such a measure, and when they suggest a moderate law, the Moderates are persuaded that it would have been much better for them to have proposed it themselves—both parties of course considering the Ministers as thieves who have stolen from them their own ideas, of which they imagine they have a sort of monopoly. Meanwhile, each side is afraid that, if the present Ministry falls, it will be their antagonists who will replace it,

in consideration of which they finally let it subsist. Now, as there is one man of great energy in the Cabinet—and as energy is the only thing wanting to the Italians to make them superior statesmen—the policy followed by the Government has till now been most successful. Everybody is tacitly persuaded that it was S. Sella's energetic *veto* which prevented Italy from hurrying to the rescue of France and to her own ruin in 1870; that it was he who forced the King and his own colleagues to enter Rome; who urged the Minister of Justice to present the law on the Roman Convents, as he formerly presented that on the guarantees for the Pope's spiritual independence and secular powerlessness; who supported the Minister of War in his demand for a serious augmentation and consolidation of the army; finally, that it was he who, first among all the twelve Italian finance Ministers, insisted upon the taxes being really paid. Now, it is certainly not surprising that there should be no love lost upon S. Sella in Italy; for when a man has the priests and taxpayers against him in this country, he may say that he has all the world against him. As, besides, he continues to estrange the refined aristocrats of the Moderate party by his coarse and sardonic ways, he has finally succeeded in gaining for himself a greater amount of unpopularity than any man in the country, while he remains as indispensable as he is disliked, precisely because every one here is conscious of lacking the energy and *morale* which S. Sella possesses, and because the results of a financial policy which has succeeded in restoring order into the most dilapidated financial situation a state ever had, naturally impress themselves deeply upon all unprejudiced minds. It is S. Sella, and S. Sella alone, who maintains the rest of his colleagues in office. If he were to withdraw, not one of them could remain in virtue of his own power. This is what everybody instinctively feels, and thus it happens that a government which is extremely distasteful to the King, cordially detested by Right and Left of Parliament, unpopular among the masses, derided by all the newspapers and by "public opinion," may, after all, turn out to be the firmest and most durable one which this new kingdom has yet had.

Correspondence.

THE STUDY OF GREEK.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: "Shall Greek be abolished?" was the subject of a composition (described by the reporters as "exhaustive") which was read last week at the meeting of the High School Teachers in Boston. The speech of the Principal of the University of Louvain to the "Philosophical Vagabond" has been quoted in your columns already; but it is so much better than anything said since that it will bear repetition:

"You see me, young man; I never learned Greek, and I don't find that I have ever missed it. I have had a doctor's cap and gown without Greek; I have ten thousand florins a year without Greek; I eat heartily without Greek; and, in short, as I don't know Greek, I do not believe there is any good in it."

Possibly that "splendid sample of our na-tive raw material," Mr. Hannibal Chollop, went a little too far in his depreciation of "the ancient Athenians":

"As it was, he contented himself with showing Mark one of his revolving pistols, and asking him what he thought of that weapon.

"'It ain't long since I shot a man down with that, sir, in the State of Illinoy,' observed Chollop.

"'I shot him down, sir,' pursued Chollop, 'for asserting in the *Spartan Portico*, a tri-weekly journal, that the ancient Athenians went a-head of the present Locofoco Ticket.'"

But after all, was not Mr. Chollop partially right in his views, even though there was too much rude sincerity in his expression of them? Homer sang that matchless parting of Hector and Andromache; but Homer never wore a pair of rubber-boots. Phidias set up the Olympian Zeus, to have seen which was counted by "the ancient Athenians" as the real *nepenthes;* yet no sewing-machine clicked in his wife's boudoir. The cell in which the clearest-headed and sweetest-tempered of men drank the hemlock was glorified only by the "light within his own clear breast," and not by the genial kerosene. If, then, Mr. Chollop was right and the editor of the *Spartan Portico* wrong, if we are so much "ahead of the ancient Athenians," it is time to cut the umbilical cord which binds us to the past:

> "Leave to the Greek his marble nymphs
> And scrolls of wordy lore."

We shall not have scholars and thinkers to connect us with antiquity and the great brotherhood of nations, but we shall have men that know "facts, hard facts, sir." Mr. Gradgrind lived too soon. It is time to canonize him as the great Apostle of the Education of the Future.

N. N.

Notes.

THE promised pamphlet, 'Proceedings at the Farewell Banquet to Professor Tyndall,' has been published in a neat form by D. Appleton & Co. It gives in full the interesting letter from Professor Henry, as well as those from other invited guests unable to be present. The same house has also issued, in one volume of about two hundred pages 12mo, Professor Tyndall's 'Lectures on Light,' as delivered in this country, with illustrations.——A second edition of Taine's 'Philosophy of Art,' translated by Mr. John Durand, and thoroughly revised by him, has been published by Holt & Williams (12mo, pp. 190).——Sir Charles Bell's classic work, 'Expression: its Anatomy and Philosophy,' with the original notes and author's designs, comes to us with the imprint of Samuel R. Wells, of this city, who has added a few notes of his own and a number of woodcuts from his phrenological storehouse. Most of these last never had any great value as accurate representations of types of mankind, and are less endurable now that photography has given us the means of perfect reproduction from nature. They are, for example, inexpressibly coarse compared with the wood-engravings of primitive races in the *Tour du Monde, passim.*——Parts 11 and 12 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas, containing maps of northeastern Germany, northeastern Russia, Scandinavia, Asia Minor, and sheet 5 of the United States, together with a map of the Southern heavens, have been received from B. Westermann & Co. and L. W. Schmidt. Thirty parts will complete the series. ——A new paper, called the *Chess Record*, has appeared in Philadelphia. ——'A Brief Account of the Paper Money and Finances of the War of the American Revolution,' by J. W. Schuckers, is announced by John Campbell & Son, Philadelphia.

—Two or three correspondents have called our attention to an error of ours which we dare say has been noticed by a great many other readers also. We spoke of the little girl Allegra, daughter of Byron, as having been borne him by the Countess Guiccioli. She is, however, well known to have been the offspring of Byron and a Miss Clermont, whom Byron met with the Shelleys in Switzerland in 1816. As she died at the age of five years and three months (vide his epitaphial verses for her), she may be said to have died "in infancy." There was no excuse, however, for the other assertion, which was made in heedlessness.

—The Chicago Law Institute has, like the Bar Association of this city, taken in hand the reform of law reporting. The "Illinois Reports" having been for some time among the worst in the world, the interest of the profession in Chicago has been at length aroused. The present incumbent of the office of State Reporter is a shrewd fellow, who, during six years of official life, by means of selling reports to the people at $5 a volume, and to "the People" (*i.e.*, the State in its official capacity) at $6 a volume, which would in reality have been dear at $3, and which would have been better unpublished altogether; by multiplying the number of volumes, too, through many devices known to professional book-makers, such as large margins, "leads," "spacings," prolix "head-notes," changing the size of the page, etc., etc., has contrived to amass a little fortune of $91,087 50, making his salary per annum $5,000 more than that of the Chief-Justice of the United States.

—Dr. Josiah Clark Nott, well-known as the principal author of the famous 'Types of Mankind,' by Nott and Gliddon, died on the morning of his birthday, March 31. He had nearly completed the Scriptural span of life, having been born in 1804. His father was a native of Eastern Connecticut, where the family name has been well known, but in early life he removed first to Georgia, where, *more patrio*, he acted as a teacher, and afterwards to Camden, South Carolina, where he practised law with success, and, after going to Congress, ended his days as a judge of the State Court of Appeals. Josiah Clark Nott, then, like many men who became strenuous defenders of the Southern social system, and whose "cursed-be-Canaan" ethnology was in its way very serviceable to the cause he favored, was a man of Northern extraction. At the age of twenty he graduated at Columbia, South Carolina, and for the next three years, following a fashion common among the sons of planters, he resided at Philadelphia, and attended lectures at the Medical College, where many of his young compatriots were picking up medicine enough to physic or bleed a sick field-hand on the paternal plantation. But Nott's mind was of an order superior to that of the common run of Southern medical students. One of his undergraduate performances was a translation of 'Broussais on Inflammation,' and his proficiency was such that in 1827 he was appointed "Demonstrator of Anatomy in connection with the Philadelphia Almshouse," and there remained till 1829, when he went home to Columbia, married (1832), and practised his profession till 1835. In the latter year he went to Europe and worked busily till 1837, when he returned and took himself to

Mobile, Alabama, where his father-in-law had established himself, where he resided with brief interruptions till his death, and where he founded the medical college and museum, and wrote the various ethnological works which gave him a widespread but somewhat evanescent reputation. Of these, the best known is his 'Types of Mankind,' the reputation of which as a scientific production would have been less but for the Dred Scott decision and the other phases of the long agitation.

—Mr. Jeremiah S. Black thinks that we might do away with a great deal of corruption if we would "make all fraudulent acts" of legislatures void, leaving the question of fraud to the courts. We find this proposition in a speech of Mr. Black's made before the Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention on the 10th of last month. At present, it is well-settled law that legislative acts are sacred and inviolable, no matter how obtained. Mr. Black does not discriminate between general acts and acts which are in reality nothing more than grants or subsidies to private individuals, like land-grants and steamship subsidies. There is, however, a clear distinction between the two cases. General laws cannot be enquired into in the courts, if for no other reason, because of the time which would be necessarily occupied by such investigations. It would be in the power of any malicious and selfish individual to postpone the execution of a law of the most urgent necessity perhaps for years, if the question of fraud could be gone into—an investigation into a matter of this sort necessarily involving a great deal of time in taking evidence. Besides this, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, no court could be able to say in the last resort whether the act might not have been passed on general grounds of expediency, even if the fraud or misrepresentation had been known to the legislature. But in the case of legislative grants of money or money's worth, why should not the matter be treated as if it were between individuals? It seems only fair to assume in such cases as these that the legislature would not have made the grant if it had known that fraud was being practised. Whatever may be thought of Mr. Black's suggestion, one curious historical statement it makes is worth noticing. It is in regard to the case of *Fletcher* v. *Peck*, in which the doctrine of the inviolability of legislative grants was established by the Supreme Court of the United States. He says that—

"The case itself was a fraud; it was made up at Boston by two men who lived in Tennessee, both of them having the same interest in the same fraudulent grant, and the counsel who pretended to argue it was employed and paid to give the cause away. This is not publicly known, but I assert it on the authority of Judge Catron, who knew the parties well, and was often told by both of them that the case was a sham, and the judgment collusive. The principle apparently decided by it is not found in the common law, and is directly in conflict with common sense and plain justice. It violates all the analogies of our jurisprudence. Not only private grants but judicial decrees and executive concessions are pronounced mere nullities when brought into contact with any kind of corruption."

—A correspondent writes us as follows: "All the newspapers of the country are now very busy denouncing the 'back-pay swindle,' but it does not seem to have occurred to any of them to suggest any effectual measure to prevent its repetition. It is not, perhaps, very generally remembered that such a measure was once frustrated by the wisdom of our ancestors, of which we now see the results. At the time when the first ten amendments to the Constitution of the United States were ratified, there was passed by Congress and submitted to the States another amendment, in these terms: 'No law varying the compensation of senators and representatives shall take effect until an election of representatives shall have intervened.' Mr. Madison, in proposing this amendment with others in Congress, used language which is worthy of notice, though late events have shown that he might well have insisted more strongly on the necessity of such a provision: 'There are several minor cases . . . in which I also wish to see some alteration take place. That article which leaves it in the power of the legislature to ascertain its own emolument is one to which I allude. I do not believe this is a power which, in the ordinary course of government, is likely to be abused. Perhaps of all the powers granted it is least likely to abuse; but there is a seeming impropriety in leaving any set of men without control to put their hand into the public coffers to take out money to put in their pockets; there is a seeming indecorum in such power which leads me to propose a change. We have a guide to this alteration in several of the amendments which the different conventions have proposed. I have gone therefore so far as to fix it that no law varying the compensation shall operate until there is a change in the legislature; in which case it cannot be for the particular benefit of those who are concerned in determining the value of the service' (1 Annals of Congress, 440). This proposed article of amendment was adopted only by the States of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, and therefore never became a part of the Constitution. Perhaps it might be more successful at the present day. The opposition to it would certainly come in the earlier rather than, as before, in the later stages of its passage." We will add that there is nothing in the Constitution to prevent these ratifications from being carried forward as still valid, and counted in favor of Madison's amendment, should any other States now feel like reviving it.

—All of our readers have heard of the English play entitled "The Happy Land," which was the other day suspended by the Lord Chamberlain, who dictated certain changes in it. A correspondent informs us that the real author of this interference was not so much the Lord Chamberlain, who has been so vigorously condemned for going to the relief of Messrs. Gladstone, Lowe, and Ayrton, as it was the Prince of Wales. He is said to have been much scandalized at some allusions to a lack of hospitality supposed to have been displayed in the reception of certain recent state visitors, as for instance the Khedive: "Where do you receive your foreign guests?" was the question, and the reply was, "At Buckingham Palace——Hotel." This to the Prince seemed shocking, and alterations were ordered by the Lord Chamberlain, who, however, kept the Prince's name out of the business, and made a stalking-horse of his own official objections to Mr. Ayrton's lavender or lilac pantaloons and to the cancan, with song, danced by the three ministers above-mentioned. We are informed from the same source that the Prince of Wales has also recently been taken for a subject by a metrical satirist, who has been writing for *Beeton's Annual* some parodies of the Laureate's later "Idyls." The parodies are reported to be duller than the originals, but it pleases the disaffected and the gossip-mongers to see the "tournament of the dead innocence" turned into one of the pigeon-matches in which the Prince delights. Stupid as the performance was, however, the Prince is understood to have bought up the copyright for a considerable sum, and copies at first worth one shilling are now sold for ten. Worse than all this, however, is the fact that the Prince and his brother, the Duke of Edinburgh, cast a vote apiece the other night, in the Lords, for the bill authorizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister, and that they have frequently gone to the theatre during Lent just passed. These two things are said to have made very angry the High Church party—which, however, has always been honorably known for its loyalty, and may no doubt still be depended upon.

—The Messrs. Rivington (London) send us their 'Annual Register' for 1872, uniform with the issues of the two preceding years already noticed in the *Nation*. The Washington Treaty and Geneva Arbitration, and the reconstructive legislation of France and Germany, are the chief features of the political record. This is followed by summaries of literature, art, and science; by a chronicle of remarkable occurrences during the year; meteorological observations; obituary; remarkable trials (including the Tichborne case); and a very valuable appendix, containing full texts of the treaty of commerce with France, the San Juan award, the Geneva award, besides Government statistics, etc., etc. The 'Register' is edited in a much more readable manner than is common with similar works of reference. The chapter on the United States is a sufficiently unpalatable reminder of the recent supremacy of Fisk, Gould, Barnard, and the Ring. It is hardly correct to say of our Presidential candidates that they were "*each* touring about to make profession of their faith before the people," although it is immediately added that "Grant harangued but little." He hardly opened his mouth. And in saying (on p. 302) that the London *Times* "had the credit of bursting the diamond bubble," the compiler omits all mention of Messrs. King and Gardner, but for whose sagacity the *Times's* habitual "bearing" of American enterprises would have had small effect in preventing one of the greatest and most deplorable swindles of the century.

—The name of a French author of distinction, M. St. Marc-Girardin, is to be added to the rapidly growing necrology of the year 1873. He died of apoplexy on the 12th instant, having advanced just two months into the seventy-third year of his age, for he was born on the 12th of February, 1801. We think we are not mistaken in saying that, like his great contemporary, Sainte-Beuve, whom he succeeded in 1869 as editor of the *Journal des Savans*, M. Girardin was of partly English blood. His long life had been spent in educational, journalistic, political, and literary labors, and was fruitful of good works. His first noticeable success was at the age of twenty-one, when, after graduating honorably at the colleges Napoléon and Henri IV., young Girardin obtained an honorable mention by the French Academy for the eloquence of his eulogy of Le Sage. In 1827, he secured a professorship (Collége Louis le Grand), and in the same year began writing for the *Débats*. Thenceforth honors, literary and semi-political, poured in upon him steadily. He was elected a deputy; he was appointed a professor of poetry in the College of the Sorbonne; he was sent on a mission of investigation into the educational institutions of other European countries; he was made Master of Requests to the Council of State; he was elected (1844) a member of

the Academy, of which he became one of the brightest ornaments, succeeding the not very brilliant M. Vincent Campenon; and he was the author of many highly valued books. Of these, the following are the best known: 'Tableau de la Littérature au 16me Siècle, suivi d'Etude sur la Littérature du Moyen Age et de la Renaissance'; 'Notices politiques et littéraires sur l'Allemagne'; 'Essais de Littérature et de Morale'; 'Cours de Littérature Dramatique.'

—Germany poured into France, during the late war, no fewer than 913,967 men, of whom 127,897—or more than one in seven—were killed, wounded, or missing at the close; among these were 5,254 officers and surgeons. The dead of the campaign amounted to 40,881; 17,572 died on the field of battle, 10,718 of their wounds; only 12,253 officers and soldiers perished of disease—a ratio terribly significant of the short and desperate character of the war. There were 78 engagements of the graver sort, 870 of the slighter, besides 33 sorties and 486 other rencontres. Wörth, Vionville, Gravelotte, and Sedan were the bloodiest.

—The long disputed question of the origin of the English trial by jury has perhaps been at last determined by the researches of a German scholar, Dr. Heinrich Brunner of Vienna. A full statement of his results is given by Prof. Sohm in the last number of the *Historische Zeitschrift*. Surprising as it may seem, he declares that this peculiarly English institution, identified more than almost any other with traditionary English liberties, and commonly referred, like all the rest, to the great Alfred, is not of Anglo-Saxon origin, is not even of Germanic origin, but was derived from Normandy, from the extraordinary royal jurisdiction of the Frankish kings. The original popular judicature of the Germanic nations, exercised in the "trial" of the hundred, consisted simply in judging the law; the facts being determined by the parties between themselves—by compurgation, ordeal, trial by combat, etc. By the side of this process, which was clearly inadequate to the more complicated relations of more civilized times, there was established in Merovingian times a royal process, administered by the Pfalzgraf and other royal officers, the *inquisitio per testes*, which was a genuine process of determining the fact, not of declaring the law, like the popular process. In compurgation the witnesses swore to the truth of the particular fact which they were there to testify to, and that was all. In the new process they took a general oath to tell the truth, which was then ascertained by the judge by questioning. In Normandy this process received a further development. It was made compulsory in certain cases (of landed estate), by writ *ex brevi*: the number of witnesses was fixed at twelve, and they became an organized body, *jurata*, a majority of which decided (a larger majority was required in certain cases). Still the jury was composed of witnesses, not of judges. In this shape it was introduced into England by Henry II., and gradually the jury, consisting of neighbors acquainted with the facts, was allowed to receive testimony from outside, thus being at once witnesses and judges. In this intermediate state it continued until 1650, when a statute was passed definitely separating the witnesses from the jury, whose functions now became the giving a verdict from testimony laid before them. The criminal jury was of rather later origin, but followed in general the same course.

—That infamous and incendiary work, 'Death-blow to Corrupt Doctrine,' which created so much alarm among the foreign residents in China some three years ago, has, it appears, not been altogether suppressed. Under a changed title, 'The Golden Mirror for Exhibiting the Demons,' it has been lately reprinted at Wuchang, province of Hupeh, in a condensed form, but with all the old venom and obscenity retained. This new edition has enabled an acute correspondent of the Shanghai *Budget* (issue of Jan. 30) to make a conjecture as to the authorship of the 'Death-blow' which seems to have hit the mark. "A man of Jan-chow, above all others distressed in heart," is what the anonymous libeller styles himself, according to the missionary version in English. This would point to the province of Kiang-si, but the correspondent thinks the translators have made a mistake, as his Chinese copy (dated 1861) has the words Ku-t'an-chow, the old name of a department in Hunan, to which, therefore, the origin of the book may safely be traced. Now, "Chinese scholars all possess a seal or seals with different mottoes engraved on them, and one or other of these mottoes is always attached to their compositions"; and precisely this *nom de plume* of "the man distressed above all others" the correspondent happens to find appended to a poem in a kind of Chinese anthology, printed many years ago for private circulation, in Hankow. The editor of the collection had affixed to each contribution a note giving a slight sketch of the writer, and the names under which he was accustomed to write; and "the man distressed" he declares to be P'eng Yu-lin, a Vice-President of the Board of War, and a native of the Heng-yang district, in the province of Hunan. The identification appears to be complete, and it only remains to add that this official stands in high favor at Peking, and deservedly, on account of his naval exploits during the Taiping rebellion, in which he was severely wounded, and, more lately, for his reform of the navy, and for other loyal services rendered in spite of his preference for private life. The discovery is not a pleasing one.

MR. BUCKLE.*

IN 1857, the 'History of Civilization' was the book of the day. It was admired, criticised, discussed, or assailed in every class-room and drawing-room here and in England. Ladies and gentlemen who had never mastered the annals of a single country discoursed of "historical laws," of "deductive" and "inductive" reasoning, and of the "stationary" character of morals, with all the enthusiasm and animation of ignorance. Fanatical admirers fancied that Mr. Buckle had opened a new era in historical speculation, and timid opponents thought he had shaken the basis of morals and religion, because he had shown that an unvarying number of undirected letters were slipped year by year into the post-box. Followers and foes alike believed that Mr. Buckle had produced a great work, and scarcely a reader here and there suspected that Mr. Buckle had achieved nothing more than to produce a fragment of the biggest of big books. The 'History of Civilization' has been compared by some critics with the 'Origin of Species,' and there exists a superficial analogy between the history of the two books. Each of them was in its turn the book of the year. Each excited an immense amount of controversy. Each introduced to popular attention enquiries and speculations which had up to that time interested students rather than the ordinary public. Each work was recommended by its style. For though few persons will agree with the anonymous admirer cited by Miss Taylor, who considers Mr. Buckle to have attained the perfection of a philosophical style, yet no one can deny him a faculty for lucid exposition, which falls far below the beauty of Mr. Darwin's terse and logical diction, but nevertheless attracts the attention of ordinary readers. But the points of contrast between the nature and the fate of the two books are far more marked than the points of similarity. No one but a man of science can give an opinion worth the paper on which it is written, of the ultimate value of the 'Origin of Species,' but a mere literary critic can perceive certain features in which Mr. Darwin's work differs from Mr. Buckle's. The 'Origin of Species' is confessedly the work of a master in the topics of which he treats. It is a beautiful specimen of argument, which is close and logical, yet so expressed as to be intelligible to men of no scientific culture. The theories which the book contains may ultimately be disproved, but they have indubitably produced an immense effect on the world. An intelligent reader cannot take up any recent work on morals, sociology, or politics without seeing the influence of Mr. Darwin's speculations and often of Mr. Darwin's phrases. In other words, the 'Origin of Species' is still, so to speak, a live book, and exerts at least the influence which it exercised when first published. Mr. Buckle, on the other hand, never possessed any claim, other than that derived from his book, to eminence as an historian. His style is flowing, but lax and utterly wanting in precision. He has not produced a single follower. His book, though readable, is already dead. The public have forgotten Mr. Buckle and Mr. Buckle's speculations. That the public estimate of his work has changed is certain. Is the change just? The appearance of his Life affords at once a good opportunity and also the means for answering this enquiry.

Mr. Buckle is in some respects now underrated as he was overrated sixteen years ago, but the verdict of 1873 is far more just than the verdict of 1857. The biographical notice itself, taken in connection with the miscellaneous works, proves to demonstration that Mr. Buckle can never claim a high rank as an historian, and justifies on the whole the rapid decline of his reputation. His first and fatal defect is, to use plain terms, his ignorance of history. The following passage from his diary is, in this respect, extremely remarkable:

"The sketch of the history of France during the Middle Ages has occupied me just ten days; but then, on one of these days I did not read at all, . . . so that I think on an average I may say eight days would suffice in future for each history. It is my intention to go first in this hasty and superficial way through European history of the Middle Ages, and then, reading the more elaborate works, make myself as much master of the subject as is possible considering the meagre information we at present possess."

His biographer adds that among the works read during the ten days were Gibbon and Hallam, and that Mr. Buckle apparently expected to find "more elaborate" works than these. Miss Taylor also adds the following comment, of which it is hard to say whether it be meant for eulogy or apology:

* 'Miscellaneous and Posthumous Works of Henry Thomas Buckle. Edited, with a Biographical Notice, by Helen Taylor.' In 3 vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong.

"It seems likely that in fact he soon discovered that the bent of his own mind was deductive. There is little trace of his ever having exercised his mind much on facts at first-hand. People, things and events, society, nature, art, science, and even politics, seem to have had their main interest for him after they had been chronicled and even grouped for him by other minds. He evidently preferred to use his own original powers of thought on the materials which had been amassed by other thinkers."

Now, translate this from the language of biographical admiration into the tongue of plain criticism, and it may be rendered pretty much as follows:

Mr. Buckle preferred theory to investigation; he never enquired into the evidence on which facts rested, but took them at second or third hand from other people, and then spun fine theories about them. As an original authority he has no weight whatever. His powers were employed in drawing inferences from data which he had never verified, but found chronicled and grouped for him by other minds.

That this is the true interpretation to be put on the passage from Mr. Buckle's own diary and from Miss Taylor's comment is apparent from every page of his voluminous commonplace-book. It reads for all the world like a series of extracts from *Notes and Queries*. The moment you read it, you understand how Mr. Buckle got together the mass of authorities with which he encumbers rather than elucidates the pages of his history. To him, it would seem, a reference was a reference, and one writer as good an authority as another. We know of no other author of eminence who would refer for a fact to Miss Strickland or the *Penny Cyclopædia*. Mr. Buckle must apparently have thought that a statement for which any one would vouch in a printed book might be treated as a fact. He was, in fact, wanting in the primary qualities of an historian—the capacity for weighing authority against authority, and the firm belief that no one can write safely who has not recourse to original authorities. Even his most ardent friends feel that some defence is necessary. We are told that "he never could have borne the fatigue of studying manuscript"—this was to be regretted; but no sane critic really expects that an historian should study the manuscript of every author to whom he refers. What is really and justly expected is that an historian should carefully weigh authorities, should have recourse to the best works on his subject, and should estimate with the utmost care the evidence for the facts on which he grounds his theories. "If," it may be retorted, "every person who writes a history must go through the labor of examining a mass of evidence, how can any one work out wide generalizations worthy to be called historical laws?" The reply is simple, though perhaps disheartening to theorists. The state of our historical knowledge, or rather of our want of knowledge, makes the attainment of such wide generalizations all but impossible. History is, after all, little else than a sort of law court; no one can come to any tolerable verdict on its problems who will not spend an infinity of time and labor in the investigation of evidence. A person who grudges this labor, or does not understand its importance, ought not to attempt to become a historian. The men of genius who have really promoted historical science have either brought new facts to light or shown how new results may be attained by the comparison or combination of facts the truth of which is past a doubt. Original powers and a mass of commonplace-books will never enable even the most ready of theorists to become a great historian without the toil of investigation.

But even suppose it be granted that Mr. Buckle could hope to achieve anything by the manufacture of theories based on a mass of ill-digested facts, it can hardly be said that his theories were in themselves of great worth. As a theorist, he labored under a defect which we should be inclined to describe as essential "commonness" of mind. He constantly bases his views upon merely popular distinctions which a little reflection or education ought to have shown him to be untenable. His whole theory is based on the distinction between the progressive character of intellectual discoveries and the stationary character of the moral feelings. It never seems to have occurred to him that the distinction between the moral and intellectual parts of the soul is itself more convenient than accurate, and that, in fact, the soul itself does not consist of parts. He never even seems to have realized the primary difficulties to which his paradox, that progress depends wholly on intellectual changes, is exposed. He certainly seems to have taken no steps to meet them. Take, again, as an example of the same mental characteristic, his lax use of expressions, such as "superstition." He writes a volume to show that the Spaniards and the Scotch are both slaves to superstition. Whether there is or is not any truth in the doctrine he meant to put forward, will be decided by judges in different ways. What is, however, clear is that what is called superstition in Scotland is both in its character and its effects a very different thing from the superstition of Spain. A subtle or discriminating writer would have felt that it was necessary to analyze with great care the religious sentiments of Scotland and Spain; Mr. Buckle lumps them together under the vague term superstition. What, again, can be more absolutely inane than such generalizations as that women are deductive and men inductive, or that all Scotch writers, who must, in Mr. Buckle's view, have shared a feminine characteristic, prefer deduction to induction? Such generalizations can hardly attain the dignity of errors. They are, for all purposes of historical investigation, utterly futile. They have nothing approaching the importance of Comte's theory of the three stages of historical progress. Comte's generalizations are, in our judgment, open to the gravest of doubt, but they are, at any rate, not unmeaning, and would, if true, throw real light on history. Nor, again, can any of the so-called laws propounded by Buckle be even compared with many of the speculations of De Tocqueville, whose views as to democratic progress come nearer to historical laws than any generalizations which have been made about the course of human destiny.

What we have termed a commonness of Mr. Buckle's mind comes curiously out when he criticises men of genius. Many hard things have been said, both justly and unjustly, of Bacon. He has often been called something very like a knave, but we doubt whether any one before or after Mr. Buckle ever dreamed of considering him a fool. Mr. Buckle, however, says out roundly: "The truth is that, while the speculations of Bacon were full of wisdom, his acts were full of folly," and develops this wonderful paradox throughout a page, which merely constitutes a portion of an argument to show that men of genius have always been incapable in the ordinary affairs of life. The same turn of mind led Mr. Buckle to adopt all the sentiments of the time in which he lived. In 1851, he apparently shared the then prevalent anticipation of a sort of industrial millennium. "None shared the illusions of that period more fondly than Mr. Buckle. He thought he had reached philosophically, and could prove as necessary corollaries of a certain condition of knowledge and civilization, the conclusion which numbers held without knowing why; and it was this train of thought which made the opening of 'The People's Palace' interesting to him." Mr. Buckle, in short, was neither a great historian nor a great historical theorist. His 'History of Civilization' consists, for the most part, of crude generalizations supported by a mass of ill-authenticated facts.

Must we, then, conclude that the admiration excited by the 'History of Civilization' at its first appearance was altogether without ground, or that Mr. Buckle had no claims to the fame which he certainly obtained? There is no necessity for answering this question in the affirmative. Mr. Buckle's work was admired, not because of its great depth or great originality, but because it expressed in a clear and decisive form ideas, some of them true, some of them false, which had gradually been coming into vogue, and greatly needed clear expression. The works of many thinkers and the whole course of speculation had led the world to feel that the time had come for attempting to make history something more than a chaotic mass of anecdotes. Rightly or wrongly, it was universally felt that human actions must be at last made the subject of general rules, principles, or laws. To this conviction Mr. Buckle gave the boldest and most decisive expression. He did not discover a single historical law; he made scarcely a suggestion about the progress of civilization which was not to be found in the works of some more original thinker; but he proclaimed, in a voice which all men were forced to hear, that human actions were the subject of laws, and could therefore be made the object of science. Years will probably elapse before reflecting men will be able to decide what amount of truth the dogma so loudly proclaimed by Mr. Buckle contains. But no one can doubt that his doctrine represented in an exaggerated form an opinion which had many adherents. Mr. Buckle became a prophet, not because he was an original thinker, but because he uttered other men's thoughts with singular vigor. Both his defects and his merits combined to fit him for the post of spokesman for opinions which needed utterance. His utter want of subtlety, the very commonness of his mind, made it easy for him to get up wholesale, and without much discrimination, the doctrines of the teachers, such as Mill and Comte, from whom he derived his inspiration. His solitary life seems to have incapacitated him from entering into views opposed to his own; but this very incapacity enabled him to put forth his own views, or rather the views of his school, with a decision which can hardly ever be attained by men who have the misfortune to see two sides of a question. Moreover, though he seems to himself, and probably to his admiring friends, a person whose individuality and originality led him into constant conflict with common opinion, his whole tone of mind was in keeping with the ordinary sentiments of the day, and enabled him in fact to obtain a hearing when a man whose sympathies had really been opposed to the feelings of the age would have failed to get an audience. Let it, however, in justice to Mr. Buckle, be added that his success arose in part at least from some great merits, which were rather moral than intellectual. His enthusiasm for his work was of itself a quality as rare as it is great. It was combined with a fearless honesty, which led him to speak out opinions

which others would have muttered below their breaths. These two qualities taken together gave him even intellectually a certain kind of boldness, in which the writers of our day are singularly deficient. He was, so to speak, a man who could always utter what he had to say in a good, ringing, manly tone. He was certainly not a great man, yet he had about him a species of intellectual bigness. His work was like himself. His 'History of Civilization' is, to use a child's expression, a great big book. It was in every way too big for use, and reminds us of Robinson Crusoe's huge boat, which was too clumsy to be removed from its place, which never was of any use to its maker or any one else, but remained high and dry upon the land, a monument of a waste of labor and of dauntless energy.

RAY ON INSANITY.*

DR. RAY is well known as by far the ablest advocate, if not the inventor, of the new doctrines of criminal responsibility as affected by insanity and insane delusion, which have obtained so widely of late years, and his views are worthy of attention, not only by reason of their undoubted honesty, and the ability with which they are supported, but because the author, to his own confusion, as we think, assumes the functions not only of a physician but of a lawyer and judge, and sharply, not to say ferociously, criticises the legal theories generally applied to cases in which insanity is alleged as an excuse for crime. His last book, in which the author carries his peculiar views to even a broader application than in his 'Medical Jurisprudence of Insanity,' is principally made up of papers printed at different times in the *American Journal of Insanity*, the *American Law Review*, and other journals, and it is for this reason, perhaps, that we notice in it certain contradictions and inconsistencies of statement which might not have found place in a more homogeneous work.

The papers in which Dr. Ray's peculiar opinions find strongest expression are those on "The Causes of Insanity," "Objections to Moral Insanity Considered," and "The Trial of Rogers." The first of these contains many shrewd and valuable criticisms of popular fallacies regarding the causes and beginnings of insane disease. The writer believes that the causes assigned for the existence of insanity, are often but the occasions of the development of insane tendencies which had previously remained concealed and unsuspected. He forcibly says: "Taking up the first hospital report within reach, and turning to the table of causes, I find in it *hard work, fear of poverty*, and *jealousy*, to mention no others. We shall scarcely find any warrant, I think, for believing that the incidents here named can, in the nature of things, exert a morbific influence on the brain. A poor man can have no apprehension of poverty, while, in the rich, it must be a morbid feeling of course—part and parcel of the disease of which it is alleged to be the cause. Jealousy, in process of time, gradually increasing, may become a form of mental disease; but to call it the cause of insanity is very like saying it is the cause of itself. Hard work may produce that exhaustion of the vital energies which favors the development of insanity, but directly it cannot injure the brain."

Dr. Ray, as the above passage with its context shows, takes an exclusively medical view of his subject; he regards insanity simply as a disease, generally having its roots in the patient's constitution; and clearly holds that mere eccentricity, morbid imaginations, and insanity as popularly understood, are but degrees of the same thing. Forgetting that the law can take cognizance of insanity only as manifested in overt acts, he insists that the courts shall adopt his definition of it, and shall, in all cases, accept its existence when proved as an excuse for crime, or, at least, throw the burden of proof upon those who contend that it is not such an excuse. That the adoption of such principles of criminal procedure would result in frequent subversions of justice, it needs no argument to prove.

But it is in the paper on "Objections to Moral Insanity Considered" that Dr. Ray announces his most startling theories. He begins by grossly mistaking, as it seems to us, the position of his opponents. No one, whether physician or lawyer, cares to dispute that moral insanity may exist—impossible as it is to distinguish it in practice from moral depravity—and we suppose that every one understands by it such an aberration of the moral perception, however arising, as renders its subject unable to perceive in his own acts, or those of others, any essential quality of right and wrong. The law says that such insanity shall not discharge its subject from the consequences of illegal acts committed under its influence, so long as reason, will, and legal knowledge remain—that is, so long as the patient is *morally* insane merely—the reason of the rule being, that the law does not care what the criminal's own private views of right and wrong are, but has for its function the prevention of acts which the community has, for good reason, agreed to consider wrong. The Sentimentalist, believing that every man should be a law unto himself, revolts at this view, and concludes that no one should be punished for acts which his own conscience, no matter how perverted, approves. Dr. Ray seeing the difficulty into which he is led, and ashamed to advocate the bald sentimental view of the matter, fortifies his position by the naked assertion, that moral insanity *must, of necessity*, control the will and reason, and so render its subject irresponsible. He says: "The force of these morbid impulses cannot be resisted, because it is greater than that which the intellect was designed, in the normal constitution of things, to control." That is, we are not to expect any one to control his impulses to wrong, if it seem to him right, because this would be expecting too much of human nature. If this assertion be true, and it is wholly unsupported by proof, or in our opinion by reason, all controversy is at an end. If the disease controls the will, it is intellectual insanity, not simply moral insanity, and, of course, renders its subject irresponsible.

Thus assuming that moral insanity is a perfect excuse for crime, Dr. Ray goes on to consider what evidence will prove its existence, and advances opinions more startling if not more novel than any we have met elsewhere. His theories lead directly to the result that all criminal acts are *prima facie* insane. In other words, the very crime of which the defendant is accused, is the best proof of the insanity alleged to excuse it. He says: "The single criminal act may sometimes be very unsatisfactory proof of insanity; *but we apprehend that such cases are very infrequent.* . . . When a woman previously distinguished for every virtue takes the life of her darling child, am I obliged to stifle my instinctive convictions of her insanity merely because no other symptom of mental disease has been witnessed? . . . In a large proportion of cases, the crowning proof of insanity is drawn chiefly from the character of some single act, the previous and subsequent manifestations of disease being too obscure and equivocal to possess much significance. Now, it is going but one step further, and that not a very long one, *to regard such act as the sole proof.*"

After such expressions of opinion as we have quoted, we are not surpressed to find that Dr. Ray's views regarding insane delusion, so far as they can be determined from their somewhat vague expression, are equally remarkable. The rule laid down in the McNaghten case—the leading English authority on the subject—is that the existence of delusion shall relieve its subject from the consequences of acts committed under its influence, when and when only, if the delusion had been a reality, the act would have been excusable. In the famous Rogers case, Chief-Justice Shaw, of Massachusetts, adopted the same rule, adding to it the qualification that delusion may in some cases be an indication of *general mental unsoundness*, and, in such cases, may excuse criminal acts committed under its influence, even although the facts of the delusion, if real, would not have excused them. This rule has ever since been accepted by judges and lawyers as clear, definite, and precise, and as perhaps the best exposition of the law on the subject yet given, and worthy the reputation of its eminent author. Yet Dr. Ray somewhat flippantly says:

> "He [the Chief-Justice] hesitates and vacillates, returns again and again to qualify what he has said, or to add some condition for the purpose of enlarging or restricting the range of its application. As might be supposed, his ideas lack precision and lucid arrangement, and the reader is not always sure of his exact meaning."

It is evident from Doctor Ray's expressions on the subject, though his views are not precisely formulated, that he will be satisfied with nothing else than a rule which shall declare that delusion in all cases, on whatever subject, shall be taken as an indication of such insanity as renders its subject irresponsible. He would establish a new maxim in law—*insanus in uno, insanus in omnibus*—and make it embody a presumption which shall be conclusive in all cases.

We had marked for criticism many other passages in this new book, but space will not allow extended comment upon them. Yet one or two of the author's suggestions in regard to criminal practice, can hardly pass unnoticed. Dr. Ray seems to be of the opinion that the lawyers in the community are in league to break down and insult medical experts upon the witness-stand, and proposes as a simple remedy, that "the testimony of experts should be given in writing, and read to the jury without any oral examination. It would thus be deliberately prepared, its explanations well considered, and its full force and bearings clearly discerned. It would go to the jury on its own merits, no advantage being gained by the superior adroitness of counsel in embarrassing the witness and pushing his statements to a false and ridiculous conclusion." The obvious answer to this proposition is, that testimony which cannot stand the crucial test of cross-examination is generally worthless, and that such a practice would be in direct contravention of the rule of law, which requires that the accused, in criminal cases, shall be confronted with the witnesses against him.

Dr. Ray also proposes for general adoption, a rule which obtains in

*. 'Contributions to Mental Pathology. By J. Ray, M.D., author of "Medical Jurisprudence of Insanity," and "Mental Hygiene."' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1873.

the State of Maine, that, whenever insanity is alleged as a defence by the accused, "the prisoner shall be sent to the State Hospital for the Insane, that he may be observed by the superintendent, who shall report to the court respecting his mental condition." The working of this rule in Maine, as stated by the author, seems a sufficient reason for rejecting it. It appears that of thirty persons so placed under surveillance in the last twenty-one years, twenty-four were pronounced insane, and that all of these escaped punishment. To believe that, during a long series of years, five-sixths of all the persons alleging insanity as an excuse for crime are really irresponsible, seems preposterous.

It is pleasant to be able to close this notice, by thanking the writer for the full and interesting paper upon the insanity of King George the Third, which appears to be written very carefully, and collects much interesting matter from scattered authorities, which cannot be separately consulted without the expenditure of much labor, time, and patience. It is an article in which the peculiar theories of the author find no room for expression, and is of interest alike to the physician, the lawyer, and the historical student.

Key to North American Birds, containing a concise account of every species of living and fossil bird at present known from the continent north of the Mexican and United States boundary. Illustrated by 6 steel-plates and upwards of 250 woodcuts. By Elliott Coues, Assistant-Surgeon United States Army. (Salem: Naturalists' Agency. 1872. Large 8vo, pp. 361.) —This book will be welcomed by both the amateur and the professional ornithologist as a valuable contribution to the list of books treating of North American birds. While Dr. Coues has modestly called his work a "Key," it is in reality much more than the title indicates. A brief description of each species is given, but sufficiently full to enable the student to identify a specimen, while in many cases the descriptions are quite complete. The book will doubtless serve as a manual to many who find their recreation in observing and studying the habits of birds, and have not the means to purchase more costly works. For this class it is admirably adapted. The first 57 pages are devoted to an Introduction, which contains a large amount of valuable information, indispensable to the beginner, upon the anatomy and classification of birds. It gives plainly and concisely the instruction needed. The following, taken from the definition of a bird, page 1, will answer for a sample: "A bird is an air-breathing, egg-laying, warm-blooded, feathered vertebrate, with two limbs (legs) for walking, two limbs (wings) for flying or swimming, fixed lungs in a cavity communicating with other air cavities, and one outlet of genito-urinary and digestive organs," etc. Following the Introduction is an Artificial Key, which enables the student to find the genus to which his specimen belongs. The Systematic Synopsis occupies nearly 300 of the 361 pages of the book. The feature of most benefit to professional ornithologists is the numerous references to other authors which Dr. Coues appends to the description of each genus. These references are not only to standard works, but refer as well to articles in the proceedings of scientific bodies and in scientific periodicals, bringing the bibliography of the subject down to the latest date. A few pages are devoted to a Synopsis of the Extinct Birds of North America, for which the author acknowledges his indebtedness to Prof. Marsh. Those who possess Dr. Coues's work, and have not the necessary means of reference, will regret that the author did not insert in tabular form the classification he has adopted, at least down to Orders. Such a table would have been a great convenience to many. Some wrong references to figures are found upon pages 50 and 51, although such errors are very few. The Synopsis, we should have remarked, professes to be hardly anything more than a dry anatomical description of the several birds, and of course does not give the graphic description of habits and songs which one finds in Audubon or Nuttall. Still the most characteristic points in these respects will always be found stated briefly and forcibly; and once in a while even a bit of pleasing sentiment occurs, as the agreeable description of the greenlets, p. 119. The typographical execution of the work is every way worthy of it, and the cuts are very clear and instructive.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles. *Publishers.—Prices.*

Bacon (Rev. G. B.), Siam, as It Was and Is.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Beecher (Rev. H. W.), Star Papers: Experiences of Art and Nature..... .....
(J. B. Ford & Co.)
Sermons, Seventh and Eighth Series, 2 vols. " "
Beecher (Mrs. H. W.), Motherly Talk with Young Housekeepers. " "
Bell (Sir C.), Expression: Its Anatomy and Philosophy.....(S. R. Wells) $1 50
Bennett (Dr. J. H.), Text-book of Physiology.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 3 50
Burton (J. H.), History of Scotland, Vol. I.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 3 75
Carlyle (T.), Life of Friedrich Schiller..... " " " .0 90
Cushing (C.), The Treaty of Washington.....(Harper & Bros.)
De Pui (Rev. J.), Exposition of the Prophecies of the Apocalypse..... .....
(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)
Deschanel (Prof. A. P.), Elementary Treatise on Natural Philosophy, 2 vols.....
(D. Appleton & Co.)
Downing (A. J.), Cottage Residences, new ed..... .....(John Wiley & Sons) $6 00
Dudley (J. L.), Tides and Tendencies of Religious Thought..... .....
(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)
Dunster (Dr. E. S.), The Logic of Medicine, swd .....(D. Appleton & Co.)

Fine Arts.

THE RECORDS OF PRIMITIVE CIVILIZATION.

IN a most interesting note on the Cesnola collection, sent to the *Academy* by Mr. Newton of the British Museum, we have not only the authority of one of the first living authorities in matters pertaining to classic art, for the distinct recognition of a relation in antique work here clearly shown, and of the most marked importance in an archæological art-genesis, but a strong confirmation of a theory for which I have for several years contended, and of which the famous jeweller and archæologist of Rome, Castellani, has made a direct statement—namely, of a primitive and independent Etrurian source of civilization. Mr. Newton says:

"In all the sculptures from Cyprus which can be fairly referred to the Archaic period, and which are not close imitations of the Egyptian, the type of features is very peculiar. The forehead recedes; the cheek-bones are high; the cheeks sunken; the nose, chin, and lips unnaturally pointed; the facial angle much sharper than in early art. It is singular that we must look to Etruria rather than to the Greek world for types analogous to the Cyprian. The two curious reclining figures in painted terra-cotta from Cervetri, in the Campana Collection of the Louvre, have the same receding foreheads and angular features, as may be seen by comparing the engraving of the figures in the 'Monum. of the Roman Inst.' vi. pl. 59 (see Brunn, 'Annali,' xxxiii. pp. 398, 399), with the figure and head from the Cesnola Collection (*Revue archéol.* N. S. xxii. pl. 23)."

And again:

"From the history of Cyprian sculpture, as developed in extant monuments, we may infer that art in this island passed through the same phases as in Etruria. First came an Archaic style, with a certain affinity to the Archaic Greek style, but differing from it very decidedly in the type and in many details of costume and ornament. Then succeeded a Hieratic style, through which archaic types were mechanically reproduced, and, after that, the disturbing influence of mature Greek art. It is probable that it was part of the Hellenizing policy of Evagoras to invite Greek artists to Cyprus, just as the Carian princes, ruling over a mixobarbaric population, drew Athenian art to Halicarnassus. But it should be noted that neither in Cyprus nor in Etruria does this Greek art, introduced at a late period from without, appear to have flourished except as an exotic. It gave rise to no school of Greek artists in Cyprus."

This question of the relation of Etruscan art with that of the rest of the East is one of the most dark and interesting which our study of the field offers. Castellani ('L'incivilmento primitivo') takes the distinctly intelligible ground that the Etrurian and Pelasgic races are the same, and, in the brochure alluded to, collects many curious antique traditions which favor the theory. Indeed, a general impression seems to have obtained amongst archæologists that there was a connection between the Etruscans and the Pelasgi which cannot be traced out positively, but may be by negative indications. Mux Müller inclines to doubt if the Pelasgi were a distinct race, and refers the name to *πελαιός*, an archaic form of *παλαιός, old*, as meaning the ancient people. But in objection to this we have the distinct assertion, by one of the Greek historians, that there was, on the coast of Italy, still a tribe who spoke the Pelasgic language—at once intimating that there was a race and a language, and that that language was nearly extinct. Moreover, we have the unmistakable evidence of the records of Karnak that the Cretan Pelasgi and the Tyrrhenian Pelasgi had on more than one occasion invaded Egypt, and in one case an alliance is indicated between these two branches of the great nation and the Dorians, whom slighter but not worthless evidence makes to have been related to the Pelasgi. The Tyrrhenian Pelasgi unquestionably point to the Etruscan; and as to the Cretan Pelasgi, we are told by the Egyptian record that they settled in the Delta of the Nile, and moved into Palestine as the Philistines (Pilisti or Pilisgi of the Karnak record), and abundant tradition informs us that the Pelasgi swarmed over the whole Archipelago of the Ægean, and were the earliest noted population of many of the islands even as far as Samothrace, while we find their work in the walls of nearly every ancient city site on the shores of the Ægean, the recent excavations at Troy showing its walls to be Pelasgic.

For confirmation or disproval of the traditions we have two scientific methods of examination—that by language and that by the works which have come down to us. The actuality of a Pelasgic language seems to be scarcely a matter of reasonable doubt in face of the declaration of the historian above alluded to, and the distinct recognition of the different branches of the "divine Pelasgi" by Homer and the early Greek traditions, as actual participants in the Trojan war—on both sides, since the Pelasgic

tribes settled on the coast of Asia had naturally become allied to Priam. If, then, there was an affinity between the Phœnicians and the Pelasgi, is it not more probable that the latter were the emigrant founders of the Phœnician tribe than the reverse? May we not, then, set aside for the moment all the commonly accepted theories that the Pelasgi or Etruscans were Phœnician colonists? I shall be able, I think, to show good reason why we must do so, and that all the so-called Græco-Phœnician sites or settlements are really more likely to have been Pelasgic than Phœnician, if the two are not identical.

The argument from language is almost nothing, and the little that we can deduce is negative. We have seen that the Pelasgic language was nearly extinct in historical times, so far as the coasts accessible to Greece are concerned, but that it differed materially from Greek we may judge. The Pelasgi were evidently "the ancient people," as Müller's derivation makes them to have been called—not allied by race to the Hellenes; and, if really an earlier offshoot from the primeval stock, the language was most certainly deficient in analogy to the Hellenic. Remark here how singularly suggestive is the fact that the Etruscan language has no analogy with any other known, nor can the inscriptions, though collated with everything hitherto discovered in ancient or modern language, be deciphered. Does not this prove a separation so ancient (if not a distinct derivation) from the other branches of the human race as to antedate all recognizable affinity, and entitle all the newcomers of the Aryan stock to call them "the old people"? This single fact presents a strong argument for the identity of the two races, based on philological affinities or the reverse, and a slight confirmation by indirection may be found in the fact that the Etruscan letters are Greek, but not the most ancient form of known Greek letters, and, therefore, are presumably borrowed from Greece in the later interchange of ideas consequent on an emigration from Greece to Etruria—the Etruscans probably having no alphabet or written language when they made the acquaintance of the Hellenes. This fact at once indicates that the language was imperfectly developed, since it had not taken a literal form, and accounts for its having been dropped as a language in favor of the Greek wherever the Pelasgi came in contact with Greeks, and losing all individual existence. It also proves by implication that there could have been no connection with Egypt or Assyria in the remote periods, as letters would scarcely have failed to have found their way with the earliest intercourse, and that, therefore, the Etruscans did not come from the East; and adds another weight to the conjecture that they were Pelasgi—no other than the Etrurian Pelasgi of the records of Thothmes III.

But, in default of clearer testimony from language, we turn to that of monuments, and on this Castellani is high authority. His hypothesis is that Greece was civilized from Etruria, and, in the course of my own investigation, I was fortunate to hit on a curious confirmation of this theory, not to my knowledge recorded.

There is from Etruria, down through the great series of plains as you go toward Naples and thence to Brindisi, a line of Pelasgic remains, every hill-site along the flanks of the Volscian and Sabine hills showing in the substructures that peculiar polygonal masonry of which the walls of Segni are a most marked example and in excellent preservation. Traces appear in the Ionian Isles, along the coast of the Morea, and all through Crete and the Archipelago, with a culminating importance and perfection in the Argolide, where Tiryns, the reputed birthplace of Hercules, represents the first style, Mycenæ the second, and Argos the third. At Mycenæ is the celebrated relief of the Lions over the city gate, a piece of sculpture which shows distinctly the characteristics of an art archaic but tolerably advanced, and far superior in spirit and design to anything which Egypt or Assyria had produced long after this had been executed.* It is made in an exceedingly hard limestone, which is popularly mistaken for flint, and is as difficult to work as porphyry, and which in that climate has preserved its worked surface uninjured. I climbed up on the relief to examine it closely, and found from the undercuttings that the manner of execution had been the same as the early Etruscan intaglii—by a series of drill-holes, having the intervening stone apparently removed by attrition, and with no vestige of the use of an edged or pointed tool. With this light I commenced an examination of all the so-called Pelasgic remains on the Argolide, and found that without an exception they appeared to have been done by attrition or percussion—the latter for facing the masses, and the former when a smooth surface or any ornament was wanted. The so-called Treasury of Atreus (which, by the way be it said, is precisely similar in construction to the Mamertine Prison in Rome, an Etruscan work of mythical date) is made from masses of a conglomerate split out by some unknown means, and rudely faced by rubbing together; nor here, even in the interior of the building, can the mark of cutting tools be found.

On the top of the ruins of the citadel of Argos, which shows the latest form of polygonal building—the polygonal stones laid three or four deep in courses with parallel sides—I found a stone which had, by some modern force, possibly exerted during its siege in the war of Greek independence, been overturned so that its ancient under-side was exposed, and this showed the whitish marks of facing by blows by a blunt instrument. It was evident in all the examinations I could make that the Pelasgic builders did not know the use of cutting tools for stone, yet the earliest known Egyptian work shows a perfect knowledge of stone-cutting.* If, then, civilization came from Egypt to Greece, how is it that the civilizers left the tools of their trades behind them, and that a work so far advanced in its knowledge of art as the Lions of Mycenæ should have been done without cutting tools? And why, moreover, should these works, one and all, show so much resemblance to those of Etruria, and so little to those of Egypt or Assyria?

We can now see the importance of these indications, pointed out by Mr. Newton, of an Etruscan art in Cyprus, taken in connection with the numerous city walls as well as the tradition of the Pelasgi. Newton's recognition of Etruscan work where we know the Pelasgi to have been, but have no intimation that the Etruscans ever were, is an unmistakable confirmation of the theory of the identity of the people called by these two names.

If further evidence of this kind, as to the identity of the Pelasgi with the people who brought the primitive arts to Greece, is worth noting, it may be found in the close resemblance of the tombs in the island of Ægina, off the coast of Morea, to those of Etruria, which is one of the most curious and, on any other theory, unaccountable coincidences in the history of civilization. Müller opposed to my deductions the fact that the primitive building of every people which is obliged to work with a stone of the character of the limestone of which the Pelasgi made their walls, is more or less of the same polygonal type, but this is a natural and accountable coincidence. What is not accounted for is the fact that all other rude forms of polygonal work are of undressed stone, while the Pelasgic is dressed to a nicety, and fitted perfectly; but when it is a stone that permits quadrate forms, as in parts of the ruins of Mycenæ, the stones are parallelopipedons, and there is often carving, of which the Lions are the best example, and all done without the use of edge-tools. This proves a high degree of culture and civic organization, attained to in the most complete independence of the East, and makes it probable that, so far from the Etruscans and early Hellenes having borrowed the arts from the East, it was really the Pelasgi, their ancestors, who carried certain of the arts to the East; and that the Etruscan types of ornament and art-work found in Assyria were as likely to have been originally introduced by the Pelasgi as to have been carried by Phœnician vessels to Etruria—more likely, in my opinion, as the Pelasgic naval knowledge antedated that of the whole East, and probably by ages.

Castellani quotes a tradition saying that the Pelasgi—restless and wandering over the whole East without finding a secure home, building cities for uncultured and more energetic races, and then, as in Athens, being driven out of them barbarously—came to the Delphian Oracle to ask what they must do to escape their misery, and the oracle replied: "Return to your native land, Italy, and you will find rest."

In considering this migration of the Pelasgi, we must remember that it was not like a raid of the Goths and Vandals, who swept over empires in a few years, but a process of swarming from one hive to another, building, populating as they went; and when we consider the time it must have cost to build the walls of a single city like some of those on their track, we may conjecture the ages it must have taken to go from Italy to the shores of Asia.

In a future communication, I will try to connect and systematize the traditions and authorities by which I believe that this theory can be maintained.

W. J. Stillman.

* The earliest Egyptian sculpture is dated as of the 22d cent. B.C., that of Assyria in the 10th, while the building of Mycenæ is put by tradition at 1300 B.C., and that of Tiryns at 1379, an exactitude of date as fabulous as the manner of building, and, like all dates of Greek mythic origin, only of slight comparative value. Thus, Tiryns was no doubt built before Mycenæ, but by the same art, and on the same system of fortification; if instead of 79 years we put several centuries, we shall come nearer the progress made between the two cities, but if we add 500 years we shall not bring it back to the date of the cave tombs of Egypt, and we carry it further from the early work of Assyria; so that, reasoning from dates, we might conjecture that Assyrian art came from Pelasgi, who had, in Egypt, acquired the art of cutting stone, and who worked for the Assyrians as they had for Hellenes.

* There is an instance of polygonal masonry at Athens in the terrace-wall of the Pnyx, the antiquity of which has been disputed, as, notwithstanding its polygonal form, it is historically noted as the work of the Thirty in changing the place of the popular assemblies, so that the people might not have the sea before them at their meetings (Plutarch, Them. 19). Had the archæologists, in weighing the question, ever recognized this trait of Pelasgic work, they would have seen at once that the Pnyx wall is unmistakably modern, as the mark of the cutting-tool is seen in all the facing, which is of the fashion known as "rusticated"; and the work was never finished, as we see that the cutting of the stones from the rock each side of the Bema was interrupted, a part of the rock nearly detached still remaining. I think, therefore, that we may decide with Wordsworth that the present Bema is that of the Thirty, and the ancient Pnyx that on the crest of the hill.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

April 14, 1873.

THE money market opened on Monday comparatively quiet to what it had been the week previous, and everything denoted a tendency to greater ease; but towards the close there were rumors that the Grand Jury was about to summon before it a large number of brokers to give evidence in regard to the lending of money at usurious rates of interest in Wall Street. On Thursday these rumors became facts, some fifty brokers having received notices to appear before that body on Monday. The effect of this on the money market was to cause timidity among lenders, and on Saturday many held off from lending their money at any rate; while those who were not afraid to lend obtained as high rates as they chose to ask—borrowers being, at the same time, grateful for the accommodations. 7 per cent. per annum and ¾ per cent. "commission" was freely bid for the use of money till Monday, and loans were reported as high as 7 per cent. per annum and 1 per cent. commission. It is our opinion that, had not the preliminary steps been taken for the enforcement of the penalties of the usury law, the money market would have closed last week at very near the legal rate; but if the effect of its enforcement is to cause lenders to become hoarders of money, we trust that the Legislature will take notice of the fact, and promptly repeal the law. Once allow the lending of money at any rate of interest agreed upon, and the result will be that, when money is needed and rates are high in this city, it will be sent here, and competition will be created among lenders. But, on the other hand, if the usury law is to be continued and strictly enforced, it is very probable that foreign capital will be taken away from here and placed elsewhere.

Business in commercial paper has been slow, and will probably remain so until the present uncertain state of the call money market ceases. Rates on prime business names are 10 to 12 per cent., but at the close of the week rates on all grades appeared to be nominal.

From London the reports are favorable; money in the open market being easy at the advanced rates, and the Bank of England rate of discount remaining at 4 per cent.—not having been raised at the Directors' meeting on Thursday. The Bank of England lost £548,000 in bullion, and the Bank of France 250,000 francs, last week.

The bank statement for the week is favorable, the banks having made a gain of $1,220,500 in their reserves, and being now $2,025,300 below the legal amount required, against $3,245,800 the week previous. What has become of the currency brought to this city by the different express companies is a question that has puzzled the Street; the banks show a loss of $787,000 in deposits, and yet the amount of currency received from the interior during the week is estimated at between $5,000,000 and $10,000,000.

The following are the statements of averages for the past two weeks:

	April 5.	April 12.	Differences.
Loans	$273,534,000	$271,516,900	Dec. $2,017,100
Specie	15,664,400	16,134,300	Inc. 469,900
Circulation	27,715,800	27,714,400	Dec. 1,400
Deposits	187,687,000	186,899,200	Dec. 787,800
Legal tenders	34,940,500	35,493,800	Inc. 553,300

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	April 5.	April 12.	Differences.
Specie	$15,664,400	$16,134,300	Inc. $469,900
Legal tenders	34,940,500	35,493,800	Inc. 553,300
Total reserve	$50,604,900	$51,628,100	Inc. $1,023,200
Circulation	27,715,800	27,714,400	Dec. 1,400
Deposits	187,687,000	186,899,200	Dec. 787,800
Total liabilities	$215,402,800	$214,613,600	Dec. $789,200
25 per cent. reserve	53,850,700	53,653,400	
Deficiency in legal reserve	3,245,800	2,025,300	Dec. 1,220,500

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$234,051,800	$37,465,100	$271,516,900
Specie	14,447,700	1,686,600	16,134,300
Legal tenders	31,551,400	3,942,400	35,493,800
Deposits	160,056,700	26,242,500	186,899,200
Circulation	27,671,400	43,000	27,714,400

With the exception of the maintenance of prices in the face of a very stringent money market, such as we have for weeks described, the stock market has presented no very noticeable feature. It is evident, from the way in which large blocks of stocks have been kept off the market, that they are in the hands of strong holders. The large holders have been the best aware that an attempt to sell stocks during the monetary stringency would have brought about a panic; they have, accordingly, made the best of it, and will have their stocks for sale when easy money and probably higher prices tempt the confiding public. The majority of the speculative stocks dealt in at the Stock Exchange are now selling up to and beyond their intrinsic value; and, should the market be advanced after the money "pinch" is over, we are inclined to the belief that the present holders will gladly sell out, and allow others to make what they can out of them.

Harlem, for some unaccountable reason, became weak soon after the terms of the lease of the road to the Central and Hudson were known, and the price declined to 120½ on Tuesday. This decline was followed by a reaction, and the stock touched 127 on Thursday, finally closing at 124 on Saturday.

The New Jersey Central directors decided to pass the quarterly 2½ per cent. dividend, usually payable April 1, for the very good reason that no dividend had been earned. The price of the stock, of course, immediately fell off, sales being made at 96 on Wednesday, which was the lowest point reached, against 101½, the price at the beginning of the week.

The following statement of earnings has been made by the Company, as well as explanation why the dividend was passed:

"A comparison of the receipts, expenses, and net earnings of the three months ending March 31 with the corresponding quarter of the previous year, gives the following results:

	1873.	1872.	Increase.
Receipts	$1,802,870 41	$1,483,442 87	$319,427 54
Expenses	1,070 988 79	981,254 65	89,734 14
Net earnings	$731,881 62	$502,188 22	$229,693 40

"The above shows the net result of the business for the present year to the 1st inst., to be $229,693 40 better than the previous year. Notwithstanding this, as the state of the money market has prevented the sale of bonds as rapidly as required, and the net earnings have been necessarily used for other purposes, the Board have deemed it judicious to defer the question of dividends till July."

St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad stock showed some signs of life towards the close of the week, and the price advanced to 88, after having been at 85 on Tuesday. The earnings of the road are reported to be largely in excess of those for a corresponding period of last year, amounting to a gain of about 45 per cent. for the month of March. With an improved money market, this stock will undoubtedly advance, as, on its merits and future prospects, the present price is really low.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending April 12, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101¼ 102	101⅜ 101⅝	101¼ 102	101¾ 102⅜	Holiday.	100⅜ 102	157,800
Lake Shore	91⅝ 92	91¾ 91⅞	91⅜ 92⅜	92 92⅛		91¾ 92¼	71,100
Erie	63¾ 64¾	63⅜ 64⅜	64⅛ 65⅜	65½ 66		65¼ 65⅜	43,300
Do. pfd	72 73	 74	 72	73 73			
Union Pacific	33¾ 34⅛	33⅜ 34	33⅜ 34⅛	34 34⅛		33⅜ 33⅛	21,000
Chi. & N. W.							
Do. pfd.							
N. J. Central	101 101⅛	96 100	97¾ 98	98½ 100		98¼ 99	3,000
Rock Island	113⅛ 113⅜	113⅜ 113⅝	113⅜ 114⅛	113½ 114¾		108 109¾	25,300
Mil. & St. Paul.	58⅛ 59⅛	58 58⅜	58⅜ 59⅛	58⅜ 59⅛		58⅜ 59	24,900
Do. pfd.	74½ 74½	74 74½	74¼ 74¾	74⅜ 74⅜			700
Wabash	69⅜ 70½	67¾ 69¼	69 69⅜	70 70½		69 70	16,100
D. L. & Western	99⅜ 99⅜	98⅜ 99⅜	99⅛ 99⅜	99⅜ 99⅞			600
B. H. & Erie	3 3½	3¼ 3½	3½ 3⅝	3⅝ 3⅞		3½ 3⅝	12,300
O. & M.	44¼ 45⅝	44⅛ 44⅞	44¾ 45½	45⅜ 45½		44⅝ 45¼	31,700
C. C. & I. C.	38⅜ 39	38 39	39 39½	39¼ 40½		38¼ 39¼	17,100
W. U. Tel.	84¼ 85½	83¾ 84¾	84⅛ 86⅜	86⅛ 87½		81⅜ 86⅜	153,500
Pacific Mail	56⅜ 57⅜	55 56½	55⅜ 57	56 57⅛		56 57	144,400

The Treasury purchased $500,000 5-20's on Wednesday, at 114.49 to 114.97; the price of gold at the time was 118. The total offers amounted to $2,428,950 at 114.49 to 115.99—all under par in gold.

The Government bond market was strong at the close of the week in sympathy with the firmness of the price of gold. Late in the day Saturday, there was a fractional falling off in prices, on account of the trouble in the money market.

It is reported that telegraphic advices from one of the directors state that £2,000,000 6 per cent. gold loan of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company have been taken in London at a price equivalent to 105 in our currency. The report, so far as we have been able to ascertain, lacks confirmation.

The gold market has been rather quiet, with the fluctuations confined between 118 and 119⅛. The price fell off early in the week to 118, and very little recovery was made until Saturday, when the "bull clique" took advantage of the demoralized condition of the money market, and ran the price up to 119⅛, from which it declined to 118⅝, closing at that at 3 P.M.

The total imports for the week were $6,271,258. The specie shipments were $912,314, making a total of $15,505,820 since January 1, 1873, against $6,572,122 for the same period in 1872, $16,668,882 in 1871, $7,104,958 in 1870, $9,747,541 in 1869, $18,744,575 in 1868.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 24, 1873.

The Week.

THE *Herald* correspondent telegraphs news from Vienna, which the State Department does not contradict, and indeed acknowledges to be in part true, that some of the American Commissioners have purchased their places for small sums. We are told there is to be a "rigid enquiry," but we suppose this will be small consolation to the decent people of the country, on which this horrible succession of American swindles, jobs, frauds, and rascalities is bringing shame and disgrace. The American Minister in London stands before foreign society tainted with complicity in putting a fraudulent mining scheme on the London market; General Fremont—"Fremont so true" of 1856, "The Pathfinder of the Rocky Mountains"—has been convicted and sentenced to five years' imprisonment by the French courts for complicity in a gigantic fraud, by which hundreds of poor French peasants were induced to buy worthless bonds of a bogus Texan railroad on the strength of a forged certificate. The present Vice-President of the Union and his predecessor have been convicted at least of public equivocation, and the majority of the members of the last Congress deliberately walked off with a large sum of public money to which they were not entitled, and even those who voted against the scheme are actually pocketing the plunder and defying the popular indignation. No wonder that the smaller fry are found buying their places, and generally cozening and cheating. When is this state of things to end? most people are asking; but as yet there is no articulate reply.

The President has, it is reported, appointed Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, of this city, to succeed Mr. Curtis, and Mr. Shellabarger, of Ohio, to succeed Mr. Medill, in the Civil-Service Commission. If this is true, a better selection than Mr. Eaton could hardly have been made; we wish as much could be said of Mr. Shellabarger, who has been a little too deep in "politics" to have much of the reforming spirit left in him. Mr. Curtis's place was first proffered to Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted, who, however, felt obliged to decline it, owing to the absorption of his time by his present duties. If the President has picked out Mr. Eaton, he undoubtedly furnishes strong proof of his sincerity; but, as we have often said before, nothing will be complete proof but the use of his power in such manner as to carry out the spirit of the rules in those matters to which they do not strictly apply as well as in those matters to which they do. There may be excuses for the failure to appoint Benedict, or for the failure to extend the operation of the rules thus far to any city but New York, or even for apologizing to members of Congress for appointing postmasters in their absence; but there is and can be no excuse for reappointing Casey at New Orleans, or for selecting the Rev. Dr. Newman and Mr. R. J. Hinton as "inspectors of consulates," neither of them knowing anything more about consulates than about chemistry. Just now, in fact, the popular faith in General Grant's good faith is languid; the selection of Mr. Eaton will do something to revive it; but then we must wait to see whether Mr. Eaton's name is used to cover continual "suspensions" or aberrations, or to give real strength to the machinery of reform.

Within the past week there has been savage fighting for the possession of the Lava Beds between the United States troops under General Gillem and the Modocs. A gang of Warm Spring Indians are now among those enlisted for the attack on Captain Jack, and they do their fighting after the Indian fashion. "Scar-faced Charley" was found wounded, in a cave, with a squaw. The squaw was at once turned over to the captors, and Scar-faced Charley's scalp taken. "Our side," the report from which we take these facts states, "has now five scalps in this fight." As we write, there is some doubt whether the Indians are still in the Lava Beds or whether they have escaped; but it seems clear that they have lost a good many men, and have been obliged to abandon their original position, if such desultory fighting as this can ever be said to have had one. Meantime, two of the worst bands of the Apaches have come in and surrendered to General Crook in Arizona.

There has been another horrible massacre, in Louisiana, at a place called Colfax, in Grant Parish, even worse than the New Orleans massacre of 1866, and a not unnatural consequence of the position in which Congress left the dispute between the two factions over the government of the State. The committee of the Senate made it pretty clear in their report that the Kelloggites who were in possession of the government were usurpers; but, as the Administration at Washington had recognized them, and refused to repudiate them unless Congress passed a bill or resolution to that effect, it made no change in its policy. Consequently, the people of the State are left divided into two bodies, one of which has the authority of the Committee of the Senate for believing that its rights under the election have been disregarded, and the other the authority of the Federal Government for believing that its rule cannot be shaken. A state of things better fitted to produce explosions of violence, particularly in view of the feeling of hostility prevailing between blacks and whites all over the cotton States, could hardly be imagined. Accordingly, when two persons, one black and the other white, claim the office of Sheriff in Grant Parish, the black, far from appealing to the court, takes possession of the court-house with a band of armed followers of his own color, South American fashion, throws up a rude entrenchment round the building, and bids his white competitor come on, hoping, as he has since confessed, that he would be able to hold out till the row drew the Federal troops to his assistance. Whereupon the white, nothing loth, collects his followers also, and besieges his rival, and, as a last resource, fires the court-house, and his men shoot the garrison down as they try to escape from the flames, until 150 have been slaughtered, with the loss of one white man killed and one wounded. There is now a great outcry for the punishment of these "demons," but there was no outcry, or at least no adequate outcry, over the disgraceful connivance at Washington at the state of things which has converted Louisiana into a South American republic, and destroyed all confidence on the part of all classes, not only in the law, but in a popular vote which produces the law. How can any people put any confidence in anything but rifles who see men like Casey and Packard not only kept in office, but put back into office when their term has expired; and the majority in Congress refusing to do their duty in the settlement of the local difference, and going calmly home with their pockets full of stolen money, without one word of rebuke or disapproval from the President?

Mr. Adams's *éloge* of the late William H. Seward, delivered last Friday at Albany, has great merits as a funeral oration, and is a valuable addition to the history of the country. We cannot attempt, in the limits of a paragraph, to give a complete analysis of it, but, in brief, the picture given of Mr. Seward is that of a great statesman. Early foreseeing that slavery was to be the most important question in politics in his time, and having developed a philosophical theory of government in which the perpetuation of slavery found no place, he threw himself heart and soul into the anti-slavery camp, where he remained fighting for the cause till its triumph. In Mr. Lincoln's cabinet, his was the leading mind, and it was his firmness in withstanding the popular clamor at the time of the Trent affair that in reality saved the nation from dissolution—inasmuch as the retention of Mason and Slidell would undoubtedly have resulted in an unsuccessful war with the combined forces of England

and the Confederacy. He receives great praise, also, from Mr. Adams for his admirable organization of the diplomatic service during Lincoln's Administration, and his adhesion to Johnson is explained as having been caused by his desire to carry out the policy of reconstruction already begun under his first chief. His failure to do so was his misfortune, not his fault. In regard to the nomination of Lincoln, Mr. Adams thinks that Seward's behavior at the time was marked by unparalleled magnanimity. This portrait is very different both from the popular view and from the view taken by the anti-slavery Radicals. Mr. Adams's oration is all the better because of this difference, and because we know, what in the case of most oratorical efforts of the day we never do know, that the orator means exactly what he says. The "occasion" seems to have been a success. Among the audience were a number of distinguished people; those "chiefly interested" would appear from the list to have been Frederick Douglass and Millard Fillmore.

The Phelps-Dodge affair has taken a most singular turn. Judge Noah Davis, it will be remembered, alleged, in the most explicit manner, that he, who was District Attorney when the charges were made against the firm, was fully satisfied that the intent to defraud the Government never entered their heads, and that, therefore, although their infractions of the law made a million dollars' worth of property—or, in other words, all goods described in the invoices with regard to which the infractions occurred—liable to forfeiture, he suggested that the firm should pay, in settlement, only $260,000; or, in other words, only the value of the goods on which the full duty was not paid; and this although, according to his own showing, the Government had only lost $3,000; and on this basis a settlement has actually been made. But, as the *World* has pointed out, infractions of the revenue law must be made "knowingly," and with intent to defraud, in order to render an importer liable to any penalty at all. According to the statement of the law-officer of the Government, therefore, the Dodges had committed no legal any more than moral offence, and had incurred no liability, small or great, beyond their payment of $3,000. So that when he recommended them to pay $260,000, he recommended them to submit to a piece of pure extortion to the amount of $257,000, the greater part of which would be divided between the rascally clerk who informed against them, the District Attorney, the Collector, and the Treasury detective. This of course places the Treasury in a very awkward position, and accordingly Mr. Boutwell comes out with a flat denial that he ever agreed to any compromise as long as the firm made formal protestation of their innocence, and that it was only when they withdrew this that he agreed to the settlement. But the question still remains, why, if he believed the firm guilty, did he accept one-quarter of the amount to which, if the firm was really guilty, the Government was entitled? There appears little doubt that the firm was guilty of a great indiscretion in agreeing to compromise at all, and in not publishing their statement months ago; but it is to be said in their defence, as we think it is easy enough to show, that no firm, however rich or powerful, can fight the Government with heart or hope under the detective system with which the Treasury is now armed, and which enables a gang of knavish politicians to work the ruin of any house by mere accusation.

The New York Charter passed the Assembly as amended by the Senate, and though by no means so bad as it was feared it would be when the Custom-house publicists framed it, yet as it is hardly likely to stand more than a year or two, it is mainly interesting as a specimen of low political "work." It is, of course, nominally a "reform charter," but, as its promoters frankly avowed, the only "reform" they have, or ever had, in their minds is one which should give all the offices to the Republicans. They have not been able to carry out all their designs. The appointing power, instead of being given to the Board of Aldermen, leaving the Mayor only the right of confirmation, as they intended, is given to the Mayor, leaving the confirmation to the Aldermen. The Board of Assistant Aldermen, which they acknowledge to be useless, they order to be abolished, but, characteristically enough, not until 1875, having uses of their own for it in the interval. We have often called attention to the disgraceful intrigue by which they got Mayor Hall, on the eve of his going out of office, to appoint certain creatures of their own to several important offices for terms of five years. To prevent the frustration of this scheme, the new charter directed the retention of these and other persons in office; thus, as the *Evening Post* pointed out, making the legislature exercise the executive power of appointment, in an act purporting simply to supply a formal organization to a municipal corporation. Among the other remarkable persons retained in office is "Hank" Smith, the notorious police commissioner, on whom the *Times* used to publish five abusive articles per week in 1872, and whose crimes and rascalities it charged to the account of Mr. Greeley. This awful "scoundrel," however, is now in high favor with the Ring. They have actually retained him in office by special legislation. The charter also cuts down the salaries of the judges by nearly $7,000, a provision which seems plainly unconstitutional, and which we trust the Governor will maturely consider. The members of every Ring, and indeed all politicians, seem to have an instinctive hatred of an upright bench, somewhat like the loathing of rats for a terrier. From first to last, no member of the Ring, or any of their agents in the Legislature, made the slightest pretence that they were consulting the interests of the city or the wishes of its people. They openly avowed that they were serving "the party," and nothing else—a piece of candor which does them much credit. They also dealt very characteristically with a bill, prepared by Mr. D. B. Eaton, abolishing the election of the police justices, and giving the appointment of these officers to the judges of the Superior Court and the Mayor. As this would have taken the offices out of the category of "spoils," they adroitly reserved the appointment for the Mayor and Aldermen, which, if it does not secure it for "the party," at least gives the managers what they call "a chance."

Some enterprising paper ought to publish, in the form of a pamphlet, the "testimony," as it is called, given by Mr. Thomas G. Shearman before the Erie Investigating Committee. On Saturday, he came before the Committee, and once more revealed the character of Attorney-General Barlow, who seems, on the whole, to be one of the most inscrutable corruptionists now living. Mr. Shearman says that in 1872 he told J. H. Comer that he "believed" that a certain contract, made by Fisk with Belden & Hays, was made for the benefit of General Barlow; that he got this information from Fisk, Gould, and Belden, and several other persons whose names he declined to give, as they were his clients; that on one occasion Gould said he "had fixed him," or "would fix him"; that Simon Stevens told him (Shearman) that at one time General Barlow wrote a letter to General Sickles demanding a large sum of money—he thought $100,000. To be perfectly accurate, however, Mr. Shearman added that the statement was not made by Stevens, but by David Dudley Field, in the presence of Stevens, who assented to it by remaining completely silent. He further "understood" from Stevens that he (Stevens) had learned of money coming to General Barlow from the hands of Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham, and he said that Stevens also "intimated" that he knew what became of the $1,500 paid to Speaker Smith. Better than this even, Watson, the new president of the road, had told Shearman that "a friend of General Barlow" had begged on his behalf the very $10,000 he afterwards declined taking. "Witness is further willing to swear," as the formula goes, that he has publicly charged General Barlow with secret affiliations with no less a person than Judge Barnard. The next day explicit denials were made by Watson, Peckham, and Stevens—so that the whole damnable story may now be considered confirmed. The *Tribune* says, *apropos* of all this, "that there is a plain question of veracity at issue between Mr. Shearman and the Attorney-General." There is "a plain question at issue" between these gentlemen, but it is certainly not one of veracity. What remains to be ascertained is the precise degree of somebody's

mendacity. There has evidently been a great deal of what the *Tribune* calls "architectural lying" in the matter, but not by Barlow, or Watson, or Peckham, or Stevens.

The strikes predicted some weeks ago are now going on, though in a rather half-hearted way. They are marked by the usual features—a convention to demand the enforcement of the eight-hour law, followed by interviews between the leading agitators and the local politicians; several assaults on men who have taken the places of the strikers—one extremely brutal, resulting in death and two arrests for murder; and the turning out of the police to protect the new men. The places of the men on strike in the works of the New York Gas Company have been supplied by Italians, and as to the present condition of the company all sorts of conflicting rumors are afloat. One is, that the old men are signing petitions to be taken back; another, that the New York Company have made a connection with the Manhattan Company, and is really getting a large part of its supply from the latter. It is also said that the Italians work very well; while, on the other side, the story is that they cannot stand the work. Nothing has yet occurred at all to be compared in gravity with the building strikes of last year.

One of the most significant features of those strikes was the formation of an Employers' Committee, for the purpose of ascertaining the possibility of making combinations of capitalists to resist the demands of labor, like the combinations made by labor to resist the encroachments of capital. Of course, such combinations are just as possible in one case as in the other; the entire capital of a State or a country, or indeed of the world, employed in a particular industry, might form a union for the purpose of holding out against strikes, and could do it all the more easily, as it could afford to waste more time and money in the struggle. Something of this kind, it seems, is already organized in the boot and shoe trade for the purpose of resisting the Crispins—one of the most powerful trade-unions in the country. The organization is called the "Employers' Protective Association." In Cincinnati last Friday, a Crispin committee called on Mr. Kilsheimer, of the firm of Kilsheimer & Sondheimer, shoe manufacturers, and asked Mr. Kilsheimer whether he belonged to this association, and, on his telling them that he did not, he was requested to sign a paper stating the fact, and promising never to belong to such an association. This, he said, he was willing to do, provided they would sign a similar paper promising never to molest him in his business, and to belong to no organization interfering in the relations between employer and employed. This, however, was trifling with a grave subject, and his hands immediately struck. Meantime, co-operation makes small progress. Herbert Spencer, we observe, considers the co-operative experiment, judged by its results, a failure, though he is a firm believer in its ultimate success. He thinks that the laboring class do not at present show that spirit of fairness and sense of justice which is its necessary basis; and their treatment of their own fellows in their labor organizations shows clearly what a very poor article "workingman morality," like all class morality, is.

The Rev. John J. Keane, of St. Patrick's Church, Washington, writes to the *Catholic Review* that the *Nation's* statement that Patrick O'Brien's commutation was granted by the President "on the prayer of the Catholic clergy," is a "baseless falsehood," and asserts that "no Catholic clergyman had anything to do with the commutation." We shall only say that if Father Roccofort, of St. Aloysius' in the same city, will assert that he did not intercede for O'Brien, whether with the President, or with anybody having, or supposed to have, influence with the President, he will come nearer settling the matter than Father Keane has done. Father Keane refers us to Mr. Ben Butler for the real truth of the affair, but this must be a joke. The Massachusetts moralist, we believe, denies all connection with the commutation.

The resignation of the Presidency of the French Assembly by M. Grévy is likely to prove an important advantage to the Republicans in the Chamber, as there is perhaps not one of them who unites so much devotion to the cause to so much ability and weight of character, and he has, of course, for all practical purposes, been *hors de combat* as long as he was in the chair. Beyond this, the relative positions of the various parties or factions seem little changed. But a measure lately introduced, and which commands general support, proposing to make voting at elections compulsory, is perhaps the most valuable illustration of the peculiar condition of French politics which has been supplied for a long time. The total absence of interest in politics generally on the part of the great body of the French people, is perhaps the greatest difficulty in the way of carrying on a constitutional government, and it has produced one result during the last two years which curiously affects the state of parties. The one political duty which the average French elector feels bound to perform—or rather the one use he feels bound to make of his vote—is to support the Government for the time being, opposition to the Government being, in his eyes, and for obvious reasons, necessarily revolutionary in its character and aims. Therefore, when the prefect and the maire call him to the polls, he goes and votes the Government ticket, no matter on what subject, as the only way known to him of securing peace and tranquillity, or, as he calls it, "order." It follows from this that the Government can always, or almost always, command a majority; and when, therefore, it was proposed last year to submit the question of a republic or a monarchy, to "the people," the Right strongly resisted it, because M. Thiers had given in his adhesion to the Republic. On the other hand, when, as in some of the elections last fall, the Government abstains from all interference, the bulk of the electors think the affair is of no consequence, and do not vote, so that the result gives no indication of the state of public feeling. To remedy this, therefore, it is proposed to extract public opinion from the voters by the threat of fine and imprisonment. The Left support the measure on general principles, and the Right because it seems likely to ensure them good majorities. But the Right has been, on the whole, losing ground for some time back. It was the insubordination and obstreperousness of some of its leading members which led to M. Grévy's resignation, and they have committed the folly of quarrelling with the Government for expelling Prince Napoleon from France—a matter on which their own "record" is bad.

The incident which led to M. Grévy's resignation was in itself significant. The Government is greatly troubled to know what to do with the city of Lyons, which is and has been a focus of insurrectionary sentiment ever since the first Revolution. It has revolted against all governments in turn; during the German war, it virtually established its independence, proposed to put itself at the head of a new confederation, to be called the "Ligue du Midi," and amused itself by overturning the rulers of its own choice about once a week. Moreover, it is profoundly Communistic. The swarm of workingmen who compose the bulk of its population are opposed to both labor and capital, to riches and poverty, and in fact to nearly every social arrangement yet tried by man, and have never yet succeeded in making a clear statement of what they want. Keeping Lyons quiet is therefore one of the most puzzling tasks of every French administration. A committee of the Assembly containing a majority of members of the Right has, therefore, reported strongly in favor of a Government scheme for electing the Municipal Council by districts instead of on a general ticket, so as to divide or weaken the socialistic element, and one of the representatives of the city stigmatized their report as "bagage," or bosh, which the Marquis de Gramont, on behalf of the Right, denounced as an "impertinence," for which he was called to order by M. Grévy, whereupon the Right, instead of submitting, rose at M. Grévy with shouts and gesticulation, and he left the chair in disgust, and refused to come back.

THE SUPREME COURT RIGHTING ITSELF.

THE Supreme Court has recently delivered two opinions, giving an able and clear construction to the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and, incidentally, to the Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States—opinions which are important as showing that the Court is recovering from the war fever, and is getting ready to abandon sentimental canons of construction. In the principal case there is, indeed, this drawback—that it was rendered by a divided bench; but no impartial lawyer, we fancy, will hesitate to say that the strength of the Court, as well as of the argument, was on the side of the majority.* In order to understand the scope of the decisions, it is necessary to trace the suits in which they have been rendered to their origin.

On the 8th of March, 1869, the Legislature of Louisiana, for the ostensible purpose of localizing a business which, as then carried on, was dangerous to the health of the inhabitants of New Orleans during part of the year, passed an act incorporating the Crescent City Live Stock Landing and Slaughter-House Company, and giving this company a monopoly of the business for twenty-five years within a certain district. The act of incorporation directed the discontinuance of all other yards, slaughter-houses, and stock-landings, and the new company were granted the right to levy a limited toll on all cattle slaughtered at their shambles. The grant of this monopoly naturally caused great dissatisfaction among the butchers of New Orleans, and they at once cried "Ring," and went into the courts for relief. Whether the cry of "Ring" was founded in fact we have no means of knowing, as the question of corrupt motives could not be examined by the courts. The Supreme Court of Louisiana sustained the monopoly, and the butchers took their case into the courts of the United States, and asked for relief, first, on the general ground that the company was an odious monopoly, an imposition on the great body of the community of New Orleans, and particularly on the butchers of that city; second, that whether it was odious and an imposition or not, it was certainly a monopoly, and that no State legislature could grant a monopoly; third, that the act of incorporation violated the Constitution of the United States by creating an "involuntary servitude" forbidden by the Thirteenth Amendment; fourth, that it "abridged the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States," "denied" to the plaintiffs "the equal protection of the laws," and "deprived them of their property without due process of law," contrary to the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment. The United States Circuit Court (Judges Bradley and Woods) decided the monopoly to be unconstitutional under the Fourteenth Amendment, on the ground that, although it might be difficult to define the "privileges" which a State is forbidden to abridge, "we may safely say that there is no more sacred right of citizenship than the right to pursue unmolested a lawful employment in a lawful manner. It is nothing more nor less than the 'SACRED RIGHT OF LABOR'." (The capitals are Judge Bradley's.) The act incorporating this company, interfering with the butchers' and live-stock men's sacred right of labor, was unconstitutional and void. We called attention to this decision at the time it was rendered (see *Nation*, No. 283, Dec. 1, 1870), for it seemed to us then, and we are gratified at being able to infer from the decision of the Supreme Court that we were right, that it was very broad, and that its effect would be to strike a blow, "not only at a New Orleans slaughter-house company, but at the existence of almost every franchise in the United States."

The Supreme Court has now decided, first, that it is not by any means obvious that the monopoly is "odious," or an "imposition," because it may very well be beneficial to the health of the city; second, that the mere fact that it is a monopoly is not against it, because both the Parliament of Great Britain and the legislatures of this country have "from time immemorial" exercised the power of creating monopolies and granting exclusive privileges. Then, approaching the subject of the Amendments, the Court gives what we may hope and believe to be a final and authoritative interpretation of the new articles adopted since the close of the war, saying, at the outset, that they must be construed together, and in the light of the historical facts which led to their adoption. Their interpretation and construction is this. The Thirteenth Amendment means, in the first place, that not only slavery as popularly understood, but all kinds of involuntary servitude, such as peonage, servile apprenticeship, or serfdom, are prohibited. Under these circumstances, the Court intimates pretty broadly that the article in question can have, in the mind of a sensible person, no sort of bearing on the case at bar.

In the second place, the process of reconstruction undertaken under Johnson developed the fact that in some of the States, notwithstanding the formal recognition of the new régime of freedom, the condition of the slave-race would, unless further protected by the Federal Government, "be almost as bad as it was before":

> "Among the first acts of legislation adopted by several of these States in the legislative bodies which claimed to be in their normal relations with the Federal Government, were laws which imposed upon the colored race onerous disabilities and burdens, and curtailed their rights in the pursuit of life, liberty, and property to such an extent that their freedom was of little value, while they had lost the protection which they had received from their former owners from motives both of interest and humanity. They were in some States forbidden to appear in the towns in any other character than menial servants. They were required to reside on and cultivate the soil without the right to purchase or own it. They were excluded from many occupations of gain, and were not permitted to give testimony in the courts in any case where a white man was a party. It was said that their lives were at the mercy of bad men, either because the laws for their protection were insufficient, or were not enforced."

These circumstances led Congress to pass the Fourteenth Amendment, and to require its adoption by the States lately in insurrection:

> "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States. Nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

Finally, to make the enfranchisement of the negroes perfectly secure, the Fifteenth Amendment was passed, giving them the right of suffrage. Taking all the amendments in connection, we see that they had but one purpose—the absolute abolition of slavery, and the elevation of the negro to an equality with the white citizen, and of course they must be construed in the light of this historical fact.

Coming now to the discussion in detail of the Fourteenth Amendment, the Court says that the first clause relating to citizenship has only this effect—to make the negroes citizens of the United States; that it does not destroy, but, on the contrary, continues and keeps alive the distinction between citizens of States and citizens of the United States. "Not only may a man be a citizen of the United States without being a citizen of a State, but an important element is necessary to convert the former into the latter. He must reside within the State to make him a citizen of it." We may suggest, as an example of such a citizenship, the case of a foreigner who becomes naturalized in the United States, and then acquires a residence or domicile, without denaturalizing himself, in Havana or Mexico. He would not be a resident of any State, but he would still be a citizen of the United States. It is only the "privileges and immunities" of citizens of *the United States*, then, which States are prohibited by the Fourteenth Amendment from "abridging," and "if there is a difference between the privi leges and immunities belonging to a citizen of the United States as such, and those belonging to the citizen of a State as such, the latter must rest for their security and protection where they have heretofore rested."

The Court then proceeds to enquire what the words "privilege and immunities" are which the butchers allege to have been "abridged," and decides that they are nothing more nor less than those mentioned in the original Articles of Confederation, and in the second section of the fourth article of the Constitution,

* The dissenting minority was composed of the Chief-Justice and Justices Swayne and Field, as well as Justice Bradley, who delivered the opinion in the Circuit Court.

"the citizens of each State shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several States." Precisely what these privileges and immunities are in detail the Supreme Court declines to explain, apparently not for the same reason which once led Mr. Cushing, when Attorney-General, to say that "it is difficult to explain what this section means, if indeed it means anything" (Ops. of Attorney-Generals, vol. viii. p. 302), but they decide that the phrase means in a general way "civil rights," and it was these "civil rights" on which the argument of the butchers was founded. Their argument, therefore, amounted to this, that the civil rights of the citizens of the various States which were formerly protected by the State governments are, since the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment, under the protection of the United States—a conclusion which would put an end to federal government, do away with State laws, courts, and constitutions, and throw pretty much the entire business of the country into the hands of Congress and the officials of the United States. Not only would these rights be "subject to the control of Congress," whenever in

"its discretion any of them are supposed to be abridged by State legislation, but that body may also pass laws in advance, limiting and restricting the exercise of legislative power by the States in their most ordinary and usual functions, as in its judgment or discretion it may think proper on all such subjects. And still further, such a construction, followed by the reversal of the judgments of the Supreme Court of Louisiana in these cases, would constitute this Court a perpetual censor upon all legislation of the States on the civil rights of its own citizens, with authority to nullify such as it did not approve as consistent with those rights as they existed at the time of the adoption of this Amendment."

This monstrous conclusion the Court refuses to adopt. It then goes on to give one or two instances of what are the "privileges and immunities" of citizens of the United States which are placed under the special care of the Federal Constitution by the Fourteenth Amendment, and mentions the right of citizens to demand the care and protection of the Federal Government when on the high seas or within foreign jurisdiction; the right to use the navigable waters of the United States; the right (conferred by this very Fourteenth Amendment) to acquire State citizenship by residence. But the Court thinks it useless to pursue this branch of the enquiry, since it is "of opinion that the rights claimed by these plaintiffs in error, even if they exist, are not privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States within the meaning of the clause of the Fourteenth Amendment under consideration." Of the other clauses of the Amendment, about "due process of law" and "the equal protection of the laws," the Court makes short work, saying, in conclusion, that there is no purpose apparent in the three amendments of changing the relations of the States and of the Federal Government:

"Under the pressure of all the excited feeling growing out of the war, our statesmen have still believed that the existence of the States, with their original powers for domestic and local government, including the regulation of civil rights—the rights of person and of property—was essential to the perfect working of our complex form of government."

The other case to which we have referred was that of Mrs. Myra Bradwell, a Chicago lawyer, wife of another Chicago lawyer, and editor of the Chicago *Legal News*; of course a firm believer in the cause of woman. This lady, in pondering the additions made to the Constitution of the United States by the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments, came to a conclusion somewhat different from that reached by the New Orleans butchers, but interesting as showing the effect produced by legal study on the female mind. Mrs. Bradwell having applied to the Supreme Court of Illinois for a license as a practising lawyer, was refused her petition, on the ground that under the State Constitution only men could be lawyers. She immediately appealed her case to the Supreme Court at Washington, arguing that the decision of the Illinois judges established "involuntary servitude," abridged her "privileges and immunities," etc., etc. It is a rather ludicrous illustration of the character of the woman movement, that a prominent female agitator should have seized the opportunity to prove the fitness of her sex for professional life by taking for her first important case one which she must have known the court would decide against her, unless she either supposed that they were likely to be influenced by personal solicitation and clamor, or else that they were all gone crazy. The head-notes of the decision of the Court in these two cases might read in this way:

Held, that the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States, abolishing negro slavery and the power of the States to make distinctions or discriminations between the civil rights of negroes and whites, do not restrict the right of States to regulate the slaughtering of cattle within their limits, nor abolish the jurisdiction of State governments over their citizens, and transfer it to the United States, nor entitle female citizens of the United States, as such, to practise law in State courts.

A PARTY WITHOUT NEWSPAPERS.

THE disaster which befell the Liberal movement last year, followed by the decisive defeat at the polls of the Liberal-Democratic combination, certainly does not betoken at this time a successful reorganization of parties. The naturally narrow and proscriptive nature of the Administration leaders in the Senate led them to improve the occasion by reading such men as Senators Trumbull and Schurz out of the party, in the manifest belief that no one would again dare to indulge in "desertion," and that party discipline could be enforced on all persons, whether leaders or rank and file. The outlook has not been a promising one for rational improvement in the affairs of government, and the Liberal disaster has seemed a pretty effectual dam in the current of reform. If a new move had to be made on the political chess-board immediately, it would undoubtedly be a failure; but in this country a great deal can happen politically in three years, and there are certain indications now that the current is again moving. Of this latter fact the Washington *Republican*, an organ of the Administration, has just narrated unconsciously some most conclusive evidence. It seems that Mr. Schofield, the member from Pennsylvania, has been "interviewed," and, among other things, has said that the daily press rules the country, and that no party can stand against it; that it cannot be resisted on a great issue except for a short time and at enormous expense; and that in the last campaign it was only "by prodigious efforts with speeches and public documents that we succeeded in carrying the election against a powerful press syndicate." "But," adds Mr. Schofield, "we can't afford to keep up the effort, and they can. The New York *Tribune*, Cincinnati *Commercial*, Louisville *Courier-Journal*, Chicago *Tribune*, and St. Louis *Republican*—only five papers—were able to put the whole Republican party to its trumps."

Commenting upon these utterances of Mr. Schofield, the Washington organ says:

"One of the greatest dangers, in our opinion, that threatens the Republican party at the present time is the loss of its newspapers. In whatever direction we turn, we find that the newspapers that formerly stood by and sustained the party have either assumed an attitude of hostility or are cold and indifferent toward it. The party could easily afford to lose some of the journals above-mentioned. The *Tribune* is, to be sure, a severe loss to the party, one which thus far has not been supplied, and is not likely to be. The *Times* had the chance to be all to the Republican party that the old *Tribune* was, but it missed the opportunity. The success that attended it in the late campaign was entirely fortuitous.

"The party can win against these journals in future campaigns as it won in the last one. But there is no use in denying that other journals of lesser influence and reputation are following their example and arraying themselves in hostility against the party. We are not advocates of strict party discipline, either so far as the public journals or party nominations are concerned. On the contrary, we believe in a very wide latitude of opinion and of action; but the newspaper symptoms at the present time indicate something more than the mere waywardness of individual caprice and captiousness. The fact is, the Republican party has not acted as it should have acted towards its newspapers during the last couple of years. Only last session of Congress, it passed a law abolishing the exchange system, for that will be the practical effect of it so far as the poorer papers are concerned. There never was a more fatal blunder committed by the Republican party. When the newspapers are compelled to pay postage upon their exchanges, they will naturally only take those of the widest circulation. The smaller papers will be entirely ignored, and the journals that are now in opposition to the Republican party will have a greater indirect influence than they have at present. It is plain to any one who even pays the slightest attention to the subject, that the Republican party is losing its newspapers day by day, and for the most obvious reasons in the world."

It is apparent that by the term "Republican party" the Administration editor means the party managers; and that his idea of

keeping newspapers is very much like other men's idea of keeping horses; viz., by buying them and then providing them with the necessary quantity of provender. It is well enough known, however, that the great papers of the country could not afford to sell themselves for all the pay and patronage that the party managers have at their disposal, and that when such papers change their course, and steadfastly and successfully pursue it, the new course indicates the changed convictions of their readers. Newspapers help people to form opinions, but they are also one of the surest indicators of what people think. Messrs. Morton and Conkling have declared that they can get on without "deserters"; can they also get on without newspapers? They have said pretty emphatically that they are opposed to reform. Where will they be politically when the readers of all these papers have determined that there shall be progress and improvement in the administration of our government?

The political view in America, in fact, discloses an extraordinary paradox, in this, that, with the most representative government in the world, no people in the world are at this time so grossly misrepresented by their rulers. We say the most representative government in the world, because the principle of representation permeates every part of the system. Constitutional conventions for founding the organic law; legislatures for enacting statutes; boards of supervisors for county affairs; common councils for city and village ordinances; the upper as well as the lower house of every legislative assembly, all are representative; so that there is nothing established in the way of an enactment in this country, from the framework of government to a police regulation against throwing dirty water in a gutter, which is not directly done by the representatives of the people. It is also the most representative government on earth in the quick facilities it gives for changes in representation. In only one legislative body do the members hold office so long as the members of the House of Commons, and in it there is a peculiar facility for change which the House of Commons does not possess. In the English body, the election being over, the House remains the same until another election comes to call together a new House; but in the Senate, one-third of the members go out of office every second year, and a fresh representation comes or is liable to come in. What with Congressional elections, State elections, town and city elections, the political society of this country seems to be in a constant state of fermentation, in which the representative particles are always coming to the surface. Nevertheless, with all these means at hand by which society, without fear or restraint, can make its wishes known in a single year, and change the character of its legislative assemblies in not more than two years, its honest wishes are most effectually thwarted by the persons theoretically chosen to give those wishes legal effect. And it is pretty much the same whether we look at the State or the Federal Government—at Albany, or Harrisburg, or Washington.

The members of the Republican party belong largely to the intelligent classes of society, are neither weak nor apathetic, constant readers of newspapers, and familiar with all the evils of the time. They have given stronger evidences of their independence of party leaders than any party that ever existed, cutting loose from Mr. Seward and Mr. Chase, from Mr. Sumner and Mr. Greeley, with a decided hand, at the moment when those gentlemen began to lead in a direction that was not approved. It would therefore seem to a stranger the easiest thing in the world for such men to go to the polls and vote against the managers of their party. But the question then arises, for whom shall they vote? and it is this which is the problem of the situation.

Hardly had the war ended when the Northern leaders of the Democratic party resorted to their old trick of getting the South into hot water. In this they succeeded so well that in a few months they destroyed all confidence at the North in the professed sincerity of the South, and ended in bringing down upon the unhappy Southerners fresh woes in the form of military and carpet-bag governments. During these years the loyal voters of the North felt that they could not assume the risk of confiding the grave issues of the war to Democratic management, and they have given a remarkable example to the world of a people who, knowing the value of money and the grievance of excessive taxation, and who are moreover too devoted to the pursuit of wealth, nevertheless resolutely consented to be cheated and robbed by their public servants rather than imperil the newly-acquired rights of the ignorant and poor and uninfluential freedmen. It was this settled conviction in the public mind which compelled the Democratic managers to forego last year even a platform of their own.

At present the conviction is rapidly gaining ground that the freedmen have learnt enough of the political ways of white men to be able to take care of themselves. But now a new cloud looms up in the Republican mind, in consequence of the peculiar materials and management and history of the opposite party. The Democratic party is made up largely of the two extremes of great cities—of a few gentlemen of fortune and of the ignorant and degraded populace—the "dangerous classes" of European society. These extremes coalesce; the rich set because of their instinctive love of things as they are, the ignorant because of their instinctive hatred for things as they should be. The Democratic party is also a party without a policy—a party of mere negation, which never has anything positive to offer, which was opposed to the war, opposed to the prosecution of the war, opposed to emancipation, opposed to the constitutional amendments, and which never rises higher than an obstinate opposition to everything that is done or attempted by its adversary. Its history is too intimately interwoven with secession and the rebellion, and its associations have been too close with the men who brought on the rebellion and are morally responsible for it. There is also an apparent timidity in the managers of the party, a want of principle or of moral courage, an instinctive fear, perhaps, that the ignorant ranks which they lead and seem thoroughly to control will really not be led too abruptly out of their old paths, nor constrained into supporting any new policy of affirmative usefulness. It is difficult to conceive of any other reason which can make them persistently adhere to a policy which has confessedly no end but that of inevitable defeat. They seem to know that their troops cannot be trifled with, and that if they would remain generals, they had better make no attempts to cross the prejudices of vice and ignorance. Hence it is that the Republican mind instinctively hesitates, and will long continue to hesitate, before it will consent to hand over the country to politicians as unscrupulous as its own, having behind them all the material in the land which is the least fitted for the responsibilities and sacrifices of self-government. Hence it is that the Republican politician instinctively feels that he can give his audacity pretty full swing without running any great risk of losing his place. Hence it is that Messrs. Morton, Logan, and Conkling dare to force the President into the abandonment of the one reform to which the party was pledged, while the entire respectable press of the party is slowly wheeling into the unfriendly ranks.

The question therefore is, how can the Republican citizens stop the maladministration of Republican leaders without throwing the government into more unscrupulous hands? Of course, no party can maintain itself with the whole intelligent press of the country for three years arrayed against it; and when once the press adopts a policy and meets with opposition, it is not apt to be overmoderate in its counsels. It is not easy to predict what shape the movement will assume, nor to foretell at what point it will be willing to halt; but if the editorial statement we have quoted from an Administration paper be true, then it is certain that a movement has begun, spontaneous, unforeseen, long before a Presidential election, and on the heels of a disastrous defeat, which is laying the broadest and strongest foundation for a future party, by drawing to itself the sympathy, if not the support, of the entire intelligence of the people.

BARON RICHTHOFEN'S TRAVELS IN CHINA.

I.

WITHIN the last fifteen years a good many Europeans have travelled in the remote parts of China, and among them there has been none better fitted by nature and education for the work of an explorer than Baron Fried-

rich von Richthofen, a Prussian geologist, half an American, however, by virtue of his long residence in the United States among the mountains of California, and his close friendship with our own eminent geologist and mining engineer, Professor Whitney of Harvard College. Baron Richthofen has a keenness of observation, a precision in generalizing from specialties, a soundness of judgment, which give for the general reader a value and interest to his accounts which a geological treatise would not alone possess. But the most useful basis for a traveller in countries where the character of the people as well as the chances for change and progress are mainly affected by the natural conditions of the land, is a thorough geological education, and in that department of science he is acknowledged to stand in the first rank.

Of the eighteen provinces of China, those that lie upon the seaboard have long been well known. In each there is a port open to foreign commerce, and the residents at those ports, commercial and missionary, traverse them through their length and breadth. Behind these is another tier of provinces less known, then still another, and finally a fourth tier, the most interesting of all, and forming the western side of China proper. These provinces border upon Mongolia, Thibet, and Burma, are very mountainous, abounding in picturesque scenery, and one of them, Szr-chwan (or Szechuen), is the largest in extent and one of the richest and most populous in the Empire. This western tier also, including those in the northwest, which lie rather nearer the seaboard, hold the greater part of the coal and minerals of China, adding greatly to their interest.

The members of the foreign mercantile communities in China have always taken an active part in collecting information and promoting researches in the country, and, in the summer of 1869, the Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai sent a delegation of its members on a journey into Szr-chwan to ascertain its capabilities and the possibility of reaching it with foreign steamers by the way of its great water-road, the Yangtze River. Foreign steamers at present run on that river to the great central mart of Hankow, 600 miles from its mouth. The delegation found that the navigation was easy for 400 miles further, but, to reach the heart of Szr-chwan, there were still 420 miles, and these lead through gorges and over rapids of the most dangerous character, and almost impassable except for short and shoal vessels, such as are used by the Chinese. The great difficulty of improving the communication, without which the extension of the residence privilege to Szr-chwan was of doubtful advantage, and the indisposition of the Chinese Government to increase the facilities for foreign intercourse, prevented any practical result from this effort, though the information obtained was of great value.

Soon after this enterprise, the Chamber, aided by subscriptions from individuals, raised the sum of about taels 6,000 sycee, the equivalent of about $10,000 in our money, for a general and superficial exploration of the coal-bearing and mining districts throughout the north and west of China, this time in the interests of general knowledge. The especial object in the subscription was to avail themselves of the services of Baron Richthofen, who had offered to give them without remuneration, if enough money was provided for travelling expenses. After some preliminary excursions, Baron Richthofen entered upon his principal journey, the report of which to the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce, made in May, 1872, we now propose to review.

He left Peking in October, 1871, intending to pass through the remote provinces of Shanse, Shense, Szr-chwan, and Yunnan, and perhaps finally descend to the sea through Cochin China or Burma, far to the south. This journey would run along a line from 1,200 to 2,000 miles from the coast line, through very interesting provinces, entirely free from the effects of contact with Europeans, and some of them the scene of the earliest incidents in Chinese history. Owing to the troubled state of the country, he did not get beyond Szr-chwan, returning to Shanghai down the Yangtze. The party consisted of the Baron, his foreign interpreter, and his Chinese servant. They travelled on Chinese horses, their baggage sometimes carried in carts and sometimes on pack mules.

Leaving Peking, he first examined the coal-beds near that city, passed into Mongolia, travelling northwest, spent two weeks there, and re-entered China proper in Shanse at a town called Ta-tung-fu. The table land (or steppes) of Mongolia is separated from China proper by a belt of rough mountain peaks, where the diversified country which drains to the sea suddenly ceases, the land rises between 5,000 and 6,000 feet, and the observer finds himself upon the boundless grassy plain of Central Asia, without rivers or outer drainage, without mountains for hundreds of miles, without cultivation, and inhabited by the same race that followed Genghis Khan and Attila. The Great Wall runs through the rugged border country, paying no regard to mountain peaks or valley depths. It is now in ruins, except at certain passes, and the Chinese settlers have penetrated far beyond it into Mongolia. The two races do not, however, intermarry, and the Chinese advance only by pushing the Mongols before them. As the latter are constantly outwitted and cheated by the cunning traders of the former, there is no love felt for the intruders, and the Baron justly says that "they may become terrible if their dormant force is wielded by some strong controlling power."

As contrasting the life of the two nations, the following extract is interesting:

"After having seen for days nothing but grass land, with here and there an isolated Mongol camp, and with numberless herds of cattle, sheep, camels, horses, and goats grazing around shallow basins, with an undrained pool in the centre, one arrives quite unexpectedly at the edge of the plateau, with an altitude of about 6,000 feet, and overlooks the large flat basin of Tung-nin-kwan. Although only 250 feet below the edge, it forms part of the other system, and is drained to the sea. The Chinese settlers have within a few years advanced to this valley from below, bringing with them their domestic habits, their industry, their implements of agriculture, and their commercial spirit. It teems with scattered villages, the houses of which, roughly built of loam, could, in November, scarcely be discerned between the high grain stacks which surround them. On the same extent of ground where a short time ago a few Mongols earned a scanty subsistence by feeding their herds on spontaneous vegetation, a Chinese population probably amounting to thousands not only finds the means of subsistence, but exports produce to the neighboring districts of China and to the Mongols themselves.

"The contrast between nomadic and agricultural life is seldom so strikingly exhibited, and however strongly a hasty visit to the 'Grass Land' may predispose the mind in favor of the frank and hospitable Mongol, that single sight is sufficient to illustrate the superiority of the hard-working Chinese, though the level be low at which the race has stopped on its former road to progress."

Entering the fertile and important province of Shanse, near the capital city of Ta-tung-fu, the Baron crossed it from north to south, leaving it at the fortress and town of Tung-kwan on the Yellow River. This province is noted for the production of iron and salt, and is also throughout a coal-bearing region. It is of great elevation, its general altitude being 5,000 to 6,000 feet above the sea. The great peculiarity, however, is its soil, which is the singular formation called *loess*. This is supposed to be a sub-aerial deposit, in contradistinction to alluvial bottom lands, which are the deposit of water. It is found where there is no outward drainage, and is, to quote the words of the Baron, "the collective residue of uncountable generations of herbaceous plants, assisted by the large amount of material which was spread over the plain by wind and water, and kept there by vegetation." It is defined as "a solid but friable earth of brownish-yellow color, and, when triturated with water, not unlike loam, but differing from it by its highly porous and tubular structure." "It is full of fossil *land* shells, and contains bones of quadrupeds, but no remains of either marine or fresh-water shells." The loess covers whole sections of country, high and low alike, sometimes much over a thousand feet in depth, smoothing down excrescences, and giving a soft and rolling character to the surfaces. It is the only cultivated ground in the north, after leaving the alluvial plains and valleys, and but for it great portions of those northern provinces would have been waste. It is of extraordinary fertility, needing only rain for continuous crops, so much so that, after cultivation for probably 5,000 years, it still yields full returns for the seed sown! The only manure is fresh loess, either by turning over or throwing on a few inches from ridges at the sides of the fields. Baron Richthofen thinks this property of regenerating itself is due to the great porosity of the loess, which enables it to absorb gases from the air in large proportion, and also to draw to the surface, in heavy rains, fresh supplies of the fertilizing constituents of the soil from great depths.

It is not stratified, except where it has been redeposited by water, and its tendency to vertical cleavage and its tenacity cause singular peculiarities in the countries where it exists. Wherever water runs, it cuts deep channels with steep sides, from forty to two hundred feet deep. Some of the river courses are sunk six hundred feet, with sides so steep that the river is inaccessible. These ravines traverse the whole land, ramifying into branches, and these into branchlets, until the country is fairly impassable, except on the worn paths. Up to its borders, merchandise and produce are carried in carts, but nearly throughout the formation the only methods of conveyance are men's shoulders or pack-animals, which, in North China, are generally mules or donkeys. Over one pass the Baron met, by computation, more than 2,000 pack-animals in one day, and over another fully 5,000 donkeys, all fully laden, conveying merchandise from the south to the north. The paths through the loess country, where not pursuing the course of a ravine, ascend by zigzags the intervening ground, and descend at the next ravine, and so on, constantly ascending and descending precipitous inclines. The inhabitants throughout the region live in caves cut in the walls of loess, the doorways perhaps edged with brick, and these walls are so lasting that the caves are often handed down to generation after generation. The walls of the caves are lined with cement made from a marly substance found in the loess

itself, and many of them are well lighted and comfortable, warm in winter and cool in summer. To quote again:

"High up on a rock of earth, steeper than any rock of stone, stands the temple of the village on a small fortress, which affords the villagers a safe retreat in times of danger. The only access to such a place is by a spiral staircase dug out within the mass of the bluff itself. In this yellow defile there are innumerable nooks and recesses, often enlivened by thousands of people, who dwell in caves dug out in the loess. Through every gully they climb up to their fields, each of which is a small terrace for itself, enclosed by vertical walls on two or three sides, and descending in another wall to the next field below. Looking down a slope of loess, nothing is visible but fine green fields, looking up, all is yellow and cliffy, because only the naked vertical walls of the terraces can be seen."

The loess extends to very high land (in some places, under the Baron's observation, reaching to 8,000 feet), but, wherever it is, it is cultivated. Owing to the ease with which it is ploughed, and the little need for manure, the country recovers its prosperity after desolation by war in a way unknown in alluvial countries. In Nganhwei, for instance, after the Taeping rebellion, the alluvial country for many hundred miles still lay in reeds and jungle ten years after the rebel hordes were swept away. But in Shense, in the loess country, where also there was a frightful slaughter, and only one-tenth of the people returned to their villages, two years sufficed to see the whole land again under cultivation. The description of loess is completed by the following extract from another portion of Baron Richthofen's account, where he is referring to the celebrated basin of the Wei:

"Everything is yellow. The hills, the roads, the fields, the water of rivers and brooks, are yellow; the houses (where there are any) are made of the yellow earth, the vegetation is covered with yellow dust, and whatever moves on the road shares the general yellow color. Even the atmosphere is seldom free from a yellow haze. It is here, if I am correctly informed, that the word 'hwang' (yellow) was first used as the symbol of the earth, and one of the most ancient of the Chinese emperors adopted the title 'Hwangti,' 'Lord of the Earth,' or, as we may more fitly translate it, 'Lord of the Loess.'"

The country covered by this valuable mantle is 250,000 square miles in extent, and is altogether in the north of China, as it is quite unknown elsewhere within its bounds. Shanse yields, for exportation, coal, iron, and salt, consuming its agricultural products within its own borders. It even imports wheat, together with cotton and opium. Its altitude prevents it from profiting to the full extent by the richness of its soil. It is, however, a wealthy province, owing to the enterprise and intelligence of its people, who spread all over China, as bankers and clerks, leaving their families at home, and ultimately bringing home the fruits of their industry and economy. The principal native banking-houses in Shanghai are Shanse. The people are pleasant in manners, and friendly to foreigners, and one travels through the province with safety and comfort.

Entering Shense, the next province towards the west and southwest, at Tung-kwan, where the Yellow River, after flowing south, takes a sharp turn to the east and runs in a parallel direction to the Yangtze, towards the sea-coast, the Baron travelled along the great high road to Si-ngan-fu, the capital of the province, and one of the largest cities of the north. Baron Richthofen says but little of the Yellow River, as, in the region where he crossed, it runs through such inaccessible ground that, in the Mohammedan rebellion, it proved an effectual barrier to its spread from Shense to Shanse. It is navigable for small boats, but has few landing-places, and is difficult to cross. Where he crossed, perhaps a thousand miles from the sea, "the current was swift, the water muddy, the river shallow, and the width estimated at 600 yards." As is well known, this river, when it reaches the alluvial country, has brought down such an immense deposit that it fills its bed, and so, when in flood, overtops its banks, and devastates the surrounding country. Moreover, in the endeavor to keep it in its channel, the Chinese go on heaping up the dikes until the bed of the river itself is above the surrounding country. At last comes the period when it forsakes this channel, no longer a channel, and chooses a new line across country, sometimes striking the sea far away from its original mouth. A few ages pass, and it is back again, causing infinite loss and misery in these movements. A traveller* through the alluvial region thus describes the scene when he struck the Yellow River at a parallel point, and where the dikes were yet doing good service. After speaking of subsidiary works some 10 or 12 miles from the north bank, showing the distance its ravages extended, he says:

"At last, in a village apparently bounded by an earthen wall as large as that of the Tartar city of Peking, was reached the first of the main outworks erected to resist the Whangho (Yellow River), and on reaching the top, the river and the gigantic earthworks rendered necessary by its outbreaks burst on the view. On a level with the spot on which I was standing stretched a series of embankments, each one about 70 feet high, and of breadth sufficient for four railway tracks to run abreast on them. One long bank, about two miles from the river-bank, ran parallel to the direction of the stream; half a mile distant ran a similar one. These two embankments were then connected by another series of same height and size, running at right angles and continuing down to the edge of the water. The country is thus divided into a series of squares offering, I should imagine, a very effectual resistance to any inundation."

The river here, probably 400 miles from its mouth, was half a mile broad, and so shallow that the ferry-boat was poled across, except over a small channel about 12 feet wide and 20 feet deep.

Shense had been completely devastated by the Mohammedan rebels some ten years before, but was now again in possession of the Imperialists, after being lost for eight years. The character of this rebellion was of the bloodiest description. To quote again from the Baron:

"Evidently the Mohammedans have had the firm purpose to exterminate the entire Pagan population and the destructible portion of their property. They made a wholesale slaughter of men, women, and children, and destroyed villages and cities. Where mountains were in the neighborhood, the inhabitants fled to them if they were able to do so. But the movements of the rebels, who were on horseback, were so rapid and unexpected, that the proportion of those who were able to take refuge was small. The destruction was greatest in the central portion of the Wei Basin, on account of the great distance of the hills. On the road from Tung-kwan to Si-ngan-fu, every city was destroyed. In the villages, not a house was left standing, those of the Christians excepted. The villages in the Wei Basin were large and numerous: not one of them has escaped destruction. The destruction of life counts by millions."

The cities with solid and high walls escaped, as the rebels had no artillery, and Si-ngan-fu was thus preserved. The Christians spoken of are Catholic Christians, of whom there are many in the western and northern provinces, from the times of the early Jesuit missionaries, and they were on good terms with the Mohammedans.

Baron Richthofen did not find the people in Shense so pleasant as they had been in Shanse, perhaps owing to the recent turbulent times, perhaps partly to the influence of the neighboring province of Honan, where the people have always been rude to strangers, and especially to foreigners. He, however, crossed without any noteworthy incident.

* Letter of E. C. Oxenham, of the British Legation at Peking.

ENGLAND.—MR. PLIMSOLL AND THE SHIPOWNERS.

London, April 4, 1873.

ALREADY, though we have not yet arrived at the Easter vacation, the overburdened mechanism of the House of Commons gives symptoms of the approach of the usual climax of a general dead-lock. In the best of times, it is apt to become clogged with the vast multiplicity of business which comes before it; it is well if a very small fragment of the raw material offered at the beginning of the session is turned out as a finished product at the end; and if the sensational measure of the year be passed, and a few more bits of legislation be turned out in a more or less mangled condition, we may consider that we have done very well. When the whole mechanism is thrown out of gear by such a catastrophe as that which has befallen the Government, the work done is of course diminished in proportion. Of the two principal undertakings promised for this session, the reconstruction of the Irish University and the reform of our judiciary, the first has, of course, gone to the limbo of legislative abortions: one little fragment indeed survives, and will, to all appearance, be carried through Parliament. Mr. Fawcett's proposal to meet the Catholic demands by throwing open Trinity College to members of all persuasions was, for the time, put aside by the attempt of Government to deal with the question, and has again come to life with the collapse of that attempt. Some sanguine people hoped that Government, without adopting Mr. Fawcett's plan, would give him sufficient facilities for getting it through Parliament. A private member has no chance of passing a bill of such magnitude unless he receives some assistance from ministers. They have only to be indifferent, without being openly hostile, in order that he may be swamped by the pressure of official business. It was hoped, however, that having failed themselves, they might allow a measure to be passed which would settle a very troublesome question sufficiently to get it out of the way for the next election. On the other hand, it was supposed that Mr. Gladstone was too much vexed at his own failure to allow one of his bitterest Radical opponents to get the credit of settling the difficulty. The result has been a kind of compromise. Mr. Fawcett's measure, reduced to the modest proportions of a simple abolition of tests, will be passed; and the provisions intended to provide a new governing body capable of representing all parties will be dropped. A grievance will be removed, inasmuch as Catholics and Dissenters will now be able to compete for a fair share of the endowments, and Trinity College will be in this respect in the same condition as the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge.

Of course, the wider question of a university capable of conferring degrees upon students in other colleges remains unsettled. There is, therefore, still an opportunity for any party which is not afraid of burning its fingers to rake up this agitation again and see what it can make of it. The precedent of this year's performance will not be very encouraging, and it seems highly probable that Ultramontane members will have a good text for their oratory for many years to come.

This question being for the present out of the way, and Mr. Gladstone having been forced by the incapacity of his opponents to resume his post, the other great measure of the session might have been expected to be pressed with the greater energy. If ministers could not win fame by remedying the last remaining Irish grievance, they had the stronger motives for distinguishing themselves in the paths of law reform. It seems, however, that Lord Selborne is rather wanting in the necessary vigor. After making an admirable speech in introducing his measure, he and the distinguished legal luminaries who enjoy the comparative repose of the House of Lords seem to be taking the matter rather too easily. The absence of one or other of those great pundits caused the second reading to be put off to a rather late period, and they have found so many difficulties of detail that they have decided to refer the subject to a select committee. Lord Selborne assented to this with rather more than the necessary courtesy, and the consequence is to render it doubtful whether anything can be done this session. The Easter recess is close at hand, during which no man can work. After that, a select committee continue the process of picking holes in a complicated measure as long as seems good to them; and when it at last emerges, and is sent down to the House of Commons, that period of the session will have been reached at which jaded and weary members are thinking rather of Scotch moors than of legislation, and a very little obstruction is sufficient to be fatal to an elaborate bill. There is not energy enough left in the general mass of the members to overpower the opposition of a few of those dogged persons who refuse to be silenced or pacified. If these prognostications be fulfilled, the session, it must be admitted, will come to a somewhat weak and impotent conclusion, and probably Mr. Disraeli will consider that he has acted wisely in refusing to take office. The growing unpopularity of his opponents is not likely to be counterbalanced by any brilliant success. There is indeed one awkward obstacle to a speedy success of the Conservative party, namely: the resolution of a considerable section of that party not to take office so long as Mr. Disraeli is the leader. A knowledge of that fact was dexterously ignored in the ingenious speech in which he gave reasons for not taking office on Mr. Gladstone's resignation; but the truth is sufficiently notorious, and is one more reason why we are not likely to have any strong government for some time to come.

Politics of the ordinary kind have ceased for the moment to be very interesting; the British public has worked itself into a great state of enthusiasm about another agitation. It is as difficult to explain these sudden gusts of popular emotion as to explain the variations of the weather. Just now, be the reason what it may be, the whole world is occupied in eagerly discussing Mr. Plimsoll. A year ago, few people knew his name, and nobody cared about the subject which has lifted him into temporary fame. In a general way, everybody was aware that a good many rotten old ships went down annually upon our eastern coasts; and perhaps we had a dim suspicion that the system of marine insurance prevented the owners from taking as much interest in the matter as they ought. It happened, however, that Mr. Plimsoll made a voyage from London to Hull during a great storm, and that Mrs. Plimsoll was very anxious for his safety. When he escaped, he resolved to show his gratitude by securing new regulations for the safety of people placed under similar conditions. He has gone into the subject with immense energy, and with a zeal which perhaps outruns discretion. He has published a book which is calculated to curdle the blood of persons who go down to the sea in ships. It is elaborately illustrated with photographic representations of the various dishonest tricks by which ships are roughly stitched together sufficiently to deceive the underwriters, and to go down at the first rough weather which they encounter. Moreover, he confirms his general statements by giving particular instances so fully delineated that he has already four actions for libel brought against him. Their personal nature may be easily imagined. There is a story, for example, of a certain shipowner, sufficiently well known, whose ill-luck in ships is so notorious that he can no longer insure them. The suggestion is, of course, that before he got his bad name he made money by sending ships to sea overinsured, with the calculation that it would pay him to lose them. Then there are stories of overladen ships going to sea so deep in the water that everybody on shore foretold their fate; of sailors, of course provided with wives and families, who begged to be discharged but were forced by the present law to abide by their contracts, and who are accordingly at this moment at the bottom of the German Ocean. The indignation excited by such incidents received an accidental impulse by the wreck of the *Northfleet*, and will doubtless be stimulated still further by the loss of the *Atlantic*; for the public mind is not superfluously endowed with logic; and although neither of those melancholy disasters is attributable to the causes indicated by Mr. Plimsoll, still their occurrence brings forcibly before the general imagination "what pain it is to drown." Mr. Plimsoll thus appears as the sailors' advocate against the selfishness and roguery of shipowners; and he has certainly made out a *prima-facie* case for some legislative interference. He has been addressing public meetings and creating extraordinary enthusiasm, which most likely will be increased by the result of the trials against him. If the actions for libel should fail, his case will be regarded as proved; and if they succeed, he will appear as a martyr in the cause of public reform.

Meanwhile, he demands immediate legislation, for the purpose of effectually remedying such evils in future. A commission is to examine the subject, but he maintains that the case is too urgent to wait for the result of its enquiries, and that something should be done to apply at least a provisional remedy. The proposal is in one sense characteristic of that change in public opinion which Mr. Mill and his school are always denouncing. It illustrates the common tendency to ask Government to put everything straight, instead of trusting our old friends the inexorable laws of supply and demand. An army of inspectors is to be appointed, so numerous as to prevent any ship from going to sea in a dangerous state. The definition of what constitutes a dangerous state is to be framed in a series of parliamentary regulations. It is to be rigidly declared what is the position of the load-line; what is the minimum of free-board; on what conditions cargo is to be allowed to be placed on deck, and so on. In short, a system of regulations is suggested calculated to make Mr. Herbert Spencer's hair stand on end. There is certainly not much chance that any such rules will be adopted; and it is not impossible that the demand may provoke a reaction. The most general grievance seems to be the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient security for sailors. It is certainly hard upon a man to be forced to go to sea in a sieve which he had taken for a trustworthy ship; and it would seem that sufficient facilities are not afforded by the present law for allowing him under such circumstances to call in the assistance of the authorities. However, Mr. Plimsoll's enthusiastic friends do not pay much attention to the doubts of our friends who believe in *laissez faire*, and, indeed, it is curious to remark how little weight doctrines of that school seem to carry with them at the present moment. We are beginning, for example, to discuss the propriety of a purchase of all railways by the state. Nothing could be more contrary to the good old Radical theory; and yet the proposal is being discussed very seriously by intelligent men, and there is certainly a very considerable weight of opinion in its favor. The operation would be so gigantic that of course there is no probability of such suggestions immediately leading to action. The purchase of the telegraphs has afforded a precedent which seems, though on a scale comparatively unimportant, to be in favor of the operation; and though it may be very doubtful whether it will ever be carried into effect, it seems to be highly probable that before long it will be one of the leading topics of the day.

Correspondence.

GREEK OR GERMAN.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent of this week is quite sarcastic about the proposed substitution of German for Greek as a requisite for admission to college. But one or two of his flings refute themselves.

No one pretends that the fabulous Principal of the University of Louvain was not an incompetent cheat; but there are many persons who seriously think it unnecessary to prepare every young man for positions such as that of the contented doctor.

There are many boys of this age who can never be brought to digest our knowledge of Phidias; but out of these many a certain proportion can be brought to find some use for sewing-machines.

No one knows better than Prof. Goodwin that the Greek learned by at least a fourth of the students in Harvard College is every way worthless. Why not, then, allow those who are not and cannot be of a literary turn to leave Greek and take in its stead something which looks toward bread-and-butter? There are many plain people to whom bread-and-butter must always appear the highest end in life, and who should not be weakened for their struggles by innutritious diet.

It is true enough that culture is worth more than rubber-boots, and that to the man of culture Greek is indispensable. But this is wholly away from

the point of the discussion. No one proposes to put it out of the power of a boy capable of high culture to learn Greek. No one proposes to lower the standard of Greek learning in our colleges for those for whom Greek is desirable.

The practical method of making the proposed change, and that which, I venture to predict, President Eliot will be found to favor, would be to make German *or* Greek the requisite, and perhaps a small knowledge of the rudiments of each.

Your correspondent is probably aware that Aristotle was wise enough to limit his class in esoteric philosophy, and that a part of the wisdom of antiquity has come down to us in the legend of Procrustes.—Yours, etc.,

W.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 18, 1873.

Notes.

T. H. MORRELL has in press "a volume commemorative of the American tribute to the genius of William Shakespeare," of which only fifty copies will be printed. It will give an account of the setting-up of Mr. J. Q. A. Ward's statue of Shakespeare in Central Park, and be illustrated with several pictures.——Judge Daly's Annual Address before the American Geographical Society, on February 17, has been printed in pamphlet form by the Society. It will be found an interesting and comprehensive survey of geographical progress during the year 1872. The daily press, in its report of it, made sad work of the proper names. A few errors of this sort have even here escaped the author's revision. Dr. Schweinfurth's name is not *Gustave* (p. 50), but Georg or George. He himself calls the African tribe the Monbuttu, not *Mombuttu*. *Annuaire Geographique* (p. 59), we presume, stands for M. Vivien de St.-Martin's *Année Géographique*.——Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for March 4 has for its usual two maps one of Southwestern Germany, with Alsace and Eastern Lorraine, before the outbreak of the French Revolution of 1789; and one of the eastern half of Australia, showing all the telegraphic network of the Continent, including, of course, the great overland line from Port Augusta to Port Darwin. The latter is in all save the coloring identical with Stieler's No. 73, as far as it goes.——The First Annual Report of the Committee on the Boston Museum of Fine Arts is before us. The Museum is still without a permanent home, as the Boston fire found it, to its detriment; but its collections are increasing, and are as far as practicable opened to the public. The Legislature is urged to grant a petition for the opening and maintenance of a State Normal Art Training-School.——We are informed by circular that an Oratorio Society has been founded in this city and placed under the direction of Dr. Leopold Damrosch. There will be an active and a passive membership, and preparatory classes for persons not experienced in choral singing. Dr. Damrosch may be consulted at his residence, No. 220 East Thirty-fifth Street.——We have received from Dodd & Mead Part II. of Maynard's 'Birds of Florida,' already noticed by us. The description of the habits of the birds catalogued continues to afford very agreeable reading. No plate accompanies the present part.——'The Last Poems of Alice and Phœbe Cary,' edited by Mary Clemmer Ames; 'Protection Against Fire,' by Joseph Bird; and 'Old New England Traits,' edited by George Lunt, are among the announcements of Hurd & Houghton.

—We have been asked whether there is any truth in a newspaper statement to the effect that the treaty now existing between this country and Germany as to the right of citizenship in either is to undergo modifications; and that, with the consent of the United States, a clause is to be inserted which would divest of his American citizenship any adopted citizen visiting his native country, and remaining there for a longer term than two years. We can only say that we have no information in the premises.

—Next after the Population volume of the Census, the volume of Vital Statistics which has lately appeared is likely to attract attention. It, too, is provided with colored charts, four of which serve to indicate to the eye the distribution of disease in the United States. Thus, the blue chart denotes the ratio of deaths by consumption, the darker tints assuming a wedge shape, roughly defined by lines drawn from Chattanooga on the one hand through Richmond, and on the other through St. Louis. Most in the shadow of this dreadful disease are the New England coast, all of New Hampshire, and Northern Vermont. Malarial diseases (yellow chart) haunt the Atlantic and Gulf coast from Delaware Bay to Texas, while New England and the larger Middle States, with the two Virginias, are comparatively free from them. California, which, in the central portion, is tolerably consumptive, is universally malarial, but in a light degree. Enteric, cerebro-spinal, and typhus fevers (colored pink) are pretty generally distributed, but find a stronghold in Southeastern Georgia particularly. No large region, again, wholly escapes intestinal diseases (colored green); but Western Iowa and the district in Mississippi east of the Pascagoula River are noticeably afflicted. Besides these maps, constructed in the office, we have a hypsometric sketch of the United States (map of comparative heights); a chart showing the mean temperature by isothermal lines; and one showing the mean precipitation of rain in like manner. This last is very striking, the prevailing tint, which is blue, being wholly absent from the vast region west of the one hundredth meridian. To the fever chart might properly be annexed Dr. Morrill Wyman's map of the districts exempt from the hay-fever.

—The volume consists of special and general tables of mortality in the United States; of statistics concerning the blind, deaf and dumb, insane, and idiotic; of tables of births; and, finally, of ages. The text which accompanies here and there this laborious array of figures is not exactly popular reading; but Gen. Walker's remarks are always clear and terse, and they make the defects of the census law manifest to the commonest understanding. A cursory examination of the statistics of ages has led us to the following results, it being premised that the males of the foreign-born population are largely in excess of the females; the males of the native white population much less so; while the male colored population is in a decided minority. Contrary to the theory, and we should suppose somewhat to the despair, of Mr. John Timbs, lately editor of *Notes and Queries*, whose forthcoming work, it is said, will maintain that there is no properly attested instance of a centenarian, we are assured that in this country 58 persons in 10,000 reach their hundredth year. How many of our total population could make this boast in 1870, we shall proceed to show. Among the native whites, 642 lived to be one hundred or more years old, viz., males 259, females 383. Foreign-born: total 322, males 135, females 187. Colored: total 2,537, males 885, females 1,652. In every case, the female centenarians outnumbered the male. Tennessee showed 66 (native white) of both sexes, and North Carolina 59; the latter State bearing the palm, however, with one centenarian to every 11,400 (native white) inhabitants. New York naturally leads off in foreign-born centenarians, showing 83 against Pennsylvania's 40, though their ratios are nearly the same (1:13,500, 1:13,600). Louisiana shows 263 colored centenarians; Alabama, 256; Mississippi and Georgia, 254 each; South Carolina, 210; Virginia, 202. Louisiana's ratio is also highest (1:1,400), against Mississippi's (1:1,750). That the former State should prove to be the negro's paradise of longevity appears to be due to accidental causes, if on this point the censuses of 1850 and 1860 are trustworthy. In both these years Virginia took the lead (326, 243 respectively), and Louisiana stood fourth on the list (155, 168 respectively), with Alabama fifth (134, 164 respectively). Perhaps the explanation is that the war and the migration since the war have depleted Virginia in favor of other Southern States, and notoriously the Southwestern—the migration to Louisiana and Texas having been enormous. The age of a slave being extremely difficult to fix, a negro centenarian is perhaps to be looked upon with suspicion. It is certainly singular that in spite of the pains taken to make the census of 1870 more accurate in all respects than its predecessors, and in spite of the war's fatality to the colored population, there should be reported 2,537 colored centenarians in 1870, against 1,940 in 1860, and 1,768 in 1850. This appears to throw some light on the question whether freedom or slavery is the better state for the negro, and whether his race is dying out in the United States.

—The following extract from the 'Truths and Fictions of the Middle Ages, by the late Sir Francis Palgrave,' has been furnished us by a correspondent, apropos of our recent notice of Dr. Heinrich Brunner's researches:

"Until the reign of the Tudors, the *jury*, instead of being the peers of the accused, by whom his guilt was to be tried, a court before whom the validity of the evidence given by the witnesses was to be investigated, were the *sworn* witnesses themselves, and their *true saying*, the *veredictum*, or verdict, was the summing-up of their own testimony. Hence it was the duty of the sheriff to learn their previous knowledge of the facts, and to summon those by whom, in the words of the process yet in use, 'the truth could be better known.' Thus, for example, if the authenticity of a deed was contested, the parties named as witnesses in the charge of attestation were not subpœnaed to give evidence that they had seen it duly sealed, but were themselves associated to the jury.

"So consistent was the ancient law that, if the crime was of such a secret nature that *the neighborhood*, the *visne*, or *vicinetum*, the name technically given to the jury, could not reasonably be supposed to have a knowledge of it—murder by the administration of poison may be instanced—then the accused party could not be tried by a jury at all. The jurors were brought before the judge by the sheriff, upon the same principle that the attorney now collects his witnesses in order to obtain a conviction. He got together those who, in his opinion, could best make *out* the case. It is to be feared that the sheriff—of the modern limb of the law we will say nothing—was not always overscrupulous as to the means by which that end was to be attained."

—If any American intending to visit the Vienna Exposition has friends at Ulm on the "blue Danube," we think we can counsel him to procure through them such accommodation as he will need at the Austrian capital. Considering the two to three hundred miles intervening between the two places, this may seem like very singular advice. There is, however, at Ulm a company which has undertaken the construction of a number of hotel-barges which will be floated down to Vienna and moored together near the Exposition building, with postal, telegraphic, and transportation facilities, and with good restaurants close at hand. On board one of these our American friend can instal himself—not on the *Rhine* or the *Helvetia*, for the Swiss have already bespoken these; nor on the *Union*, also engaged; nor now, perhaps, on the *Würtemberg*, *Ulmia*, *Borussia*, *Austria*, or any other of the first flotilla of ten; but on some one of those to be built subsequently, as the application for rooms seems to warrant they will be at once. He will find all the German modern conveniences in his state-room, including a mosquito-net, and he will be charged the moderate price of one dollar (two gulden) per diem. It will be strange if he does not profit by the novel idea, and, on his return to this country, set to work building floating palaces for the centennial celebration at Philadelphia, or for anchorage in the Lower Bay of New York as a convenient summer resort, with bathing and fishing thrown in.

—Since our last summary of important French publications, the following have been noted as deserving the same commendation, to judge by the reviews in which we have met with them at second-hand: Albert Sorel's 'Treaty of Paris, of Nov. 20, 1815,' has a squint towards the later treaty of 1871; and another bit of war literature, 'France in Prussia in 1807-8,' by Baron Ernouf, is also designed to suggest odious comparisons. This latter work is made up of contemporaneous documents—pamphlets, reports, newspapers, etc.—published in Prussia during the French occupation, for the most part clandestinely, so that they are now rare. The author hopes that it will appear from this disinterested evidence how generous the French were, and what respecters of persons and property, when they had a chance to play the "barbarian" invader. M. F. Jacqmin, superintendent of the Eastern Railway, publishes his lectures on 'The French Railroads in the War of 1870-71,' delivered last year at the Ecole des Ponts et Chaussées. They include a survey of military transportation by rail in Germany and Austro-Hungary, and in France and Germany during hostilities; a discussion of the defence of lines of railroads; and rather unfavorable criticism of the extemporized German railway construction. An unpartisan history of the Revolution of 1848, by Henri Gradis, in two volumes 8vo, is praised also for its exactness. Two fragments relating to the elder Revolution have been published together—the inedited correspondence of Mlle. Théophile de Fernig, one of Dumouriez's aides-de-camp, and younger of the two sisters referred to by Lamartine in book xxxvii. of the 'Girondins'; and the inedited journal of La Villeurnoy, on the 'Coup d'Etat du 15 fructidor an V.' This writer was secret agent of Louis XVIII., and among those deported to French Guiana. Here follows properly the 'Introduction to the History of Cayenne,' by the Messrs. de Saint-Quentin—Alfred furnishing a collection of tales and fables in the Creole dialect, with accompanying translation, notes, and commentaries; Edward, some Creole songs; and Augustus, a study of the Creole grammar.

—M. Alphonse Feillet's new edition of the works of Cardinal de Retz has, in two volumes, got as far as the year 1649 of the Memoirs. This elaborate and conscientious work exhibits the various readings of the original text, adds a commentary, and will end with a valuable lexicon of the Cardinal's French. A 'History of Dramatic Music in France,' from its origin to the present day, is by M. Gustave Chouquet, and should have something of interest for the admirers of Rousseau. The complete works of the troubadour Adam de la Halle, "poésies et musique," contains specimens of thirteenth-century French music in the old notation and also modernized. E. de Coussemaker is the editor. Besides the foregoing, we find announced an intended 'Collection des Chefs-d'œuvre historiques et littéraires du Moyen Age,' edited by Prof. Léon Gautier (Ecole de Chartres), and published by Didot; embracing 1. Latin historians (Gregory of Tours, Eginhard); 2. French chroniclers (Froissart, "morceaux choisis"); 3. Latin poesy; 4. Provençal poetry (Chanson de geste de Roland, Roman de Perceval; French Theatre of the Middle Ages; Imitation of Jesus Christ of St. Francis de Sales, etc., etc.) There will be translations and glossaries. In art we have Jacquemart's 'History of Pottery,' in all ages, with exquisite wood engravings and etchings by Jules Jacquemart, fils; and 'Bracasset, sa vie et son œuvre,' by Charles Marionneau, who has for a subject of admiration and eulogy an animal painter of the first class, but comparatively little known for the master that he was while he yet lived. Barbier's 'Dictionnaire des Ouvrages anonymes,' begun in 1806-1808, has reached a third edition, and is appearing in parts. Antonin Rousset's 'Dictionnaire général des forêts,' of which the first part treats of legislation and administration relating to the conservancy of forests, from 1672 to Jan. 1, 1872, may yet serve as a guide to our legislators when dealing with the same subject. Prof. Michel Bréal's 'Remarks on Public Instruction in France,' and Prof. Gustave Boissonade's 'Histoire de la Réserve héréditaire et de son influence morale et économique,' discuss questions of prime importance to their countrymen. M. Boissonade is a warm defender of the *partage égal* against critics like M. Jannet and M. Le Play, but he advocates an increase of the *portion (quotité) disponible* (that is, the amount of his estate which a testator may dispose of at his pleasure) to one half of the patrimony, whatever be the number of his children.

THE HARE FAMILY.*

THE fact that this book, comprising two thick volumes in one binding, has run through five editions within a single year, is proof enough that it has been interesting in no ordinary degree to the English public. Why it should be so is not apparent at a first glance. It is in form the memoir of Maria Leycester, the widow of Augustus Hare, who is best known in America as one of the two brothers who wrote the 'Guesses at Truth.' She was not in any way what might be called a remarkable woman, nor is her story, as told in her own letters and journals, by any means an extraordinary one, or one marked by any very striking incidents. Indeed, she seems to have walked from the cradle to the grave, through a long life, in "the green and quiet ways of unobtrusive goodness." She was born, and "well born," her biographer is evidently anxious to have us remember, in an old Cheshire manor-house, in which her family had found a happy home for centuries, and near to which her father was a parish vicar—one, as well as we can judge from scanty references to him in the book, of the quiet, conservative, God-fearing, but, above all things, gentlemanly parsons somewhat of the type of the elder Keble, who, in the days before railroads, passed their lives peacefully in remote parishes, struggling with the ordinary local problems of peasant poverty and vice, taking their pleasure in the society of the "county families," and wholly unvexed by theological strife. Her youthful life in the paternal rectory was, on the whole, happy, in spite of her mother's death; and her education, as might be expected, imbued her mind from her earliest years with the deep, but healthy, well-bred, and not over-fervid piety of the Anglican Church—the piety which raises decency and order to so high a place among the virtues, and twines itself so tenderly around the old pillars whether of the state or the household. Among her father's near neighbors was Sir John afterwards Lord Stanley of Alderley, with whose children she grew up in terms of intimacy, afterwards deepened by intermarriage. But the friends who exerted most influence on her in these early years were the Hebers. Reginald Heber, afterwards Bishop of Calcutta, and known in all American Sunday-schools, if in no other way, as the author of "From Greenland's Icy Mountains," was rector of Hodnet, a parish two miles away, and for three or four years Miss Leycester passed part of nearly every day—mostly the evening—at his house, Heber reading aloud to the ladies, sometimes poetry, but principally Scott's novels, which were then appearing, and which, while the authorship was unknown, were attributed by the provincial mind of Cheshire to Richard Heber, Reginald's elder brother, who was the only person on that horizon supposed to be capable of such a feat. Reginald also gave her German lessons, and wrote songs for her to sing—among others, the familiar "I see them on their winding way." This happy and peaceful life of hers—dinners, rides, walks—only broken by a trip to Scotland or the Continent, and occasionally a few weeks' visit to London, lasted until 1822, when the bishopric of Calcutta was offered to Heber, and he accepted—news which came as a thunderbolt to the quiet rectory at Stoke. The blow was made all the heavier by the fact that Miss Leycester had in the meantime become attached to Martin Stow, whom she met at the Hebers', and who was a college friend of her brother's, and who vainly sought her father's consent to their marriage, he being a "mere country curate." Poor Stow in his desperation accepted Bishop Heber's offer of his chaplaincy in India, hoping that the prospect that their daughter, if she married him, would still have the society of the Hebers, might soften the hearts of the obdurate parents, but it was in vain, and he bade her a last farewell, went to his post, and died there in two years, leaving a memory which has been enshrined beside Heber's in the affections of English Churchmen.

After this, Miss Leycester was wooed successfully by Augustus W. Hare, and with him, as rector of the small parish of Alton-Barnes, in Wiltshire, spent five years of delightful married life, during

* 'Memoirs of a Quiet Life. By Augustus J. C. Hare.' Two vols. Fifth edition. New York: George Routledge & Sons. 1873.

which she adored her husband, and listened to his sermons with rapture. He died of consumption in Italy in 1833, and she passed thirty-three years in mourning widowhood, partly at Hurstmonceaux Rectory with her brother-in-law Julius Hare, and partly in a quiet home of her own and in journeys on the Continent, seeing little society, and her whole mind absorbed in preparation for the reunion with her husband, for which she looked with a vividness of anticipation which the lapse of time apparently only deepened. There is plainly not enough in such a life to justify a big book. Her letters and journals reveal no remarkable powers either of thought, or observation, or expression. A very large proportion of the published extracts from them owe all their interest to the simple but feebly-drawn pictures they present of quiet English clerical life, and to the struggles of passionate affection to draw consolation under a terrible bereavement from an inexhaustible but apparently not very deep fountain of religious sentiment. These struggles are portrayed at such length, and with so little variety in circumstance, that one finds one's self constantly doubting the taste and expediency of their reproduction.

For the secret of the success of the book we must, therefore, look elsewhere than to the story of Mrs. Hare's own life, and it is to be found, we think, in the glimpses it gives us of the antecedents and surroundings of Julius and Augustus Hare, who again owe their celebrity much less to anything they themselves accomplished in the work of the world than to the fact that they belonged, both at college and in their after-life, to a circle of men who have made a considerable figure in the English literary and religious world during the last fifty years. They were both Anglican ministers, and were men of considerable scholarship of the English type. Julius in particular had dipped deeply into German literature, but the 'Guesses at Truth' display rather acuteness, and suggestiveness, and strength of conviction, than either learning or reflective power. Beyond this, and a volume or two of sermons, only remarkable in the case of Augustus for their sweetness, persuasiveness, and directness, and in that of Julius for a certain brilliant discursiveness, they contributed nothing, or almost nothing, to literature. Augustus died at forty-one, a laborious and devoted parish minister of only five years' standing; Julius, in maturer age and after much longer service, too, as a parish minister, but one who never found his place either in the pulpit or beside the sick-bed.

But they made their entrance into clerical life with a background more picturesque and aristocratic than most country parsons can boast. They were the descendants of Francis Hare, one of George the Second's bishops, a man of good old Essex family, who, though of somewhat sour and penurious temper, managed to climb up the ladder of preferment, and secure a greater number of fat offices, including sinecures, than any churchman of a period in which churchmen were shameless and greedy. He married twice, and both times obtained a large fortune, and through his marriage his son by his last wife inherited the famous old castle and estates of Hurstmonceaux on the Sussex coast, long the seat of the Dacres, then sold in 1708 to George Naylor, a successful lawyer. It was the noblest baronial hall—indeed, the largest inhabited house—in England in its day, and that in which the most lavish hospitality prevailed, and it is only a century since its fires went out, and it was abandoned to the bats and owls, and fell into the picturesque ruin over which tourists now fondly linger. The author of the volume before us, the son of Francis Hare, the last owner, tells with pardonable pride of the days when the vast suite of guest-chambers in the castle was constantly filled with visitors; of the great oven, in which the guide-books say a "coach and six could turn round"; of the two butts of ale, which stood constantly "on tap" at the outer gate, so that every thirsty wayfarer might draw and drink; of the twenty old crones who picked the grass out of the pavement of the great court-yard; and of the four lusty servitors whose sole duty was to mind the castle clocks. In 1806, however, the father of Julius and Augustus Hare, being much burdened with debt, and by no means of an accumulative turn, sold the estate and castle, but the church living of Hurstmonceaux remained in the family. Even this his heir, Francis, the brother of Julius and Augustus, sold also, so that the death of Julius, who held it, closed the connection of the Hares with Hurstmonceaux altogether. It thus only lasted about eighty years altogether, but this was long enough apparently to give the Hares a deep ancestral feeling for the place, and furnish the generation to which Julius and Augustus belonged with a splendid background at their entrance on life. They were two of four sons of Francis Hare-Naylor (the name Naylor was taken when the estate was inherited from Grace Naylor), who married a daughter of Bishop Shipley of St. Asaph's. The lady was the grand-niece of the famous Earl of Peterborough. Georgiana, famed in London society at the close of the last century as "the beautiful Duchess of Devonshire," was her cousin; her sister married Sir William Jones, the celebrated Oriental scholar. She herself was a woman of remarkable powers of mind and great sweetness of character, but whose life was clouded by being married to a shiftless husband. The children were partly educated, and some of them born, in Italy—the well-known Clotilda Tambroni—who has rejoiced the hearts of so many Woman's Rights champions as having been at one time Professor of Greek at Bologna—having, as well as Mezzofanti, afterwards the famous Cardinal, given them some of their instruction while living on terms of warm and intimate affection with the mother. But Mrs. Hare died early and very sadly, worn out in life's struggle, and the boys were tenderly cared for and their education provided by Lady Jones, their aunt. At school and college they were surrounded by friends and companions whose names are now household words in the English-speaking world. At the Charterhouse School, Julius had among his companions Thirlwall and Grote, the future historians of Greece, Sir William Jones, and Sir Henry Havelock, afterwards of Indian fame. At Cambridge, he met Sedgwick, who was his tutor, and Thirlwall, and Whewell, and among his pupils he had John Sterling, Frederick Maurice, and Richard Cavendish. He and Augustus took orders in due course, published the 'Guesses at Truth,' and in due course Augustus took one of the college livings at Alton-Barnes, while Julius settled at Hurstmonceaux. While here, he had John Sterling for eight months as his curate, and married Esther, a sister of Frederick Maurice. The brothers, too, were intimate with Walter Savage Landor, and Arnold, and Niebuhr, and Bunsen; and Augustus, during a portion of one of his visits to Italy, stayed for some time in the house of Lady Blessington, and sent her a cordial message from his death-bed. His days of happiness and usefulness were few. His active service in the church only lasted five years, the whole of which were passed in one little parish, in which he gave himself, with extraordinary and long-remembered fervor, up to the instruction and consolation of the poor laborers who composed the bulk of his flock. Julius, who settled down in the stately family living of Hurstmonceaux, had not the material of a pastor in him, and preached over the heads of his congregation. He was passionate and combative, as Augustus was patient and gentle, and passed the flower of his years in controversy. He had a fine library and fine pictures. The charms of his conversation made his rectory for many years a favorite resort of some of the choicest spirits of the intellectual society of the capital. With characteristic impetuosity, he was twice engaged, and both times to widows, for long periods, before he married Esther Maurice. His death in 1854 broke up the circle of which Hurstmonceaux was for so many years the centre. His library was presented by his widow to Trinity College, Cambridge, and his pictures to the Fitzwilliam Museum. Mrs. Augustus Hare lingered until 1870, but the portion of the book which relates to this period might well have been omitted. As a record of the family life of a cultivated clerical circle, containing some of the best elements of English life, and exhibiting many of its most striking peculiarities, it will well repay reading.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR APRIL.

THE *North American Review* for April is probably as able and authoritative a number as ever issued from the press. Mr. John K. Paine, of Harvard College, the well-known composer and organist, discusses the music of Liszt, Berlioz, and Wagner, giving most of his attention to the last-named master; Mr. Chauncey Wright treats learnedly and at length of "The Evolution of Self-Consciousness"; Mr. Henry James, jr., eulogizes, with an appropriate array of adjectives, the late Théophile Gautier; General and Professor Walker, sometime Commissioner of Indian Affairs, contributes a very interesting paper entitled "The Indian Question," which ought to be on file in every newspaper office in the country; Mr. Karl Hillebrand closes his review of the life, character, and influence of Herder; and the sixth and last article is composed of five book-notices, the longest being a review of 'Middlemarch'—a book which, as we suppose, has called out more of careful critical writing than any modern work of fiction, and is destined to call out still greater quantity. It is wonderful to think of the world of oral and written discussion that has been directed to this story and its personages. The reason, perhaps, is the one hinted at by the *North American* critic, namely, that it satisfies no one, and, we would add, dissatisfies people as reflecting the stern discontent of a dissatisfied and dreary moralist—perhaps we should further add, of a female moralist. We speak with a full sense of the astonishing power of this great writer, whom, however, it is too early yet for her readers to see with clearness and precision.

That the *Review* is not declining in vivacity with lapse of decades, but rather may be said to be renewing its youth, the following reference to some well-known citizens is evidence: "From the Secretary of the Treasury down to James Fisk, jr. and David Dudley Field, there seems a growing tendency to disregard the law in the pursuit of ends which seem desirable, whether those ends be the moving of the crops or the plunder of a rich corporation." The book under review is Mr. Richard Frothingham's 'Rise of

the Republic of the United States,' and the reviewer makes some other just remarks as well as this one. For example, those really most un-American of Americans—the men who are for ever parading themselves before their uninstructed fellow-countrymen as patriots peculiarly American—may profitably read sentences like these which follow, and the books, also, to which they refer. We should then hear less oratory from the breed of politicians who are ready to go, as a Connecticut politician the other day said he was, "with the New Testament in one hand and the Stars and Stripes in the other, and welcome to our shores all of every race and every color and every continent," etc. etc. It ought not to be necessary to say, but it is necessary, and daily more so, that not by such labors as these was this Republic founded. The reviewer says: "If the people of the United States were more familiar with the history of their own country, and understood better the conditions under which republican government has succeeded with them so remarkably, we should hear less of that political school which sees in Napoleonism the only cure for the vices of our system; and, on the other hand, should be less eager to extend our national congratulations whenever among the various phases of anarchy in any quarter of the globe the republican is for a moment uppermost." Flag-waving is an inexpensive process of fitting him for self-government and the government of others, but good readers of Mr. Frothingham will think it a doubtful substitute for the century and a half of town-meetings and vestry-meetings which preceded the Revolution, and the thousand or two years of Anglo-Saxon and English liberties which preceded the Massachusetts and Connecticut town-meetings. The fact is, if we are proud enough we are not rightly proud of the state here founded, and our flag-wavers and sympathizers do really insult us and those who went before us when they pass Congressional resolutions sympathizing with republics which have no republicans, and peopled with races of men our inferiors in many important respects.

Mr. Paine is not an admirer of the music of the future. The texts of Wagner's operas, he observes, are open to grave criticism as dramatic subjects; his most determined admirers cannot maintain that he has a good literary style; and indeed, the rhetoric and versification of his texts deserve severe censure; in the portrayal of character he fails to display any great originality or power, and as a dramatic poet he cannot be classed as a master, "nor as a musician will he ever occupy an equal rank with Bach, Handel, or Beethoven." What, then, is the secret of his present popularity? Mr. Paine's answer to this question is that "Wagner is a consummate master of all the externals of the stage." The theatrical spectacle with its brilliant pomp is an invariable and indispensable adjunct to his operas; "one grand effect succeeds another in logical and natural sequence; yet nothing, apparently, is introduced for the sake of effect," and the rich variety of the scenes without superfluity powerfully affects the spectator; the composer even turns decorative artist and invents scene-pictures for his operas. Then, too, he has diplayed equal skill and originality in his treatment of the action of the play, and is true to the dramatic object in all points of display: "Although his later music is not framed on an ideal style and is difficult to sing and lacks real beauty in the absence of melody, yet it is declamatory in a powerful degree; it is true to the metrical accents of the verse, and expresses vividly the meaning of the words, and in this respect he stands out prominently as a progressive master, and will exercise decided influence on the dramatic music of the future." Furthermore, Wagner "has exhibited a wonderful technical command of the orchestra," and "many of the themes and melodies of his earlier operas are noble, characteristic, and pleasing, though, with some notable exceptions, compared with similar compositions of the greatest masters, they appear to disadvantage and seem somewhat coarse and formal"; his music, "composed in the free thematic form," when compared with similar works by Schumann, for example, or Mendelssohn, appears to lack refined beauty, and this lack is not compensated by any real grandeur of style.

Of the essay by Mr. Wright we are incompetent to speak, though in the several capacities of metaphysician, mystic, poet, and theologian, we darkly see, or suspect we do, that for such this innocent-looking philosophic treatise contains certain love-pats. Mr James's criticism of Gautier is very kind. "If there are sermons in stones," he remarks, "there are profitable reflections to be made even on Théophile Gautier; notably this one—that a man's supreme use in this world is to master his intellectual instrument and play it in perfection." Persons in imperfect sympathy with the general view here implied will feel like suggesting that the supreme use of some men in this world, considering what a world it is, is to throw away their intellectual instrument and never play anything on it. But Mr. James's essay makes it plainer than would be supposed by most who have listened to British-American sermons over Gautier's remains, that Gautier was hardly one of these players after all, though certainly no fit company for St. Cecilia. A wonderful world we shall have, though, when "art for art's sake" is the rule that guides our pickers and stealers and our young addlepates.

The 'Herder' essay will be found full of instruction, for its object is to rehabilitate the reputation of that once very famous and influential man. "Herder, the real originator," says Mr. Hillebrand, "of the German civilization of the nineteenth century . . . He it was who first gave utterance to the German idea." Mr. Hillebrand proceeds to make good this assertion by specific proofs, and begins by laying down as the new principle which Herder with revolutionizing effect applied to theology, history, and poetry this: "the superiority of nature over civilization and of intuition over reason"—organism above mechanism; the individual above the rule; synthesis rather than analysis; development rather than legislation; "in a word, the *fieri* above the *facere*." After this beginning, which is not without its vagueness, though intelligible enough, the essay follows Herder through the various fields of his immense activity, and concludes by enumerating the monuments of his influence. What but applying Herder's ideas of organic evolution was Niebuhr doing when he was revealing the growth of Rome, the birth of her legends, religious and national, the gradual formation of her constitution, the struggle between her patricians and plebeians, so like that which Niebuhr saw going on in "his own dear Ditmarsians." This is writing about Romans, not as if they always walked about in horse-hair helmets, but as Herder would have the historian write—"able to feel the beat of the nation's pulse whose vicissitudes he undertook to rehearse." And what but applying Herder's ideas was F. A. Wolff doing when he was pointing out the process of epic poetry; or Savigny when proving that the Roman civil law was not the work of one wise legislator but the wisdom of centuries; or Ottfried Müller, when, instead of the school-history Lycurgus evolving a constitution like the Abbé Sieyès, he shows us several legislators satisfied to compile and codify the laws and customs of their country; or the same Müller making it clear that the Greek mythology is not a collection of moral sentences and historic facts, but is the involuntary personification of surrounding nature afterwards developed by the imagination; or Max Müller and Adalbert Kuhn, when upon the basis of comparative linguistics they erect the new science of comparative mythology; or Wilhelm von Humboldt, when he established the laws of language; or Jacob Grimm and his brother; or A. W. Schlegel; or Frederick Schlegel; or D. F. Strauss; or Benjamin Constant, De Tocqueville, Renan, Taine, Carlyle, and Darwin? Each in his own particular branch applies and develops "Herder's two fundamental principles, *i. e.*, that of organic evolution and that of the entireness of the individual." Another of Herder's fundamental principles—namely, that unless men eat and drink once in a while they will die from lack of nutriment—these writers are all busily applying, too. The claim made for Mr. Hillebrand's hero is a pretty wide one, it will be seen, in some aspects of it, and to bear in mind the third fundamental principle just mentioned, or some similar one, may be as well when we come to consider how much of the credit of these men's labors is to be assigned to Herder for his share. But it is not to be denied that Mr. Hillebrand's essay traces in the works of the versatile and pliable and enthusiastic divine the distinct germs of very many of the true achievements of his successors. Nor perhaps is more really asked than that this be conceded, though some readers may feel as if they were asked to say that but for Herder there would have been no Darwin, no Grimm, no Humboldt. That is not Mr. Hillebrand's conception of the course of history any more than it was Herder's. We should like to devote more space to this excellent and suggestive paper, but cannot. There is a passage or two in reference to Goethe and Schiller, and the exclusively Greek, which devotees of those German demigods might find worth looking at. We shall take space, however, to say that this, like the other articles in the number, gives many evidences of careless proof-reading. What is it, we wonder, in the make-up of the proof-reading mind which—barring miracles—necessitates the spelling of "exceptionally" with a "b" in the place of the first "l"? This and many mistakes really worse, though involving nothing of the supernatural, disfigure the *Review* this month.

General Walker's article ought, as we have said, to be read and kept for reference. It is a perfect boon to have such a body of trustworthy information in regard to a topic on which so much is said, and said with so much heat, and on which so little is known. How many editors know how many Indians the United States have within their borders; how many are civilized; how many actually or partially hostile; how far the process of reclaiming them has gone; and how much above one million of dollars it costs to kill a hostile Indian by means of a United States regular soldier? Very few know anything about any of these things; of the whole number of editors in the United States, probably there are not six per cent. who have not within ten days written at least one article in favor of exterminating Modocs, or opposing or defending "the Quaker policy." This article tells exactly what this policy is, and what in the opinion of the writer, an

authority, should hereafter be the general policy of the Government towards the tribes; and relates also the history of the past relations between the two parties. The following is a sample of General Walker's way of looking at his subject, and also of his way of writing:

"Voluptuary and stoic; swept by gusts of fury too terrible to be witnessed, yet imperturbable beyond all men under the ordinary excitements and accidents of life; garrulous, yet impenetrable; curious, yet himself reserved; proud and mean alike beyond compare; superior to torture and the presence of certain death, yet, by the standards of all other peoples, a coward in battle; capable of magnanimous actions which, when uncovered of all romance, are worthy of the best days of Roman virtue, yet more cunning, false, and cruel than the Bengalee—this copper-colored sphinx, this riddle unread of men, equally fascinates and foils the enquirer. This, however, is the Indian of history. The Indian for whom the Government is called to provide subsistence and instruction presents no such psychological difficulties. Curious compound and strange self-contradiction as the red man is in his native character, in his traditional pursuits, and amid the surroundings of his own wild life, yet when broken down by the military power of the whites, thrown out of his familiar relations, his stupendous conceit, with its glamour of savage pomp and glory, rudely dispelled, his occupation gone, himself a beggar, the red man becomes the most commonplace person imaginable, of very simple nature, limited aspirations, and enormous appetites."

MIVART'S ELEMENTARY ANATOMY.*

THE author of the 'Lessons in Elementary Anatomy' has for some time been well known to investigators in science through several elaborate monographs on the comparative anatomy and classification of mammals, especially of the order primates, and he has lately become conspicuous by his work on 'The Genesis of Species." This latter work, which seems to have been so much misunderstood and quoted against evolution itself, we may remark parenthetically, simply attempts to account for the facts of *evolution* (which is admitted) by other hypotheses than Darwinism or *natural selection* (which alone is repudiated, and that only in part). In the present lessons on the elements of anatomy (which cannot truly be called elementary lessons), the author has advantageously applied the varied knowledge which he has gained by his researches in comparative anatomy, and, as he remarks, "this endeavor is the first of its special kind." In twelve "lessons" are given (1) a general view of the structure of the human body, and its relations to other animal bodies; (2) the skeleton in general, as well as the vertebral column and thoracic elements; (3) the cranium; (4, 5) the limbs; (6) generalities respecting the skeleton; (7) the exterior; (8) the muscles; (9) the nervous system; (10) the circulating system; (11) the alimentary system; and (12) the excretory organs—rather more than half of the work being devoted to the consideration of the skeleton. Under each of the chapters in which the skeleton and its components are described, first is given a general description of the characteristics developed in man, and then follows a brief comparison and contrast with those characters of the homologous parts in the other vertebrates. Several diagrams (*e.g.*, illustrating the formation of the skull, Figs. 92, 93, and an ideal skull, Fig. 197) are added to aid the conception of the morphology of different parts, and it is gratifying to add that, unlike certain others that are widely known, they are based only to a very slight extent on *a priori* transcendental prejudice; still it is well to bear in mind that perhaps more than one of them takes for granted postulates which all might not be prepared to admit.

As in the case of the osteology, in the single chapters in which the muscles, nervous, circulatory, and alimentary systems and the excretory organs are severally described, first the structure as exhibited in man is made known in general terms, and then the homologous parts in the lower forms. The only specially noteworthy feature in these chapters is the adoption (with the qualification, however, "if this interpretation be correct") of Prof. Huxley's latest views respecting the correspondence of the ossicles of the ear in man with the elements of the suspensorium in the inferior vertebrates. And this adoption with the qualification referred to is, in our opinion, a not injudicious measure, as the views in question seem to be in accordance with embryological facts and best to account for the modifications which exist in the vertebrate series. But "if this interpretation be correct," we have an apt exemplification of the misleading tendencies engendered by an exclusive attention to the study of the structure of man, and especially from a physiological standpoint. In man the auditory ossicles, as implied by their name, are confined to the completion of the organ of hearing, while in the lower vertebrates the homologous elements are entirely removed from that organ, and act simply as a suspensor of the lower jaw; and as in the "Lessons" the auditory ossicles in man are treated of in connection with the nervous system, in order to institute a comparison with the homologous parts, we have to refer back to the chapter on the osteology of the skull.

Without dwelling upon other points, we may add that in the concluding chapter an excellent summary is given of the differences exhibited by man (in common with all mammals) from the fishes, the batrachians, the reptiles, and the birds, and, in his own class (in common with all placental mammals) from the monotremes and the marsupials; from the members of his own order; and lastly, and especially, from the higher apes. The chief fault we have to find with this summary is that the casual student might be apt to form an erroneous idea respecting the value of the thirty-five characters exhibited as contrasts between man and the higher apes, not being cautioned in the book itself, unless by the general statement that man "even differs far less from the higher apes than do these latter from the inferior forms of the same order." Still one might not be aware that the differences in all the points enumerated between representatives of the apes and monkeys were greater than those between *only* the highest apes and man. Moreover, as germane to the same question, we object to the concluding observation that man is separated from the inferior animals "by an abyss so vast that no chasm separating the other kingdoms of nature from one another can be compared with it." The work being *purely anatomical*, it is not evident what claim such an assertion has to a place in it. The assertion may or may not be true, but it is the expression of a dogma which, far from being the legitimate deduction of the facts set forth, is, as is to all intents admitted, opposed by them; and it should, accordingly, in the interest of good logic, be avoided in a work from which physiology and psychology are excluded, and which has as one of its missions to teach how to weigh facts. But having said this much, we can cordially commend the work as a whole. There are minor points respecting homologies and other questions upon which we are not of accord with the author, but most of these are still *sub judice*, and therefore not to be dogmatically treated of one way or the other. We need only add that the work is well printed in nearly the same style as Huxley's 'Lessons in Elementary Physiology,' and Flower's 'Introduction to the Osteology of the Mammalia,' issued by the same house, and many of the numerous illustrations will be recognized as old friends by readers familiar with those works. The sketch of classification of the vertebrates given in the first chapter is adopted, with a few inconsiderable modifications, from Huxley's 'Anatomy of Vertebrated Animals.'

'The Medical and Surgical History of the War of the Rebellion (1861–65). Prepared under the direction of Surgeon-General Joseph K. Barnes, U.S.A. Part I.: Surgical Volume; Medical Volume, with Appendix. (Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1870.)—In magnitude, this important work exceeds anything of the kind ever attempted; and naturally, as the materials were vaster. Not only, however, does it surpass in the scale and fulness of its statistics, but in their completeness, advantage having been taken of applications for pensions to trace, for a considerable period after their discharge from the service, the history of patients who would else have passed out of the knowledge of the medical department. This is a unique feature, and obviously of the highest value. A somewhat detailed account of the General Hospital system is promised in a third volume, to match these elegantly printed quartos, whose contents we can only briefly indicate. The Surgical Volume opens with a chronological summary, day by day, of engagements and battles during the Rebellion. This occupies 107 pages, and gives in parallel columns the locality, description of Union troops engaged, loss on both sides, with remarks and references to authorities; after which an index of places. The remaining space is devoted to the discussion of wounds in various parts of the body, a very large number of cases being reported in detail, in many instances alphabetically arranged, and in not a few illustrated either by woodcuts or by finely executed colored plates. It will be seen that, while this volume has a special instructiveness for the medical profession, it is not without interest for the general student and for a very wide class of readers. The same may be said still more emphatically of the Medical Volume. Here we have a vast array of tables of death and disease in the regular and volunteer forces for each month of the war, compiled with special reference to season and region, and agreeing very nearly with the military departments of the period. These the physician and sanitarian may ponder, while the lay reader will skip them in favor of the Introduction and of the Appendix.

The Introduction, dealing with some of the grand results of the statistical enquiry, essays to fix the total number of deaths caused by the war in the Union ranks. This leads to an interesting comparison of authorities. The Adjutant-General's office can, with absolute confidence, affirm the death of at least 303,504 soldiers (33,380 colored); the Quartermaster-General points to 313,555 (presumed) Union graves in the national cemeteries and elsewhere; while the Surgeon-General, with the poorest facilities of all for ascertaining the whole truth, can allege only 282,955. Very likely 315,000 is not too high an estimate for the total loss. We have next the killed in battle; ac-

* 'Lessons in Elementary Anatomy. By St. George Mivart, F.R.S., etc.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

cording to the Adjutant-General, 44,238; according to the Surgeon-General, 35,408. Here again the former is naturally the better authority. The Adjutant-General falls behind, however, in the number of deaths from wounds, 33,993 (Surgeon-General, 49,205); and from disease, 149,043 (Surgeon-General, 186,216). There were 526 suicides, homicides, and executions; and 24,184 deaths from unknown causes. Disease thus carried off twice as many victims as violence; or, in other words, of every three deaths from known causes, but one was due to violence. This ratio, however, is a very favorable one in a sanitary-historical point of view. The black troops lost more than three times as heavily by disease as the whites; the white regulars somewhat less so than the white volunteers. The tables, it is estimated, cover about nine-tenths of the class of facts intended to be embraced in them. They assign causes in 189,397 of the 223,535 recorded cases of discharge from the service (Adjutant-General, 285,545). Diarrhœa and dysentery were the most fatal diseases, "camp fever" coming next, and pneumonia third. Their death-roll embraces 88,497 whites and 16,688 colored soldiers —56 per cent. of the whole number of deaths from disease.

The Appendix has an historical value of a peculiar but really high order. It consists of extracts, or even full reproductions, of medical reports from all parts of the seat of war, which, while mainly concerned with the professional aspects of camp and field experience, often give graphic accounts of the engagements witnessed, the movements of troops, and of other events in regard to which no testimony might be thought so unbiassed and truthful. No important campaign is here omitted, and, what materially assists the narratives, there is a liberal supply of good maps, either of particular battles or of the shifting theatre of the war. We will close our imperfect review of a work so creditable to American science and to the medical bureau of the War Department with a few extracts suggestive of the claims which this history has to a place in every library beside Draper's 'History of the Civil War' or Greeley's 'History of the American Conflict,' or the still better history of the great struggle as yet unwritten. Medical Director King reports, of the battle of the first Bull Run:

"On the morning of July 21, 1861, the General commanding, accompanied by his staff, passed at daylight through our columns, already moving in the direction of Bull Run, until he reached a point beyond Cub's Bridge. . . . Here we halted in the shade, as the day, even thus early, promised to be one of the hottest of the season. While observing the troops passing, we discussed the prospects of the day before us. I perceived that our troops marched at double-quick, and some at a full run, while many, overcome by the heat, threw away their blankets and haversacks. I expressed my opinion to the General that, owing to their rapid movement, the men would be exhausted before they arrived at the scene of action. In this view he acquiesced, and directed the men not to run; but as the officers behind, from an idea that great haste was necessary, constantly repeated the command to close up, the troops were kept at a run a great part of the way. . . . As one of the causes of the Bull Run failure, I desire to record my belief that the exhaustion of our forces by the long and forced march contributed as much as anything else to the disasters of the day."

"My impression at the commencement of the battle was that there would be a brisk skirmish, and then the rebels would most probably fall back and take up a new position. I thought it would be a small task, therefore, to make out a list of the killed and wounded, and with note-book in hand I began to count the number of each. It is a singular fact that I observed near one hundred dead before one wounded!"

Here is Director McParlin's description of the battle of the Wilderness:

"As has been well said, 'this was a battle which no man saw or could see,' fought in the midst of dense thickets of second growth underbrush and evergreens, rendering the use of artillery almost impossible, and compelling the opposing lines to approach very near in order to see each other. It was a series of fierce attacks and repulses on either side, and the hostile lines swayed back and forth over a strip of ground two hundred yards to a mile in width, in which the severely wounded of both sides were scattered. This strip of woods was on fire in many places, and some of the wounded who were unable to escape were thus either suffocated or burned to death. The number who thus perished is unknown, but it is supposed to have been about two hundred. . . . The proportion of officers wounded was very large, being one to every sixteen enlisted men. This was due to the fact that the conflict partook of the character of skirmishing on a large scale, and those who were the most conspicuously dressed were the first victims. For a similar reason, the Zouave brigade of the First Division, Fifth Corps, whose uniforms were braided with red and yellow scrolls, met with a very heavy loss. The relative proportion of killed was also large, being nearly one to every five wounded. Only two hundred and forty wounded from cannon shot and shell were observed. As a somewhat interesting fact bearing upon the character of the conflict, it may be mentioned that it is stated by the chief ordnance officer that but eleven rounds of ammunition per man were used by the army during the three days' fight."

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

April 21, 1873.

THE report of the Grand Jury of their investigations touching the violations of the usury law bids fair to bring to an end the agonizing condition of things in the money market. After the examination of a number of bankers and brokers, the substance of the Jury report on Thursday was that they had failed to trace the reason of the present stringency in the money market to a so-called lock-up of money or to any special cause; that the law is absurd and unpopular to such an extent that not a man can be found to aid the authorities in discovering its infractions; that the enormous rates which have so long been paid in this city are almost entirely due to the existence of such laws; that special charters have been granted to several corporations authorizing them to take commissions above legal interest on their loans of money, thus legalizing in special cases the very thing the usury laws were intended to prevent; and that the enormous rates paid by stock speculators have had the effect of drawing the capital of the city from its legitimate channels, thus preventing merchants from obtaining money at moderate rates such as ordinary business men can stand. The report closes with the following sensible recommendation which was sent to Albany by a special committee on Friday:

"For these reasons and many others which might be mentioned touching the best interests of this city and the State, this Grand Jury hereby recommend to the Legislature of the State the immediate repeal of the usury laws, or such a modification of them, so far as they relate to the city and county of New York, as will permit money to come here from other places and countries, and be employed legally, or equalizing the rate of interest with other great monetary centres."

The publication of the above report had the immediate effect of making money comparatively easy; rates falling from ½ per cent. on Thursday to ⅛ on Friday, the day of the publication of the report. On Saturday, $\frac{1}{32}$ and interest was the highest rate, and it was freely loaned at 7 per cent. per annum before the day closed. During the week rates ranged as follows: ¼, ½, ⅛, and $\frac{1}{16}$ of 1 per cent. on Monday; ⅛, ¼, and $\frac{3}{16}$ of 1 per cent. on Tuesday; ¼, ⅜, ½, and ¾ of 1 per cent. on Wednesday; ⅜ and ½ down to 7 per cent. gold per annum in the afternoon, Thursday; ⅛ and ¼ in the morning, and $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{32}$, and 7 per cent. gold in the afternoon, Friday; and on Saturday the rates were 7 per cent. per annum to $\frac{1}{32}$ and interest, closing easy at the legal rate at 3 P.M. At the close of the week, the indications are in every way favorable for easy money in the future, or at least until the commencement of the usual fall stringency. Still there may be further disturbance until legal tenders constitute a larger part of the remittances from the interior than they have heretofore. The bank statement is favorable, but the reserve is not sufficiently increased to take the banks up to or above the legal requirement.

The total liabilities are increased $267,000, and the reserve shows an increase of $1,108,100. The banks hold $983,950 in specie and legal tenders less than the 25 per cent. required by law, a gain of $1,041,350, which places the National banks above the required reserve, and leaves the deficiency to be divided amongst the State banks. The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	April 12.	April 19.	Differences.
Loans	$271,516,900	$270,190,600	Dec. $1,326,300
Specie	16 134,300	16,116 400	Dec. 17,900
Circulation	27,714.400	27,713.300	Dec. 1,100
Deposits	186,899.200	187,167,300	Inc. 268,100
Legal tenders	35,493,800	36,619,800	Inc. 1,126,000

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	April 12.	April 19.	Differences.
Specie	$16,134,300	$16,116,400	Dec. $17,900
Legal tenders	35,493,800	36,619,800	Inc. 1,126,000
Total reserve	$51,628,100	[$52,736.200	Inc. $1,108,100
Circulation	27,714,400	27,713,300	Dec. 1,100
Deposits	186,899,200	187,167,300	Inc. 268,100
Total liabilities	$214,613,600	$214,880,600	Inc. 267,000
25 per cent. reserve	53,653,400	53,720,150	
Deficiency in legal reserve	2,025,300	983,950	Dec. 1,041,350

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$232,963,200	$37,227,400	$270,190,600
Specie	14,706,500	1,409,900	16,116,400
Legal tenders	32,523.200	4,096.600	36,619,800
Deposits	161,083,200	26,084.100	187,167,300
Circulation	27,670,300	43,000	27,713,300

The stock market has been very active and the fluctuations wide, but hardly anything like a panic has occurred, notwithstanding what has been said by the daily papers, and but three failures of any importance have taken place among Stock Exchange firms. Several brokers are in trouble, but they are parties who generally become embarrassed by reason of overtrading and a reckless style of transacting business about twice a year. The lowest prices were made Wednesday afternoon and Thursday morning, as will be seen by reference to the table of prices published below. The greatest fall was in Union Pacific and Western Union Telegraph, caused by one of the firms who failed having been loaded up with these two stocks, and the majority of the sales at low prices on Wednesday were for their account. Report says that a prominent operator who suffered severely in the late North-Western corner was a large seller at the lowest prices of the week, and that his losses have been greater than those of any one in the "trade." The entire market rallied on Thursday afternoon, and the easier money market of Friday and Saturday imparted a buoyancy to everything, the market finally closing at about the highest prices of the week. The investment stocks shared in the general improvement of the speculative stocks, New Jersey Central being in demand at 99 to 99½, Iron Mountain at 90, and Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western at 99.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending April 19, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100⅝ 102	100¼ 102⅜	97⅜ 101	98⅝ 100½	98⅝ 101⅜	100½ 102⅜	194,400
Lake Shore	91½ 92⅝	90⅜ 92¼	88½ 91⅜	89⅜ 91½	90⅜ 92½	92½ 93⅜	129,900
Erie	65⅜ 65⅜	64⅜ 65⅛	63⅝ 64⅜	63¼ 64⅜	64⅜ 66½	66⅜ 66⅝	52,300
Do. pfd	74 74	74¼ 74½	74⅜ 74⅝	73⅜	74 75½	....	.....
Union Pacific	33⅜ 33⅜	32½ 33⅞	25 32¼	28⅜ 32	31½ 32⅝	32⅜ 33½	77,700
Chi & N. W.	....	....	76 76	....	77⅞ 79⅜	79⅝ 81	11,700
Do. pfd	86 86	85⅜ 85⅞	85⅜ 85⅜	83 85	84½ 84½	....	2,000
N. J Central	98 98¼	98⅜ 98⅝	97 98¼	96¼ 97½	97½ 99½	....	1,800
Rock Island	108 109⅜	106⅜ 109¼	104½ 107⅜	104½ 108	106⅜ 108½	108⅜ 109⅜	73,200
Mil. & St. Paul	58¼ 58⅜	55¼ 59	54 56⅜	53 55⅜	54⅜ 57⅜	58¼ 60	61,700
Do. pfd.	73 73⅜	73 73	71 71⅜	68⅜ 71⅜	70½ 72	72½ 73⅜	4 900
Wabash	69¼ 70	67⅜ 70¼	62 68⅜	63 67½	66½ 68⅜	68½ 69½	26,700
D. L. & Western	99 99¼	98⅜ 99½	98 98⅛	95 95	97½ 99	....	3,500
B. H. & Erie	3⅝ 4¼	3⅞ 4⅜	3⅝ 4	3½ 3⅝	3½ 3⅝	2⅜ 3⅝	23,000
O. & M.	44⅜ 45	4⅜ 45⅜	40⅜ 43⅜	40⅜ 42⅜	42½ 44	44½ 44⅜	77,200
C. C. & I. C.	38⅜ 39½	38⅛ 40	35¼ 39	55½ 38	36⅜ 38⅜	38⅝ 39⅛	42,200
W. U. Tel.	84½ 86	83⅜ 86¼	78 84¼	77⅜ 82	80 85⅜	85½ 87½	536,900
Pacific Mail	56¼ 57⅜	56 58¼	53⅜ 56¼	53⅜ 56⅜	55½ 59¼	59¼ 60⅝	197,900

The Treasury purchased no 5-20's last week. The Government bond market has been quite active, and the fluctuations have been of importance. Considerable sales of bonds were made early in the week by parties desiring to raise money, and the repurchasing of them later in the week caused a rise in the whole list, and developed a great scarcity of bonds. The shipments since the first of the present year amount to something like $20,000,000, and the demand from the foreign bankers continues.

The high rates for money have made business in State and railroad bonds exceedingly dull. Prices have changed but little, and, with the improved condition of the money market, it is fair to count upon higher prices for investment securities of all kinds.

The State of Alabama is adopting a strange mode of paying her debts. The latest news is that the Legislature has passed a law to take up the different railroad bonds guaranteed by the State. The law provides that bonds of the State be given for the guaranteed railroad bonds in the proportion of $1,000 of the former for $4,000 of the latter.

The gold market has been active, the price ranging between the extremes 117 and 119⅛. The closing price on Saturday was 117¾, against 118½, the opening price on Monday morning. About $500,000 gold was shipped to this city from London last week, the dulness of the market for, and low price of, sterling bills making the shipment a profitable transaction.

The specie shipments from this port for the week ending April 19 amount to $842,603, mostly in silver. The total shipments since January 1, 1873, amount to $16,348,423, against $7,471,715 in 1872, $20,001,692 in 1871, $7,324,944 in 1870, $10,345,166 in 1869, and $20,611,866 in 1868.

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FISK & HATCH.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 1, 1873.

The Week.

THE scandal about the American Commissioners at Vienna has ended in the suspension of them all, including General Van Buren, the chief, and the appointment of a new board, consisting of Messrs. W. T. Blodgett, Le Grand B. Cannon, Theodore Roosevelt, and J. S. Schultz. The plain truth of the matter is, that it is these gentlemen, or persons like them, who should have been appointed originally. The American Department will now be managed by them in a creditable manner, and they are creditable and proper representatives of American industry; but they cannot relieve us of the disgrace wrought by their predecessors. The "European despots," we need hardly say, are enjoying it highly; and the German press is rolling it under its tongue as a sweet morsel—and with how many such morsels we have furnished the scoffers of late! The trouble has all arisen, we need hardly say, as usual, from "politics." In spite of the "reform" of the civil service, the work of gross jobbery goes on. We should be sorry to believe that General Van Buren has been guilty of any connivance at the sale of the commissionerships; at the same time, the selection of him for the chief place on the Commission was inexplicable. He has no special connection with American art, science, literature, industry, or commerce, and represents no American institution except the stump. His assistants are mainly small politicians, who "worked" during the summer, or traders "on the make." For instance, one of them from the great city of Philadelphia is an ex-collector of delinquent taxes, and, as the *Public Ledger* well remarks, "fancy a consultation between [great representatives of European science and industry] the Krupps, Frauenhofers, and Bessemers, and Siemenses, and Bunsens, Tyndalls and Brasseys and Mundellas," and this poor "worker." In the meantime, "chaos" prevails in the American Department at Vienna, and the old Commissioners refuse to surrender their official papers to the new.

The Treasury Department has, in self-defence, published the correspondence relating to the Phelps-Dodge affair. There is nothing new in it, except the report of the detective or "Special Agent," as he is called, Mr. Jayne, and that of District Attorney Bliss. Mr. Jayne's letter is highly rhetorical, amusingly so when one remembers that his share of the sum extracted from the Dodges is $22,583, which is very good pay in these times for one little job. In his eagerness and excitement over the prospect, he in one place indulges in a climax which ought to find a place in the 'School Readers.' He says he discovered in the possession of the firm "certain papers, purporting to be copies of invoices from the manufacturers of the goods," which differed from the invoices filed with the Custom-house, in regard to the prices paid, from threepence to four shillings per package; "in omitting in many cases the additional charge per package from the Custom-house invoice"; and "in omitting from the Custom-house or Consular invoice the cost of transportation from Wales, the place of delivery, to Liverpool, the place of shipment." If, he says, the same violations of law were practised by the firm in all their importations, the loss to the Government would be about $15,000 a year. The loss which has been proved, however, is all told only $3,000, and this, Mr. Davis says, was more than covered by the losses of the Dodges to the Government under their own rule. Mr. Davis, who was District Attorney when the proceedings began, declared his belief that no fraud was intended, in this differing from the worthy Jayne, who had no more doubt about the guilty intent than about his own existence.

But Mr. Davis went on the bench at an early stage in the proceedings, and was succeeded by Mr. George Bliss, whose share in the prize is also $22,583. He simply repeats the facts as they appear in evidence, expresses his belief in the frauds, but not with any great earnestness, and announces that the amount legally forfeited is $1,726,060, but he advises the Secretary not to go before the Court with his claim, "inasmuch as he believed it would be exceedingly difficult to obtain a verdict for the amount claimed," it being "so enormous in comparison with the undervaluation and fraud." The total amount of duties lost to the Government is, he says, $1,664 68, so, like a prudent man, he urges the acceptance of the offer made by the Dodges to compromise for $271,017 23. The anxiety of Jayne lest this offer should be refused, and he thus lose his money, is very comical. He urges its acceptance for three reasons, which he gives seriatim with great naïveté: (1) because "the sum would more than reimburse the Government"—(of course it did, and left a small fortune to the informer, and to Messrs. Bliss, Jayne, Arthur, and Sharpe besides); (2) because "the firm is composed of a large number of partners, and the uncertainty of human affairs, taken in connection with the unavoidable delays of the law, is a strong argument in favor of acceptance"—(a somewhat cloudy statement, but meaning apparently that Mr. Jayne takes a sombre view of the future, and hates litigation, and likes cash payments); and (3) "because the intent of the law would thus be fulfilled." In short, he wanted the thing settled up, first because it was profitable, and next because it was right. The compromise was finally made, and $271,017 23 paid over by the Dodges. Of this the Government gets one-half, the knavish clerk who acted as informer, and who ought to be in the penitentiary, actually gets $67,754 31, and the rest is divided between the District Attorney and the leading Custom-house officials. What a business for a civilized and Christian Government to be engaged in!

A very slow-dropping fire of refusals to take the "back pay" still continues, but, as we suppose, the large majority of both Houses have made off with the spoils in spite of the threatening of the newspapers. One Massachusetts journal advises Mr. B. F. Butler just to run for governor, that's all, and see "how he will be laid out and covered over." Senator Schurz, who has always contemned this barefaced "steal," Mr. S. S. Cox, and Mr. Peters, of Maine, are the latest gentlemen we have heard of who have returned the money to the Treasury, and something like forty senators and members, all told, are known to have refused to put it into their pockets; but of these several have discovered some hocus-pocus device for placing it where they fancy it will do most good to themselves in the political future. We commend to all such the more amusing and equally honest and honorable course of one of their Minnesota colleagues. He lobbied like a spring beaver in favor of the appropriation; then he gallantly and virtuously voted against it like a man; and finally, as soon as it passed, he telegraphed home, where they had been digging the cellar of a new house for him, that "they had better begin to haul sand."

General Garfield, who was severely censured and called on to resign by a formal resolution at a convention of his constituents, for his course in voting for the retroactive salary bill, has published a long defence of himself, which is, in substance, that he had charge of the Legislative Appropriation Bill; that he resisted the attempt to attach the salary clause to it by every means in his power in the House, voting against it steadily, but constantly finding himself overborne by heavy majorities; that in the Conference Committee, of which he was chairman, he opposed it again, but was again beaten; that he had then no alternative but to abandon the bill to Butler, and go into the House and try and secure its defeat; that had he done so and succeeded, an extra session of Congress would have

been made necessary, entailing far greater expense than "the grab," and opening the way once more to an unusual amount of dangerous legislation such as the refunding of the cotton tax, a large number of doubtful "claims," and leading to the defeat of the first successful attempt to bring the Pacific Railroad to proper accountability. He, therefore, devoted himself to making the bill as it stood as good, or rather as harmless, as possible, and secured the addition of the clause deducting mileage from "the grab." There is certainly nothing in all this to destroy confidence in General Garfield's integrity or usefulness, though we are satisfied he was mistaken as to his duty. Some such great shock or protest as the defeat of the Appropriation Bill on a question of common honesty, would have been valuable in a way not to be estimated in dollars and cents; and had General Garfield fought for it, he would have rendered the country the highest service in his power. But he has not shared personally in the plunder, and he has too many years of usefulness and honor behind him, and has shown himself on too many occasions one of the few Congressmen on whom the eye of an American citizen can rest with satisfaction, to be lightly laid on the shelf by any constituency.

The so-called Governor of Louisiana, Kellogg, has recently addressed to the so-called Attorney-General a letter, which must appear a very ill-considered document, even in the eyes of those persons who feel compelled to give Kellogg, at a safe distance, their political countenance and support. How can he be justified in making the insinuation that the late massacre in Grant Parish was "directly planned and ordered by this man [McEnery] and his associates"? This charge, levelled against a respectable gentleman, is merely atrocious; and is seen to be more so when accounts more trustworthy than it is reasonable to expect from Kellogg make it highly probable that the trouble had for a principal cause Kellogg's own nerveless and profligate attempt to conciliate his political enemies by dividing certificates of election among them and his friends, regardless of which of them in a given case had been "elected." If the massacre was not planned and ordered by McEnery and his friends, says Kellogg, it was at all events "the result of their treasonable acts against the State government." The said State government, be it remembered, is Kellogg's, and the one which was pronounced, even by Senator Morton and his committee, to have been set up by the merest usurpation of power. It will strike most people that, under the circumstances, there is a good degree of impudence in Kellogg's directing his Attorney-General to proceed to the prosecution of McEnery for treason, but this is what he has done.

McEnery, on his part, has been making a three hours' speech at Monroe (April 19), in which he explained his views and intentions. Most that he said was not new, but some of his remarks are interesting. Kellogg, he says, in the course of three weeks appointed three sheriffs of Grant Parish. The negroes were extremely dissatisfied with his action. For twenty days the town of Colfax was in the hands of rioters, and the "*de facto* Governor of Louisiana" could not take it away from them, while the militia which he, McEnery, would have called out would undoubtedly have respected the orders of a government based on the people's will, and not on intimidation, and the outrages would have been prevented. Mr. McEnery then advised peaceful resistance under the forms of law to the Kellogg tax-collectors, and assured his hearers that, refusing to pay taxes and being proceeded against for the non-payment, their cases could be carried up to the United States Supreme Court, which would not decide against them. He was every day, he said, in receipt of assurances from the North which made him confident that the State would receive justice at the next session of Congress—a confidence which may not be misplaced; but we fear. Governor Converse, of Vermont, has, we see, cautiously expressed to Mr. McEnery his regrets that Louisiana is in so much trouble, and the Texas and Kentucky Legislatures have with more decision taken the same ground. But there has not been any just and proper public expression at the North of our opinion of the proceedings of this Kellogg gang of tenth-rate politicians who have seized on the State. They are left undisturbed. And *cui bono?*

Within the past few years the prosperity of Boston has been steadily increasing. Although the magnificent promises of the Hartford and Erie Railroad about "bringing the products of the West to deep water" were not carried out, other railroads have been bringing them instead. The Boston and Albany line, for instance, which in 1860 transported eastward 838,000 tons of freight, brought 2,000,000 in 1872. This year the Hoosac Tunnel will be completed, if nothing goes wrong, and vast expectations are indulged in by schemers, and operators, and railroad men as to the effect of the opening. The $12,000,000 and the quarter of a century's labor expended in building the tunnel would certainly not have been thrown away if the result of it should be as is now predicted, to transfer the Russian grain trade from Odessa to Boston, the Western grain trade from New York to Boston, and in the end, perhaps, to reduce New York itself to the condition of a howling wilderness. One of the seers, who has been lifting up his voice on the subject, says: "We shall do what is right when we occupy the position God has given us, and bring this little city, worthy of the Puritans and the Pilgrims, worthy of Massachusetts, to stand on the great line between Asia and Europe. I do believe it; I know it is so, and believing and knowing it, I cannot keep still. It is this that moves me." Several ways of doing this have been suggested, one of which—the State ownership of the tunnel lines—we referred to a few weeks since. The exact amount of advantage over New York which this road will give Boston we should be glad to communicate to the public if we knew ourselves.

Mr. Lowe's financial statement is the great topic of the English newspapers received by the last mail. We gave some weeks ago the principal points of it, as regards the amount of the receipts and expenditure. He announced a surplus of $30,000,000, in the past year. The public debt has been reduced by $98,400,000 since 1869, and of this amount $34,305,000 within the past year. During the coming year he estimates that the customs duties will be $105,155,000. The tax on spirits is estimated at $95,000,000, a formidable amount, and one likely to exert an increasing and pernicious influence on English politics. When Sir Robert Peel imposed the income tax, thirty years ago, it was estimated that it would produce $3,640,000 for every penny to the pound sterling imposed (or every cent to $1 20). It now proves that for every penny to the pound imposed it yields $5,000,000 more than it did then. The duties are to be again lowered during the coming year—the sugar duty by one-half; the income tax by one penny in the pound. Neither the bad harvest, nor the strikes, nor the political disturbances in France and Spain have affected the revenue. The enormous sum raised by taxes on the sale of spirituous liquors of course argues the existence of prodigious intemperance, as well as moderate drinking, and is likely to give the "liquor question" an importance in England it has never had elsewhere, and it will have a fiscal bearing of the first order. Mr. Lowe admits, indeed, that a large part of the increase of the revenue during the past year has been due to increased consumption of spirits by the working-classes, and this in turn was due to the high wages consequent on great business activity.

The Australian colonies have at length come to an understanding with the Home Government upon a subject which has furnished a bone of contention between them for many years. The Australian politicians are nearly all protectionists, and share the contempt of some of ours for Adam Smith, whom they do not consider "a practical man"; but they are, in one respect, a great deal more sensible and logical than our protectionists. They, for instance, are never guilty of such amazing folly as maintaining that free trade between Vermont and Massachusetts is a great blessing, and, in the same breath, that free trade between Vermont and Canada would be a great

curse. What they say is that free trade between two political communities, whether they fly the same flag or not, is mischievous, which is good honest doctrine, which one can understand and respect. Each of the various Australian colonies has, therefore, always clamored for permission to tax imports from the others, so as to protect "home industry," but never could get it till now. The Imperial Government has at last yielded, however, and a bill is before Parliament permitting each colony to regulate its customs as it pleases, provided it imposes no differential duty on the goods of any country, and neither imposes nor remits duties in contravention of subsisting commercial treaties between Great Britain and other foreign powers. They will now all have a delightful time keeping out each other's odious products, and building up their own workingmen, or, in other words, trying to do away with the effects of steam, machinery, telegraphy, and nearly all other recent achievements of material civilization.

There is more trouble impending in England on the question of neutral duties. A considerable section of English "society" sympathizes with the Spanish Carlists, partly because their cause is the cause of "gentlemen," like that of the Confederates, and partly—though only a small number of persons is affected by this consideration—because it is the cause of the Church. So a committee has been formed, and has begun to solicit subscriptions in aid of the Carlist treasury through advertisements in the Catholic newspapers in London, and the Spanish Minister, doubtless having the memory of the American war in his mind, has complained of the performance to the Government as one which ought not to be tolerated within the limits of a friendly state. Whereupon the matter was referred to the law officers of the crown for their opinion, and that opinion is, "that the advertisement being a request for gifts, though a contract for the purpose would be illegal and not capable of being enforced in an English court, it did not amount to any infraction of the law at all." It appears, however, that a precisely similar case arose during the Greek war of independence, fifty years ago, and the opinion of the King's Advocate, of the Attorney-General, and of the Solicitor-General (Copley, afterwards Lord Lyndhurst) was taken upon it, and they advised Mr. Canning that subscriptions raised by citizens of a friendly state for the purpose of aiding the operations of one belligerent against another, "were inconsistent with neutrality and contrary to the law of nations," and that pretended loans at low rates of interest would fall within the same category, but they acknowledged that they did not well see how such offences were to be punished, owing to the difficulty of proof. Since then, subscriptions of this kind have been made in aid of various "causes," some popular and some reactionary, but no prosecution has been attempted or apparently even thought of. The stir in the present case is doubtless the result of the trouble with this country. The London *Spectator* has, apropos of the affair, some words of earnest and much-needed warning to sympathizers in foreign quarrels, and they are words which many people out of as well as in England would do well to listen to. It points out with great force the wrong and inexpediency of meddling at all in disputes which you do not thoroughly understand, as is the case with nearly all internal disputes of foreign nations, and, above all, of encouraging people to overturn established governments, or engage in civil war, by "hailing" them or lending them money, when you do not intend to run any risk yourself, but only to look on and enjoy the fun, or when you know perfectly well that your opinion about the merits of the quarrel, or its probable result, is not worth five cents.

Affairs in Spain seem to grow more lively, but also more hopeless. The Committee of Permanence left by the Cortes, in imitation of that of Versailles, to look after the Government during the recess, has got into a quarrel with the Executive for having appointed Señor Pi y Margall Minister of the Interior *ad interim*, in place of Señor Figueras, who had taken leave of absence in consequence of the death of his wife. The accounts of what followed are not very clear, but Marshal Serrano appears to have taken it into his head to try a *coup de main* against the Government, in the interest of the Committee, but the troops refused to follow him, and some volunteers, who did espouse the cause of the Committee, were soon after compelled to lay down their arms by a force of regular artillery. The Government then dissolved the Committee, which is of course of itself a revolutionary act, but the "Reds" were not altogether satisfied with this, and, as they distrust everybody, they appear to have taken possession of the city, with the view of guarding against any further "reactionary" attempts. The Executive is not able to gainsay them, because it has no troops on which it can rely, and is indeed in a state of pitiable helplessness, aggravated by the complete emptiness of the treasury and the total extinction for the present of the public credit. Señor Castelar appears to be coming to his senses a little, and is satisfied now that the abolition of the conscription was not such a fine thing after all. Accordingly, he wishes to compromise with the artillery officers, and get them back into the army as the nucleus of a reorganized force. They are or were the *élite* of the Spanish army, the best born, best educated, and best disciplined, and the strength of their *esprit de corps* may be inferred from the fact, that since their resignation, on the appointment of General Hidalgo to the command in Calatonia, the richer ones have supported their poorer brethren out of their own pockets. They are now all lost to the Government, and are probably leaning to Don Carlos, who, if he is not gaining ground, is certainly not losing it.

The correspondent of the London *Times* reproduces the leading article of a newspaper published at Madrid, which, before the days of the French Commune, would have been considered a hoax, but now seems probable enough. It professes to be the organ of the Sans-Culottes, or "The Shirtless" (Los Descamisados), and this is their programme:

"Anarchy is our only formula. Everything for everybody (*todo para todos*), from Power even to Woman. From this beautous disorder, or rather orderly disorder, true harmony will spring. The earth and its products being the property of all, robbery, usury, and avarice will cease. With the destruction of the family tie and the establishment of Free Love, public and private prostitution will conclude, and the ideal of the Greek legislator be realized, in which the young shall respect and love their elders, seeing in each old man a father, and in each woman a mother or a sister. Getting rid of the bugbear called God (*Dios*), and reducing His mission to affright the children, there will terminate those *industries* called religions, which only serve to feed the mountebanks (*farsántes*), as Dupuy calls them, the *curas* (priests), whose mission is reduced to deceive and trick the foolish.

"This is our programme; but, before putting it into practice, it is necessary society should be purified. A blood-letting (*sangria*) is essential—short, but grand and extraordinary. The putrid branches of the social tree must be cut off that it may grow vigorous and healthy.

"These are our desires and aspirations; and, now that you know them, tremble, ye *bourgeois*, for your tyranny is coming to an end! Make way for the shirtless (*descamisados*)! Our Black Flag is unfurled. War to the family! War to property! War against God!"

The election in Paris, so much talked of, has at last come off, and has resulted in the defeat of the Government candidate, M. de Rémusat, and also of the Conservative, Baron Stoffel, and the election of M. Barodet, the ex-Mayor of Lyons, and a furious Radical adventurer, who figured prominently in the worst excesses of the Reds in that city during the war. The two moderate candidates between them only polled 152,500 against Barodet's 166,000. This result is undoubtedly the rebuke of the Paris Radicals to Thiers for the course of the Government towards Lyons, and as such he has doubtless received it, but he has a remarkable capacity for not being troubled, and probably hardly expected a majority in Paris, where the Radicals after all have only about half the vote. Of seven other elections to fill vacancies in the Chamber, the Radicals have triumphed in the Departments of Jura, Corrèze, and Marne, but in Morbihan the Conservatives, as might have been expected, have carried the day. The general result is that one Legitimist, four Republicans (Conservative), and three Radicals have been elected. A modification of the ministry is said to be a probable result, M. de Rémusat, Léon Say, and Jules Simon going out; but this is made doubtful by M. Thiers's self-confidence and obstinacy.

TRANSPORTATION AND THE TARIFF.

IT is greatly to be hoped that the Western farmers, who are now so much roused against the railroad corporations, and are making such a formidable show of "Granges," will come to some conclusion before long as to what they want, and put it down on paper in a practicable shape; otherwise the movement will die out like the Know-Nothing movement, some phases of which it already resembles, leaving the corporations stronger and more tyrannical than ever. Thus far, nothing in the shape of a policy worthy the attention of intelligent men has been produced. What the farmers' grievances are we all know; now let us have the remedy in black and white, and in a form which will bear expression in legislation. It is hardly worthy of sensible business men, such as the great body of the Western farmers are, to go on pouring forth vague declamation against "heartless monopolists," like the complaints of a meeting of a trades-union or of a woman's-rights convention. Nor is the plan of having "reasonable rates" of freight—or, in other words, the cost of transportation—fixed by a jury or a commission, which has been adopted in Illinois, very creditable to the intelligence of men who like to sell their wheat and cattle at the market rate. We have had enough in all conscience, during the last fifteen years, of attempts to set things to rights by the aid of mediæval expedients. It is time that we once more began to go forward again, and tried to profit by the experience of past ages instead of copying it.

The farmers' uprising, undoubtedly, whether it be well or ill managed—whether it grow in its present shape into a real political organization, with a policy and platform, or pass through a cloud of rhetoric into something new—is, as we ventured to predict a fortnight ago, "one of the early skirmishes of the impending war, which, unless we greatly err, is destined to produce industrial, social, and, above all, political changes in this country of the most startling description." It is important enough already to make the discussion now raging in some of our Eastern papers, as to what the Republican party or the Democratic party ought to do next, seem almost puerile. But the new movement will not become a real political force until it is based on a calm and rational view of the facts of the situation. First and foremost among these is the difficulty of successfully managing a great railroad. This does not seem, perhaps, very formidable to an excited orator at an anti-monopoly meeting, but it is nevertheless, in the eyes of a rational man, one of the most difficult feats of modern civilization. It is indeed so difficult that the supply of persons equal to the task is, in this or any other country, very small. Cheap transportation might doubtless be obtained by the States at once by an amendment to the Constitution which would enable them to seize on all the railroads, and compel the managers to work them at low rates. But cheap and safe transport—if, indeed, there be any cheap transportation which is not also safe—cannot be permanently secured by either the Government or corporations without good management. Now, what does the good management of a railroad mean? It means, in the first place, the selection of a small army of employees, for a great variety of duties, requiring the utmost honesty, fidelity, exactness, and punctuality; and the maintenance of discipline in this army, by day and by night, in winter and summer, over a line of hundreds of miles, year after year. It means, in the second place, the purchase in the best market of vast quantities of supplies of all kinds for buildings, track, and rolling-stock, and the appropriation of each article to its proper purpose with the least possible amount of misuse or waste. It means, in the third place, the running of hundreds of trains daily and nightly in such manner and with such accuracy and punctuality that there shall be no collisions, and no lagging, and such forethought that no wheel, or rail, or bridge shall prove defective. This great, indeed we might almost say wonderful, work has come, by a sort of process of natural selection, to be committed to the hands of what is perhaps the ablest body of men in the United States. It is among them, and not in Congress or the State legislatures, that our real statesmen, and commanders, and financiers are to be found. They are by no means, in all respects, an admirable body of men; their influence in politics we hold to be bad, and almost wholly bad; but they do their own work, for which they are responsible before the world, admirably well. Their business is to conduct their roads carefully and profitably, and this they do; it is not their business to legislate wisely for the people of the United States, and this they neither do nor make any pretence of doing; and when we hear of their having corrupted a legislature, or bought up a judge, the blame lies not so much with them as with those who provide cheap and nasty legislators and judges. The purity of the legislature and the bench is our affair; the welfare of "the road" is the affair of the manager.

Now, the motive which influences them in giving themselves up to the direction of railroads is simply love of administration and love of money. These are perhaps low motives, but they are the motives by which nearly all the business of the world is done. There is in the present state of human nature no substitute for them. If, therefore, we were to interfere with the management of railroads to such a degree as to deprive their owners of the control of them, and of the power of making money out of them, the first result would be a rapid diversion of the talent and capital now engaged in running them to other pursuits. There is hardly any more doubt about this than about the composition of water. If the state began to meddle much with the cost of transportation and the regulation of traffic, no enterprising man would continue to hold railroad stock, or to work a road under the inspection of boards of politicians. He would sell out and withdraw. If the state then guaranteed a certain rate of interest on capital invested in railroads, a large class of "prudent investors," trustees, widows, spinsters, and elderly men retired from business, would doubtless keep their funds in them, as they do in Federal and State securities and city bonds; but this class does not supply administrative talent. It would probably not produce one man capable of operating a hundred-mile road, so that the management of the roads would have to be taken by the State itself; or, in other words, by the dozen cunning-looking gentlemen who meet in seedy black clothes in hotel parlors a few weeks before election, and call themselves "The People." We presume there are but few persons still enthusiastic enough to believe that these persons or their agents, however they might succeed with one road in each State, such as Mr. C. F. Adams, Jr. proposes they should carry on, would be capable of taking charge of the entire railroad system of the United States. Let those who are dissatisfied with Scott's or Vanderbilt's railroad service, think of what Tom Murphy's would be. In short, whatever the defect or inconvenience of our present system of having our transportation done by private enterprise, there is no substitute for it possible. A very large proportion of the talent of the country is now engaged in it, and we cannot afford to drive it away by undue state interference. In other words, the state could not provide as cheap and safe carriage as we now have by any process within its reach, or likely to be within its reach, and the extension of state activity would, in the present and probable condition of our politics, be simply an increase of the material out of which our Murphys, Ameses, Caseys, and Butlers are made.

If the Western farmers will look a little more deeply into the matter, they will see that the remedy lies not in more State interference, but in less; that what has most contributed to bring the class of men who are engaged in the conduct of the great industrial enterprises of the community (and with whose services it cannot dispense, into a position of hostility to it) and make them a source of political corruption, is special legislation, or, in other words, legislation bestowing special privileges on particular sets of persons. The system of passing acts giving the control of the market to persons engaged in the production of certain articles, is one which no community in our day has virtue enough to resist. It has, in our case, not only debauched Congressmen and converted them into the hangers-on or paid agents of the great industrial chiefs, but it has gradually beguiled the industrial chiefs into looking on the country, not

so much as a political organization with laws to be obeyed and rights to be respected, as a field of speculation to be exploited. It has worked, too, a complete and corrupting alliance between the great railroad managers and the great manufacturers, by which money helps money, and every legislature in the country—as might be expected, that of Pennsylvania especially—is filled with the henchmen of the combination, and bound to do their bidding, and made as impervious to public opinion, or indeed any outside influences of an honest sort, as a parcel of plate-layers or ticket-agents. If the farmers wish to break this combination up, and bring back our great operators into just relations to the community, they must strike at the sources of what is corrupt in their power, and first among these is tariff legislation and all its appendages. In other words, the question of transportation is part and parcel of the tariff question, and cannot be dealt with apart from it. Transportation is made dear by the dearness of supplies; that is to say, the railroads are taxed enormously, and through the railroads the farmers, for the benefit of special industries. There can be no cheap transportation without cheap iron, cheap cars, cheap stations; and, what is more, there can be no markets for American produce abroad so long as the sale of all foreign commodities, except gold, is made as difficult as high duties and vexatious custom-house regulations can make it. Agricultural produce at the West is now a glut; it must become more and more of a glut, if either more railroads are opened or the cost of transportation on the present roads is diminished, as long as new markets are not provided, or, in other words, as long as access to the crowded regions of the Old World is artificially impeded. Of course there may come a time when there will be population enough in the West to eat up all its corn and pork; but, at the present rate of agricultural and railroad development, this will not be witnessed by either the present generation or the next, and the cry of the "Granges" ought to be for a clearing of the outlets to the Old World in all ways. To secure this, it is not enough to cheapen transportation; we have to offer a market to the foreigner for his commodities in order to get him to take ours.

THE EXTRAORDINARY ELEMENT IN THE CASE OF PHELPS, DODGE & CO.

THE case of Phelps, Dodge & Co. is certainly destined to become a *cause célèbre* in our mercantile history; and, if we are not much mistaken, will, by awakening public attention to the character of the laws and the fiscal policy under which the business of the country is transacted, exert an important influence also upon our political future. The statement of their difficulties with the Government, which the firm has recently published, is a document so remarkable, that were it not for the accompanying confirmatory letters of the late United States District Attorney, Hon. Noah Davis, and the Special Treasury Agent, Mr. Jayne, the alleged facts would seem almost incredible; and yet the concurrent circumstances of the case which have not been publicly related, and the deductions which a review of the whole affair legitimately warrants, are if anything still more extraordinary.

During the past summer a contract was being negotiated by the house of Phelps, Dodge & Co. with certain manufacturers in Europe for the purchase of the entire annual product of a specialty of metal fabrication; and as the project, from the amount of capital involved, was one of no little risk and of great importance, the entire discussion and correspondence relative to it were made in the highest degree confidential, and a member of the firm ultimately sent abroad to perfect and complete the arrangements. But the steamer which bore him had hardly taken its departure when the firm was waited upon by a competitor in business, who, after making known his acquaintance with the proposed contract and its conditions, as well as the sailing of the partner referred to, preferred a demand for participation for himself and others in the enterprise, accompanying it at the same time with a threat that unless the terms were accepted "he would burst the whole business." It is only necessary to say that the demand was at once resented, and its author treated as he deserved. But the revelation that what were supposed to be business secrets in the firm had become known, and the further fact that an attempt was subsequently made in Europe to make good the threat uttered, led to an investigation; when it was ascertained that for some time previous it had been the practice of several *reputed* respectable New York metal-brokers and merchants to visit the store of Phelps, Dodge & Co., secretly and at night, for the purpose of inspecting their letter-books and invoices—admission being given them by dishonest clerks and watchmen, who had been bribed to betray their employers' interests.

An arrest and prosecution of at least one of the principals concerned in this disgraceful transaction immediately followed; but as it was shown that admission to the store was allowed by the agents of the firm, and as it could not be proved that any article had been feloniously removed from the premises, no specific criminal offence, for which punishment might be awarded, could be established. But in the course of the trial it came to light that among the employees who had been guilty, from mercenary motives, of betraying the trust confided to them, was a clerk who, to the sin of dishonesty, added the deeper one of ingratitude. This man, a creole Frenchman or Spaniard, of supposed West India origin, had been given employment in the outset, when not needed, by a member of the firm, simply out of compassion for his utter poverty and friendlessness; and had subsequently been educated, promoted on a liberal salary to the position of assistant invoice clerk, and even retained in position when ill-health had almost entirely incapacitated him for any useful and efficient service. This rascal, for such is the only proper term that can be applied to him—who, by the way, it should be stated, had gained admission to the store at night under the plea of serving his employers by bringing up his arrears of copying—foreseeing as the result of the legal investigation that his own dismissal from employment would be one certain issue, took immediate steps to secure himself against any contingent detriment by assuming the rôle of an informer; and having in his capacity as assistant clerk become acquainted with certain invoice irregularities, in place, as was his duty, of informing his employers, he stole the documents in question, and put himself in communication with the Custom-house officials.

As to the manner in which he operated to make his stolen capital available, it is sufficient to say that men of high standing in the legal profession were only too ready to engage, for a share in the spoils, in the work of hunting down an old and leading firm of New York merchants, and by such the case was worked up and placed in the hands of the Custom-house detectives.

Now, whether the firm of Phelps, Dodge & Co. were or were not engaged in an attempt to defraud the revenue, is a question which we do not here propose to discuss. But we simply draw a picture of the events that preceded their accusation and arraignment, and ask our readers and the public to take a good look at it, and then ask themselves how long a community which tolerates such a dry-rot of all manliness can legitimately profess to be moral or even civilized? Or, in the face of such precedents, what probability is there of New York City speedily becoming the commercial centre of the world's exchanges, the continued recipient of foreign capital, or an entrepôt of the commerce of all nations?

But if the relation of private parties to this case has been most extraordinary, the position of the Government, both in respect to the law and its administration, in this same matter, has been no less singular. And in saying this we by no means intend to reflect on the course of the minor officers of the revenue, who play the part of prosecutors and detectives. The law under which they act is permissive, if not mandatory; and when the end in view is pecuniary gain, human nature is pretty certain to run in similar channels, whether it be enthroned in the Custom-house, presides over a Chatham-Street "loan office," or rides on a red cart in the person of a Yankee tin-peddler. But when we come to deal with Washington and the higher officials who preside over the destinies of the

nation, we have a right to expect something better. We have a right to expect that they, at least, shall fully recognize the principle that the primary object of all government *is to remove obstructions;* and of a free government, to promote the interests of the people and prevent wrong and injustice. But axiomatic as are these principles, they are the very ones which appear to have obtained the least recognition in the determination and administration of our recent revenue policy; and in the place of them we have had interference and obstruction as the characteristic feature of Congressional legislation; and in the Departments, a proclamation by works that Government exists primarily for itself, and that its interests *per se* are first, and those of the industry, trade, and commerce of the country secondary and subordinate, or, as the late Secretary of the Treasury substantially expressed it, in an official conversation during the past winter, "that he regarded the interests of the Government and the interests of the merchants as diametrically opposite."

In the light of such precedents and sentiments, and as bearing upon the industry, commerce, and morality of the country, it is interesting next to trace the influence and action of the Government in the Phelps, Dodge & Co. difficulty, from its remote inception to its full fruition and culmination. In the first place, the attempt to collect a revenue from duties on tin and tin plate (the articles in respect to which undervaluation is alleged) is something economically indefensible. Neither of these commodities is produced in the United States, and no infant manufacture, or citizen in such a state of pauperism as warrants him in asking the Government to impose a tax for his benefit, seeks or demands it. But, at the same time, tin and tin plates are so indispensable in our social economy, and enter into so many forms of domestic industry, that it is not too much to say that, for every dollar tax by which their cost is primarily enhanced by the Government, the consumer pays, in the way of profits, interest, and commissions on the successive sales and transformations that precede their final use, at least from fifty to seventy-five cents additional.

The tax, then, in place of being specific, or by the pound, as it might be—thus obviating any possibility of fraud on the part of the importer—is made *ad valorem;* and when Commissioner Wells, some years since, with the general concurrence of importers and appraisers, and with a view of simplifying the law and its administration, made a special recommendation to Congress in favor of converting the existing *ad valorem* on tin plates into an equivalent *specific*, the recommendation received no more attention than if he had proposed some standard by which the length of dogs' tails should be equalized and adjusted. And the reason, furthermore, why specific duties, as a preventive against undervaluations, have not been more generally substituted in the frequent readjustments of our tariff laws, is undoubtedly to be found in the circumstance that the essence of protection is obstruction, and every protectionist, when called upon to legislate, instinctively feels, even if he cannot give a reason, that the removal of any obstruction in the way of importations is in itself a movement in the direction of greater freedom in exchanges; and that, in comparison with such a result, temptations, snares, frauds, and national demoralization are evils of minor consideration.

But although the substitution of specific for *ad valorem* duties would effectually prevent frauds in importation, except through the direct complicity of the agents whom the Government appoints to enumerate, weigh, and measure, it would still seem as if the law in other respects had been purposely disregarded to make the business of importing as difficult and personally hazardous as possible. Thus, for example, instead of one concise code, we have statute running back to 1799 piled upon statute, until the law has become so complicated that it is within bounds to say that there are not ten men to-day, in all the United States, who have any clear comprehension of all its requirements, provisions, limitations, and interpretations. Again, the law requires invoices, oaths, certificates, and declarations, not once, but in triplicate, of shippers, consuls, owners, and consignees, in respect to the most minute particulars of cost, market value, freights, charges, and commissions; and yet, in actual practice, and when it is to the advantage of the Government to do so, all these forms may be set aside, and the duties assessed on the judgment of certain persons, supposed to be competent, sitting as appraisers. And when these appraisers, whose function and office would seem to be judicial, have once given their judgment, and the same has been accepted alike by the Government and the merchant, the duties paid, and the merchandise delivered, sold, and consumed, it is held to be right, as it is the practice of the Government, to go back at any time within a period of five years and reopen the whole matter for further adjudication; and, as in the case of Phelps, Dodge & Co., exact fines, amounting to confiscation, for technical infractions of the law, which, by the admission of the Government agents themselves, have resulted in practically no loss to the revenue. And as illustrating still further the arbitrary character of the law regulating foreign commerce, it may be stated, that even in cases where the duty is so much per pound, per yard, or per dozen, and where value is of no consequence, if it so happens that the invoice does not correctly state the value, the goods are liable to confiscation, and in at least one instance during the past year, of this exact character, have in fact been seized for forfeiture, and the consignee threatened with imprisonment. And in the case of goods imported, where the duty is *ad valorem*, but the value indefinite or difficult of determination, and when for such very reasons—as in a recent importation of South African diamonds—the goods are forwarded to the care of the Collector for appraisement, and not to the owner or consignee, the absence of an invoice, giving details which cannot be known to any one, has not only been held to render the importation liable to forfeiture, but on such flimsy basis proceedings for forfeiture have actually been instituted.

But the law, harsh, arbitrary, and barbarous as it is, is not wholly unmerciful, inasmuch as it allows the head of the Treasury Department "to mitigate or remit any penalty or forfeiture," when the same "in his opinion shall have been incurred without any intention of fraud." Now, in the case of Phelps, Dodge & Co., an infraction of the law was without reserve admitted, and, as Mr. Boutwell has stated, the practice of the Treasury undoubtedly warranted the Secretary in assuming an admission of illegal action, and an offer to settle, as equivalent to a confession of anything which the form of procedure might stipulate; but the fact nevertheless remains, that we have the assertion of the firm and the certificate of the District Attorney, *first*, that the offence was not intentional, and, *second*, that the total loss to the revenue during an extended period, and as the result of Custom-house transactions and payments representing millions, was a sum comparatively insignificant. Under such circumstances it would seem to have been the part of a great Government, whose revenue laws are acknowledged to be a bundle of inconsistencies, to have fallen back on the old maxim, "De minimis non curat lex"; and even on the assumption that the utmost that could be charged was true, to have dealt tenderly with the reputation of one of the representative and most enterprising commercial firms of the country, the members of which, when it was a question whether the Government itself would have a continuance, had contributed of their own number to the ranks of the army, and had given of their substance to the cause of the country what in old time would have sufficed for a "king's ransom."

But what did our great model and enlightened Government, acting through its official representatives, actually do? It exacted a penalty of $271,023 17 for a detriment to the revenue which it has been certified was not in excess of $1,664, and which the Treasury, by compromising, acknowledged to have been unaccompanied by fraudulent intent; and exacted it furthermore with the full knowledge that the diversion of one-fourth of the whole amount paid into the pockets of a scoundrel of a clerk, who for lucre had sold out his employers, would in itself constitute such a premium and incentive to rascality as to substitute an atmosphere of suspicion and con-

cealment, in place of confidence and good feeling, throughout the entire mercantile community. There is no necessity, in forming an opinion about this part of Phelps, Dodge & Co.'s case, to consult Brightley's Digest, or to trouble our heads about actual costs, market values, or what has or has not been the practice of the Treasury. If the facts in respect to the inception of the difficulty, the procurement of evidence, the absence of intent, the amount of loss to the revenue, the penalty exacted, and the disposition of the penalty, are as represented—and it is difficult to see how the above statements can be questioned—the action of the Government has been simply infamous, and in almost any other constitutional country would have not only driven the ministry from power, but would have compelled national atonement not only for the money paid but for damages incurred to the uttermost farthing. Legislation, we all know, has driven our commerce from the seas; but administration seems now to supplement legislation by driving American merchants out of existence, and substituting in their place men of no nationality, who will say to the Government as their prototype Shylock said to his persecutors, "The villany you teach me I will execute, and it shall go hard but I will better the instruction."

BARON RICHTHOFEN'S TRAVELS IN CHINA.

II.

SHENSE is chiefly interesting as the original China—the China of 2,000 years ago. Here lived the dynasty that first conquered and consolidated the country into the immense Empire that has so long defied the centuries. The province is more varied, geographically, than Shanse, being divided by nature into two grand divisions—Northern Shense, which, like Shanse, is a high plateau covered with loess, and Southern Shense, which is drained by rivers to the Yangtze, has no loess, descends to the ordinary level of interior countries, and has alluvial plains. The two portions are so distinct and so decidedly divided by the Tsing-ling-shan range of mountains that communication is very difficult; so much so that the political condition of one portion does not affect the other. In the Taeping rebellion those destructive religionists held Southern Shense for several years, but, with the exception of two slight raids, they did not penetrate into the northern half. On the other hand, the Mohammedan rebellion, which half depopulated Northern Shense, did not pass the Tsing-ling-shan.

Of Northern Shense there is much ground lost in rough and bare mountain-sides and defiles, and everything that is of value in the province centres in the large loess basin of the Wei River. This river is the largest affluent of the Yellow River, and the region it runs through is the perfect type of loess. In some places the river-bed is 600 feet deep in the loess, the sides terraced up field after field, and the wall-faces filled with caves inhabited by thousands of people.

The Wei basin is one of the original centres of civilization. It is the greatest agricultural country in the northwest of China, and here first population thickened, arts arose and flourished, conquests followed, tributary tribes and nations contributed from their scanty wealth, until at length a great empire rose, overshadowing this portion of the continent. It has had to pay dearly for its pre-eminence, having been again and again the scene of frightful revolutions, in which great part of the peaceful population would be swept away; Chinese wars, from time immemorial, being conducted on the most bloody and cruel principles. When taking a town or village in a country considered hostile, though no especial offence may have been given, the accepted rule is to kill everything living—men, women, babies, donkeys, dogs, and cats. In the longing for blood, no four-footed beast of prey equals the human tiger when once created by the license and impunity of barbarous warfare.

The Wei basin also has its seasons of famine, for the loess, so friendly to man in most respects, has one great drawback—it must have water. Without that it is an arid, surface-baked region. There are no springs in it, and the drinking-water in loess regions is drawn altogether from springs and brooks at the bottom of the ravines where the loess rests upon the original formation. As these ravines are deep, and the water, therefore, not available for irrigation, the crops depend entirely on rain. When a drought comes, therefore, the crops fail, and the effect is all the more severe because the ordinary production is so sufficient that there are no outside sources of supply available when need appears.

The Wei region possesses, in addition to its fertile properties, a commanding position strategically. The roads which centre at its capital not only reach east, west, and south in China, commanding the communication over mountain ranges between provinces, but strike out to the westward through Central Asia to the borders of Persia and the Caspian Sea. A remarkable wedge of productive and comparatively level land lies between the mountain ranges of Thibet and the Himalayas and the rough defiles of the broken border of the table-land of the Mongols, stretching 3,000 miles westward.

To quote again Baron Richthofen's words:

"Along the Nan-lu the fame of the Tsin dynasty spread to the Persians and Romans. Fourteen centuries afterwards, Marco Polo travelled on it on his way to the residence of Kublai Khan. The Chinese emperors were, at an early period of history, awake to the importance of the possession of this channel of international traffic, because it gave them the dominion of Central Asia. That portion between Lan-chau-fu and the Kia-yü-kwan gate (now within China) has for 2,000 years been defended with the utmost pertinacity, and not unfrequently at a great sacrifice." "In many epochs of its history the Chinese Empire was effectually locked up by closing that gate, and opening it expressly for those only who had permission to enter." "Since the time when the Emperor Hia-wu-ti, of the Han dynasty, nearly 2,000 years ago, first extended the supremacy of Chinese rule to the frontiers of India, Persia, and Bokhara, and, with the view of strengthening it, established Chinese colonies and Chinese high-roads, lined with cities, through the whole extent from Kansu to the far west, the tendency has prevailed to preserve those distant boundaries. Alternately, succeeding emperors had to relinquish their hold of the regions beyond the Kia-yü-kwan gate, and contrived to re-establish it; but at no time did they lose complete possession of the channel east of it. The present dynasty succeeded in establishing the rule in the far west firmer than any other before. Commercial relations were never more flourishing than when the Mohammedan rebellion broke out and the Chinese lost, in 1865, not only the whole of the Tien-shan Nanlu and Pelu (the two great western roads through the district described), but also the Kia-yü-kwan gate itself, and the whole portion of Kansu beyond Lan-chau-fu."

Kansu is the province of the northwest of Shense, and Lan-chau-fu is its capital. The Chinese, now using troops with foreign arms, and more or less habituated to foreign drill, have recovered Kansu, and will probably soon have repossessed themselves of the Kia-yü-kwan gate, if that be not already accomplished. Baron Richthofen thinks they will even recover the great western line of communication to Central Asia. Of this line he says, when speaking of railroads:

"Little doubt can exist that eventually China will be connected with Europe by rail. No direct connection of this kind is possible south of the Wei basin, and any road to the north of it would have to run altogether through desert countries. The same reasons which have confined the commerce of China with the far west during thousands of years to the natural road which I have described, will be decisive for the establishment of steam communication. It is a remarkable coincidence that this whole road is well provided with coal. Kansu is reported to rival Shanse in the richness and extent of its coal-fields. One intelligent informant, a native Catholic priest, who has travelled extensively in the Nanlu and Pelu (the great western line of roads), asserts that from Lan-chau-fu to Hami coal is used for domestic purposes at every station on the road, and that the same is true of the whole extent of the Pelu. The region which is supplied from a coal-mine in China by land transport alone does not exceed a radius of a hundred miles. If full credence is given to the statement, it follows that the coal formation must be assumed to exist, with few interruptions, through thirty degrees of longitude. There is scarcely an instance on record where so many favorable and essential conditions co-operate to concentrate all future intercourse on so long a line upon one single and definite channel."

Shense produces the best of the native opium, and it is one of the principal exports. Speaking of its cultivation, the Baron says:

"In the departments of Kien-chau and Fung-tsiang-fu (where it is cultivated), the lower portion of the loess basin consists of rolling ground, which is interrupted by a few deep gullies. The poppy is not cultivated on the top of the swelling ground, which is too dry; but every slope, however gentle its inclination, is terraced. Those terraces which are well shut in on two or three sides are selected for the poppy. I saw extensive fields cultivated with it, and in some portions of the country it formed the most conspicuous winter crop next to wheat. In this case the poppy takes the place of an ordinary and uncertain crop of wheat, peas, beans, or rapeseed, and, as opium is a much more valuable crop than these, and is largely exported, its planting is perfectly justified from the standpoint of common economy. The area of the fields planted with poppy will rather increase than decrease. As regards the attempts on the part of the Government to check its cultivation, it appears that no power would be able to stop now the production of a narcotic for which the people have attained a craving. They are unanimous in the accusation that the mandarins were the first in every province to smoke opium, and that the greatest relative number of smokers is still found in the official residences. If the mandarins attempted to suppress it, the people would revolt. An instance was related to me in the district of Ping-yang-fu, which produces much opium. An extra tax of 400 cash is there levied on every mow of land planted with the poppy (about two dollars an acre). In 1870 the money was not paid. Before harvest time, the district mandarin sent out his men, and had the pods of all the poppy plants cut off. In the following year, the tax remaining unpaid, the soldiers returned to repeat the destruction; but the people of the whole district made armed resistance, and drove them off. They then collected their opium without paying any duties."

Wheat is the staple agricultural product, and that, with cotton and opium,

the principal exports to other provinces. Si-gnan-fu, the capital, was preserved from the Mohammedan rebels by its high and strong walls. It is a place of great trade, where converge the great roads which reach "to the ends of the earth" on either hand. Since 1100 years before Christ it has been a famous city, and from that period to 1130 years after Christ it was the seat of empire, and during a portion of that time the seat of empire of China was the capital of half of Asia.

"Around Si-ngan-fu there are constantly dug up from the soil not only curious coins of various of the ancient dynasties, but bronzes which date from the first Chou dynasty (1100 to 250 B.C.), and are not surpassed in taste and finish by the productions of later periods."

And quoting from Dr. Williams's account of the Tang dynasty:

"During the 287 years they held the throne (618 to 905 A.C.), China was probably the most civilized country on earth, and the darkest days of the West formed the brightest period of the East."

The road into Southern Shense crosses the Tsing-ling-shan, and was made for military purposes about 1,600 years ago. Previously there was no communication with the southwest except by circuitous and distant routes. From Si-gnan-fu to Han-chung-fu, the principal city of South Shense, the distance is about 300 miles, of which 150 is over a double range of mountains which Baron Richthofen describes as of extraordinary character and most difficult of access. His description is too long for an extract, but the principal feature is that the whole region is a collection of rugged and precipitous summits, with deep, naked ravines between "a perfect sea of rugged summits and crests." The road winds through the wildest gorges, creeping up the sides of precipices, sometimes hewn in the rock, sometimes supported on lateral poles covered with planks. Crossing the beautiful valley of the Upper Han, the traveller again entered upon a mountain road, the continuation of the other, and carrying communication to Szr-chwan. This portion of the road is even more celebrated than the other. It is also about 300 miles long, reckoning from Han-chung-fu to Ching-tu-fu, in the heart of Szr-chwan. A little over 100 of these are through the mountains. The road was made over 2,000 years ago, and in a foot-note Baron Richthofen gives the following legendary account of its construction. Szr-chwan was then a separate country, inhabited by the aborigines called Man-tse. When the Chinese Emperor reached the range of mountains which separates it from Southern Shense, he found it impassable, and resorted to artifice to gain a passage:

"He offered relations of amity to the King of the Man-tse, and, in token of friendship, well knowing the avaricious character of that prince, offered him two cows which had the remarkable faculty of converting in their stomachs common food into pure gold, having previously taken care that the fame of the wonderful animals should spread and reach the ear of the King. Five delegates were sent to receive the costly present, but, on their arrival at the Emperor's court, were given to understand that the animals, requiring the greatest care, could only walk on well-constructed roads, and must cross rivers on bridges. The Man-tse King then constructed the fine road which exists to this day. The Chinese Emperor entered the country with his army, and took possession of it."

MONTALEMBERT'S SUCCESSOR IN THE FRENCH ACADEMY.

PARIS, April 11, 1873.

I FEEL very keenly my inability to describe to you the reception of the Duc d'Aumale at the French Academy, which took place on the 3d of April. I have already once tried to give you an idea of these literary field-days; but on this occasion the literary interest was, as it were, half absorbed in the political features of the spectacle. There was something very suggestive in the presence of a son of Louis Philippe standing in his green uniform of an Immortal, between those two other Immortals, M. Guizot and M. Thiers. As a young child is presented to the Christian world by a godfather and a godmother, a new, gushing Academician is thought to require the support of two patrons. Before this trio, one might well have remembered that charming verse of Racine which he places in the mouth of a lover:

"J'oublie en vous voyant ce que je viens vous dire."

Only it was what the Duke had to say that I sometimes forgot while I was looking at him and his two neighbors. To be sure, the speech was not quite new to me, for I had been admitted with a very small number of people to the honor of a first rehearsal, so I allowed myself sometimes more than I ought perhaps to have done to look upon the noble, eagle-like features of M. Guizot, and upon the wiry, caustic, sardonic face of M. Thiers. Here was the man who, when the barricades of July, 1830, were still erect, ran to Neuilly and pressed the Duke of Orleans to accept the crown, and to throw himself at once in the way of the Republic, now become the President of another French Republic—the Prince once courted by him at the Tuileries, now a mere citizen, not only in the republic of letters, but in M. Thiers's Republic. M. Guizot seemed more like a remnant of a past age. He lives no longer in the present, he can still look on the Duc d'Aumale with the same eyes as at the time when he greeted him on his return from Africa. But M. Thiers is the present; he has attempted to mould plastic France into new moulds. I tried to fathom his feelings, while the Duke spoke with a clear, military voice, and every time the audience applauded some delicate or chivalrous sentiment.

I could not help remembering a curious passage of Chateaubriand's 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe' on M. Thiers, written many years ago, and which I found by chance in looking through those volumes, which, to me, are the most interesting of Chateaubriand's works. The picture of Thiers is quite an elaborate one, and I will only give a few passages: "M. Thiers is the only man whom the Revolution of July has produced. He has founded the school which admires the Terror. . . . Does M. Thiers care for principles? Not in the least. He has vaunted massacres, and he would preach humanitarianism in just as edifying a manner; he has given himself out as a fanatic of liberty, and he has oppressed Lyons, shot in the Rue Transnonain, and defended the laws of September against the press. If ever he reads this, he will take it for a eulogium." What would not Chateaubriand have said after the Commune? What was the Rue Transnonain to Belleville? In one sense, however, Chateaubriand is unjust, as the best lover of liberty is obliged to defend order. Further on Chateaubriand says: "M. Thiers can do any of these three things—declare himself the representative of a republican future, or sit on the Monarchy of July like a monkey on a camel's back, or restore the Empire. This last solution would be more after M. Thiers's taste: but the Empire without the Emperor—is it possible?" This was written in 1837, at the time when M. Thiers began to glorify the first Napoleon. He has since been sitting, as Chateaubriand says, on the camel's back, and now he is the representative of a republican future. He has, chameleon-like, taken on successively all the colors of the French political rainbow. But I must make one more citation, though it begins by a cruel allusion to the treacherous arrest of the Duchess of Berry in the Vendée:

"Deutz and Judas aside [Deutz was the Jew who sold to M. Thiers the secret of the Duchess's concealment], I recognize in M. Thiers a supple spirit, prompt, fine, malleable, *probably an heir of the future*, who understands everything except the greatness which issues from the moral order; without jealousy, without smallness, and without prejudice, he stands out in relief against the obscure background of the mediocrities of the time. His excessive pride is not odious, as it does not consist solely in the contempt of others. M. Thiers has great resources, variety, happy faculties; he is little embarrassed by differences of opinion, is not vindictive, is not afraid of being compromised, renders justice to a man not for his probity or for what he thinks, but for what he is worth—which would not hinder him from strangling us all in case of need. M. Thiers is not yet what he can become; years will modify him, if the inflation of his self-love allows it. If his brain remains solid, and he is not carried away by a *coup de tête*, the affairs of state will reveal in him an unexpected superiority. He must promptly increase or decrease; there are chances that he will become a great minister or remain a *brouillon*."

Chateaubriand had a great depth of perception, and, notwithstanding his tremendous vanity, he could be just. His judgment of Thiers is certainly remarkable and almost prophetic. The brain of M. Thiers has remained solid; a forest of short vertical white hair still covers it as thick as in the days of his youth; there is hardly a wrinkle in his glassy forehead, as yellow as wax; his penetrating eye shoots glances even through a pair of spectacles; there is a terrible solidity in the jaws, in the curves of the mouth and of the chin.

In the evening, after the reception of the Duc d'Aumale at the Academy, the President was conversing on the subject with a deputy of the Department of the Aude. This deputy complimented him on having had such a distinguished godchild. "Yes," said M. Thiers; "he made a very good speech, and before a very interesting and distinguished audience. This sort of audience is very reserved, remarkably reserved. The Duke made one or two allusions to his ancestors, to the monarchy, and there was little applause; there was also an allusion to the Holy Father, and there was almost no applause. There was hearty applause only when, alluding to me, he called me a courageous pilot skilled in steering the ship of state. That was very well said; and then, it is just what the country wants: no more kings and princes—pilots, pilots, pilots." He repeated the word three times with his silvery-harsh little voice.

The audience was truly brilliant at the Academy on the 3d of April; and though I had already seen many receptions, I don't remember having seen such a profusion of great names, of elegance, and of beauty. The whole family of Orleans was present, as well as the Montalembert and Mérode families, as Madame de Montalembert was a Mérode. It is the custom for all the members of the family of the Academician whose eulogium is pronounced to be in mourning. Madame de Montalembert, who is an invalid,

had come on purpose from the south, and she was in one of four tribunes which are reserved for the most important persons present.

Two days after his reception, the Duc d'Aumale gave a dinner to the Immortals. He tried, on this occasion, to revive a fashion which had been set by the Chancellor Pasquier, who received the Academy at dinner after each reception. Many were absent. Victor Hugo is at Jersey, Emile Ollivier is in Italy; he has not yet been *received*, and his reception is postponed *sine die*. M. Thiers had promised to come; but at the last moment he excused himself by a telegram: the affairs of the state kept him at Versailles. M. de Rémusat was suffering from a slight indisposition; M. Jules Favre, Octave Feuillet, the Empress Eugénie's favorite novelist, Jules Sandeau, who was also a guest at Compiègne, and a few others, were suffering from what I might call a political indisposition. Passions still run so high that even in the Olympus of the Immortals there is no peace.

Academical dinners of the old Chancellor Pasquier, which were kept up till he died, were in their time very famous. Poor Alfred de Musset was once a victim of them. He was notoriously shy, and never accepted any invitations. He lived a solitary life, lounging for whole days on the Quai Voltaire before the book and engraving stores, or in some dingy coffee-house. He took to drinking when he was still young, and it is said that some of his finest compositions, such as *Rolla*, were written under the morbid influence of absinthe; this was his favorite drink. On the day of his reception into the Academy, he prepared himself with his ordinary beverage for the emotions of the day. It was a perfect martyrdom for him to make his appearance in uniform before a number of people, and to deliver a speech which he himself pronounced a series of platitudes. All went on well, however; his voice trembled a little, but he went through the long agony with as good an attitude as could be hoped from one who was so morbidly timid. In the evening he went with his colleagues to dine at the Chancellor's, and there the poor man, already overpowered with his emotions, and helped with wines of all kinds, finally entered that stage of thought when even timidity vanishes. He became a little convivial, and almost gay. When coffee was offered to him by a magnificent servant in livery, he noticed that his cup was only half filled. "Fill it all," said he to the servant. The servant filled it, but was careful not to make the coffee overflow. "What!" said Musset, "don't you give the *bain de pied* here?" The *bain de pied*, or foot-bath, is the overflow of the coffee in the saucer on which the cup is placed. In the *cafés* of the Quartier Latin and all the popular *cafés*, this "foot-bath" is always added to the portion, and is considered as his due by every customer. Poor Musset had his *bain de pied* at the Chancellor's, but he was never again invited there, and I think that this was the last Academical dinner given by the last man who bore in France the antique title of Chancellor.

It was the Duc d'Aumale's intention to revive an old custom, but on the first trial he could bring together only twenty-six out of the forty Immortals. Politics have invaded everything, and, in a certain way, spoiled everything. I have said very little, I find, as I approach the end of my letter, of the speeches made at the Academy, or of Montalembert; but I think that a speech is essentially made to speak for itself. The eulogium of Montalembert can hardly be well analyzed, as its principal merit consists in a great delicacy of touch, elegance, and in an easy manner of walking, with good grace and without any apparent pain or effort, over burning ground.

Notes.

PART VIII. of Spruner's 'Hand-Atlas für die Geschichte des Mittelalters und der neueren Zeit' (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) contains the map of Southwestern Germany also to be found in the last number of Petermann's *Mittheilungen*; besides this, one of Germany in the time of Frederic the Great—in fact, 1742–1803—with a score of plans of famous battles from 1741 to 1760; and one of Germany, 1815 to 1866, accompanied by smaller maps of the seat of war in Schleswig-Holstein (1864), in Bohemia (1866), the field of Königgrätz, the Zollverein before 1833 and before and after 1841, etc.——A timely map—roads east of the Caspian leading to Khiva—appears in No. 43 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* (New York: L. W. Schmidt), with descriptive text by F. Marthe.——Part V., completing Volume IV. of the Proceedings of the California Academy of Sciences, embraces the interesting conferences of Mr. William H. Dall on his return from Unalashka; of Prof. Agassiz on the arrival of the *Hassler* at San Francisco; and of the bogus Arctic explorer, M. Pavy. The account of the discovery of a true though not a typical glacier on Mt. Lyell is new to us, and new to most readers will probably be the evidence afforded on p. 233 of the former use of the boomerang by the Indians in the vicinity of Los Angeles. This weapon, a picture of which is given, is rarely met with. Dr. James Blake, in support of the thesis that "the earliest traces of man's existence on the earth have been found in this country," adduces not only the disputed Table Mountain skull, but two serpentine sinkers of primitive make, found buried eight feet below the surface, within a few feet of the summit of the coast range, or 1730 feet above the sea. Perhaps a still older art relic is the "medicine" (?) carving of a fish, in slate, found at Turkey Hill, Ipswich, and described by Mr. F. W. Putnam in the Bulletin of the Essex Institute (Vol. IV., No. 11). Mr. Putnam, by the way, has reprinted by itself his paper on "Mounds at Merom and Hutsonville on the Wabash," from the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History (Naturalists' Agency, Salem).——We made last week a very absurd blunder in trying to give the name of the late editor of *Notes and Queries*, Mr. William J. Thoms.

—Messrs. Holt & Williams, we are glad to learn, will shortly republish in this country Mr. Fitzjames Stephen's work on 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity,' which originally appeared during the past winter in letters in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. Mr. Stephen has recently returned from India, where he passed a few years as the successor of Sir Henry Maine—the author of 'Ancient Law'—in the office of Legislative Member of the Council, and has made some very important and valuable additions to Indian jurisprudence. He is now again in active practice at the English bar, and it is a striking illustration of the exuberance of vigor with which so many English professional men are gifted that he should have been for years, as is well known, a frequent contributor to the *Pall Mall Gazette*, furnishing in particular a large number, if not all, of the striking pieces of speculation on ethical and ecclesiastical questions which have formed so remarkable a feature of the contents of that paper. As an intellectual athlete, we doubt if any English writer of the present day can be compared to him, or has furnished more impressive examples of dialectical strength. He is, however, not always discreet or merciful, and many of his excursions among the Sentimentalists have been marked by deeds of great barbarity. The present work was suggested by and indeed may be called a reply to Mr. Mill's 'Liberty,' and contains one of the most thorough overhaulings of the moral, religious, and political bases of society which they have recently received. That his philosophy of life is in some respects unsound, we think it would not be difficult to show, but everybody who wants to see all the recent attempts to set things right analyzed by a master-hand, and in English which stirs the blood, will have a great treat in reading him.

—Messrs. Scribner, Welford & Armstrong have received the first volume of the new edition of Burton's 'History of Scotland,' and have made arrangements to keep it regularly on hand for the American public. The new edition is to be completely revised in eight volumes; many parts of it, it would appear, wholly rewritten. In this way whatever discrepancies may have arisen from the order in which the several volumes of the original edition appeared—the last period first—will no doubt be removed. The present volume comes down to the captivity of William the Lion and the treaty of Falaise, A.D. 1174, by which Scotland submitted definitively to the feudal sovereignty of England. The treatment of this early period is eminently cautious and well balanced. Mr. Burton has sifted thoroughly all the great controverted questions, and presents the opposing arguments with great fairness and perspicacity; but he is in no haste to commit his own judgment, and in general, where it is possible, is inclined to take a moderate, middle ground between opposing views. A distinguishing feature is the attention paid to archæological points—as well to prehistoric archæology as to the Roman remains. Ecclesiastical relations also receive a large share of his attention; but one is surprised to find no general sketch of the geography of Scotland. As this work has now an established rank as the best history of Scotland, the new edition will undoubtedly find many purchasers and readers in this country.

—Dr. Woolsey, of Yale College, has an article on the Treaty of Washington in 1871 in the April *New Englander*, which is a very interesting contribution to the literature of the subject. What he says about the indirect claims is especially worthy of attention. He concludes that the belief of the British Commissioners that these claims were to be excluded from the consideration of the arbitrators was the result of a misunderstanding, the testimony of the American negotiators being very direct and explicit on the other side. But he goes further and says he does not think the British view was authorized by the protocol; that is, that what the American negotiators meant by an "amicable settlement" must have been "a settlement within the Board of Commissioners," and not a settlement before a board of arbitrators. This interpretation has always seemed to us a very strained one. It would have a probable air if the alternative presented to the Commissioners was the one which presents itself to two disputants in private life—settlement by compromise or by a lawsuit. We can under-

stand their thinking of an appeal to the courts as a hostile proceeding, because this is the last argument of the citizen; but that the representatives of two nations trying to remove what, according to the settled practice of mankind, was fair cause for a bloody war, should have considered nothing but off-hand agreement at their first meeting an "amicable settlement," and should have deliberately refused that appellation to decision by a board of arbitrators, it is difficult to believe. Dr. Woolsey makes it all the more difficult by his assertion, after a calm review of the case, that the mention of indirect losses in the case "seems either to have been an afterthought or to have been kept back until toward the end of the preparations for the Tribunal at Geneva," inasmuch as no mention is made of them in the confidential memorandum submitted to our Commissioners by the State Department, and inasmuch as, according to Mr. Bancroft Davis's report, although the first five chapters of the case were sent to several persons for examination and remark, the sixth chapter, in which alone the mention of these claims is made, "was not sent out for criticism as the others had been." Consequently, Dr. Woolsey concludes "that at the eleventh hour it had been resolved to call in the auxiliary forces of indirect losses, and make a grand attack on the enemy's flank as well as front." We greatly fear the curious bit of hermeneutics about the phrase "amicable settlement" was called in also in the middle of the twelfth hour, to give the flank attack a decent appearance. Dr. Woolsey suggests as a list of injuries not calling for compensation as between nations: (1) those which the negligent party could not have foreseen; (2) those of which the negligence was only one of many causes; and he considers all damage computable and calling for compensation which could have been foreseen and prevented, was the effect of the cause alleged, and was an injury to property. He holds that the United States will receive the award as trustees, and will be bound in distributing it to respect the reasons which governed the Tribunal in fixing on the amount, and that the insurance companies are entitled to salvage, and not to compensation for losses in their business, confirming the opinions expressed on both these points in this journal, and differing widely from Mr. Ben Butler and his pupils.

—Dr. Ernst Ebermayer has written a work on the 'Physical Effects of Forests upon Atmosphere and Soil,' and those to whom the German original is not accessible may profitably go to a review of it in the *Academy* of April 15. The author is superintendent of the Forest School of Aschaffenburg, and has seven stations under his direction in Bavaria which were established in 1867. Five years of observations here and at a private station on the property of a nobleman in Bohemia are summed up in Dr. Ebermayer's treatise, and the following are some of his deductions. Forests tend to moderate the extremes of temperature, and so to render the climate less severe. A free water surface within a forest evaporates 64 per cent. less than in the open, partly because less exposed to the winds; a forest soil will evaporate (if cleared of brushwood, etc.) only 38 cubic inches of water, or (if uncleared, with the leaves and undergrowth remaining) only 15 cubic inches, against 100 evaporated from the open soil. Herein evidently lies the chief secret of the drying up of springs and water-courses attendant upon the destruction of forests. Land from which the timber has been entirely felled loses a potent means of drainage, and often becomes swampy till replanted; and, on the other hand, overdrainage of land may seriously retard the growth of trees already standing. Dr. Ebermayer does not find that forests increase the rainfall of a country so much as has been ascribed to them. The actual amount of rain collected on the ground of a forest is about three-fourths of that which falls on the cleared land outside. The branchage and foliage retain a portion of the moisture. Conifers retain more than deciduous trees, and the Scotch fir most of all.

—"J. C.," Zanesville, Ohio, writes us as follows: "The last-received number of the London *Athenæum* (April 5, 1873) contains a clever and interesting review of Dr. Wilson's new book, 'Caliban, the Missing Link.' The writer, having disposed of several matters therein, the 'Darwinian theory,' 'Caliban's island,' etc., refers to some textual criticism that the learned doctor makes on the play of the 'Tempest,' which he (the reviewer) 'commends to the reader, and takes an opportunity, before concluding, of adding one to the number.' He then, with a considerable flourish of trumpets, proceeds to bring forth his one emendation, 'to which he would draw special attention, because it is possibly new. If it is not so, he can only exclaim, *Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixerunt!*' Did he not know that by his malediction he was consigning to perdition the editor of the best-known and most celebrated edition of Shakespeare that we possess—the Variorum of 1821—and all other editors who have adopted this excellent text to print from? The principle on which he bases his correction is one well-known to students of Elizabethan literature, namely, the close similarity of the *o* and *e* in old manuscript, and the consequent confusion and mistakes arising from compositors reading one vowel for the other. After giving an instance from *Gower's* speech in 'Pericles' (act ii.)—'spoken' for 'speken'—which has been noticed by the editors, and remarked upon by Mr. Staunton in a recent letter on 'Unsuspected Corruptions,' he assumes that, by an error of this class, 'held' is misprinted for 'hold' in 'Henry VIII.,' act i., sc. iii., line 47 (Globe edition). Old *Lord Sands*, an excellent specimen of the brusque English gentleman, is rejoicing at a proclamation which remits to France several new fashions in dress and speech that English courtiers had recently introduced, and says:

> "'The devil fiddle 'em! I am glad they are going,
> For, sure, there's no converting of 'em: now
> An honest country lord, as I am, beaten
> A long time out of play, may bring his plain-song,
> And have an hour of hearing; and, by'r lady,
> *Held* current music, too.'

This is the text of the Folio, 1623, and of nearly every edition except that of the 1821 Variorum and those printed from it. In this edition Mr. Boswell prints 'Hold,' and in a note says 'Held' is the reading of the folio. Mr. S. W. Singer, also, in his valuable critical edition of 1856, prints 'Hold' with the Variorum, although in his first edition of 1826 he adheres to the folio. A late distinguished critic, Mr. W. N. Lettsom, also recommends the reception of 'Hold,' conceiving 'Held' to be a misprint (see Dyce's 2d Edition, 1864, vol. v., p. 578). The reviewer contends that good grammar requires 'Hold,' as we cannot say '*may held.*' Now, to say the least, this is very doubtful. *Lord Sands's* expression reads very well, and is an elliptical form of speech, a colloquialism, not uncommon in Shakespeare. Dyce gives an instance in the same play, act ii., sc. 1, where 'held for certain' occurs for '*it is* held for certain.' In the present case, 'have' of the previous line is carried forward in the mind, and the sense is, 'Now I may sing my 'good old song' in my plain, old-fashioned way, and have a respectful audience of an hour by my friends; ay, [have it] held, or [find it] held, current music, too.' This appears to me to give a better meaning than the Variorum, or Mr. Singer's text, or Mr. Lettsom's and the *Athenæum* reviewer's conjecture affords. In the latter case, '[may] hold current music, too,' would be only a repetition of the first clause of the sentence; while in the former, '[have it] or [find it] held current music, too,' gives an additional importance to the old gentleman's self-congratulation: he may not only be allowed to sing, but find his song applauded and recognized as 'good current' or fashionable music by the company. I may add that all the recent editors, Knight, Collier, White, Hudson, the Cambridge editors, Dyce, Halliwell, Clarke, Staunton, Keightley, and even Collier's MS. corrector, hold on to 'Held' of the folio, taking it to be not only the best reading, but yielding a simple and easy interpretation."

—M. Jules Favre has published a volume of literary lectures and addresses ('Conférences et discours littéraires'), with an introduction taking a very gloomy view of the French situation, the irreligion of his countrymen being in his eyes the chief evil. In the Commune he finds the logical product of the sort of atheism prevailing among the lower classes; and the state of more or less openly avowed atheism or indifference which characterizes all classes at the present day he appears to derive directly from the fatal lapse into Romanism of Henri IV. Here are his very words:

"Opening the annals of Europe, I encounter a memorable date which marks the point of departure of two opposing currents by which peoples are led either towards slavery or towards liberty. What would have come to pass if Henry of Navarre, thanks to his own valor and the poignard of a fanatical monk, victorious over his rivals, had not sacrificed his conscience to his interest by pronouncing his famous blasphemy: *Paris vaut bien une messe?* We may guess when, on the one hand, we see royalty and Rome, united in spite of their apparent quarrels, founding on the ruins of feudalism the most despotic power that ever existed in France; and, on the other, England, Germany, Holland, Sweden preserving and increasing the national franchise, encouraging free enquiry, and establishing their power on the independence and self-government (*initiative*) of their citizens. It is idle to repeat that the French genius did not lend itself to this moral and religious revolution; that the country owes to its pontiffs and its monarchs its glorious and brilliant unity. I do not believe a word of these convenient aphorisms employed by historians who excuse everything, or by statesmen who find their account in everything. And seeking in the very essence of our nature the reason of the facts which I am studying, I remain convinced that if France had embraced the cause of liberty, so far from reducing herself, she would have become, if not in material strength at least in ideas and institutions, the mistress and the model of all Europe."

—An esteemed correspondent in Switzerland sends us the fifth edition of Dr. Daniel Sanders's 'Condensed Dictionary of the Chief Difficulties in the German Language,' in the hope that we may bring this excellent work to the notice of such of our readers as have already made some progress in the study of German. We do so with great pleasure. This *Wörterbuch* consists of 188 pages 12mo, closely printed in double columns, but made extremely clear for reference not only by the methodical subdivision of each topic, but by the employment of type of various sizes, among which the eye soon learns

to discriminate. It gives us, subject to the alphabetical arrangement, the syntax and the idioms of the language, with abundant examples of the correct, disputed, and conflicting usages of the best writers; with here and there a comprehensive summary, such as: Declension of Adjectives; Feminine Nouns; Auxiliary Verbs; Classification of Verbs, etc., etc. Four pages are devoted to the indefinite article *ein* alone; while hardly ten suffice for the uses of *als* and *wie* in comparisons. And if any one thinks he has tolerably mastered the German, we commend him also to the articles on *all* and *lassen*. One of the most difficult subjects in any language is that of the proper preposition required by any given verb, verbal form, or adjective. Yet this has not been thought worth attention by our English lexicographers, except to a very limited extent, although we to whom the speech is natural are often at a loss to decide between what is right or permissible and the opposite, while foreigners are of course much more perplexed than ourselves. Here in Sanders, however, the word *aufnehmen* (to receive) is inserted for no other purpose than to illustrate the circumstances in which it is followed by *in, unter, bei,* and *auf*. But we think it unnecessary to explain further the aim of the *Wörterbuch*. It remains to add that, besides the specific reference to passages in the works of the great writers, the author constantly refers to his large general dictionary of the German language.

—On March 12, an interesting discovery was made at Pompeii of a marble Venus, something over a metre in height, wanting only two of the fingers of the right hand; the hair is yellow or golden, the edges of the eyebrows dark. The chlamys which falls from the left shoulder, and covers the lower part of the body, is yellow on the outside, while the inturned portion of the drapery retains traces of blue and red. The left hand holds the Paris apple, and the left arm reposes on a smaller figure, in which the same colors are observable. It is feared that the colors will very soon be lost, as they have been from other antique statues, and there is no means known by which they may be preserved. The statue will find a place in the National Museum at Naples.

—The colossal statue of Arminius erected by the Germans to commemorate, near the scene itself, the defeat of Varus in the Teutoberger Wald, has, oddly enough, been thought to need a *Latin* epigraph. More oddly still, Prince Leopold of Lippe-Detmold, in whose territory the monument has been set up, has assigned the honor of composing the inscription to an *Italian* professor, Michele Ferrucci, his former preceptor, who, nothing loth, has composed the following verses:

Heic ubi romano rubuerunt sanguine valles,
Duxque datus terna cum legione neci,
Hostibus heic terror post saecula multa resurgo,
Vindex germani nominis Arminius.

MR. CUSHING ON THE TREATY OF WASHINGTON.*

AN intelligent American or English reader who commences the perusal of this long-heralded book with varied expectations of learning something new, will finish it with disappointment and perhaps with disgust. There are many matters connected with the Treaty of Washington, with its original conception, with the progress of its negotiation, and with its consummation at Geneva, which have never been explained to the outside world, and which would be interesting to the most indifferent observer—intensely so to the student of diplomacy. We might naturally suppose that Mr. Cushing was the man of all others to remove the veil and to communicate the knowledge. He possesses every advantage: he is familiar with the history of diplomacy and learned in the international law; he has long resided at Washington, and has been consulted by many successive governments and cabinets in the most important and secret affairs of foreign state relations; although not a "High Commissioner," he doubtless sat at the elbow of the Secretary of State, and furnished many of the facts and most of the law to that functionary and his subordinates; he was a leading counsel at Geneva; and, finally, he does not occupy, and has not occupied, such an official position as would necessarily require him to be reticent and guarded in his statement of facts and narration of events. Mr. Cushing evidently does not look upon himself as restrained by any present or past quasi-official character, or else his bitter and, in some respects, calumnious attack upon Sir Alexander Cockburn would have been a gross violation of decorum, requiring perhaps an explanation from the Government. Mr. Cushing plainly writes in the capacity of a private citizen, untrammelled by any existing or former relations with the State Department, and as such, from his own standpoint of honor and decorum, he was at liberty to tell us what he knew of the inside history of the Treaty of Washington. In fact, he has told us nothing of the sort. After a careful reading of the book—a reading commenced with the desire and design of learning and not of criticising—we make the assertion that not one fact is communicated with which the public had not been made familiar long ago by the ordinary newspaper correspondents; not the slightest information is given as to the real substance of transactions which had been exhibited to the world only in their outward forms; not a principle or doctrine of international law is stated; not an argument is used which had not been stated and used by the writers on the American side of the question, from the first despatches of Mr. Seward to the last article in a popular magazine. The book, as a contribution to the history of the great international diplomatic controversy—certainly the greatest diplomatic controversy of modern times, if not of all time—is simply worthless. But its design is plain upon the most careless reading. It was not intended to be a contribution to history: it was intended as a mere vehicle to contain and carry the personal attack upon the English Chief-Justice which forms its centre and substance, and is its only *raison d'être*. We will give but one illustration of our statement, but this single example shall be a crucial test.

It will be remembered that, after the assembling of the Tribunal at Geneva, the dispute between the two Governments respecting the so-called "indirect claims" was continued with *apparently* increasing bitterness and obstinacy; and it had reached the point that failure of the whole scheme of arbitration seemed not only possible but probable. With all of this outside show, it was plain to the careful observer that our own Government was anxious to retire from its position, if it could do so and preserve what it called its honor. The American people had repudiated the "indirect claims" upon principle, and their servants at Washington saw the mistake which had been made, and were really eager to abandon the position, if the retreat could be executed in good order. Thus the affair stood on the 15th of June, when the British Government asked an adjournment of the Arbitration for eight months, in order to allow time for further negotiation. The Tribunal adjourned to the 19th. On that day its President, Count Sclopis, made the announcement and declaration which was at once accepted by both Governments, and ended the controversy. In this declaration the arbitrators say that, "in respect of these claims [those styled 'indirect' in the American Case] they have arrived, individually and collectively, at the conclusion that these claims do not constitute, upon the principles of international law applicable to such cases, good foundation for the award of compensation or computation of damages between nations." Thus the Tribunal in effect decided the issue raised upon these claims upon its merits against the United States. To use the language of ordinary litigation, the United States had sued upon a certain cause of action called "indirect claims." Great Britain had put in two answers: one denying the jurisdiction of the Court to try the cause of action, and the other denying the validity of the cause of action on the merits. The British Government insisted upon the former defence with great pertinacity, and for one reason only, namely, to prevent an adverse decision on the second defence. The controversy upon the jurisdiction had no other significance than this. On the other hand, the United States, urging the validity of its cause of action, maintained as a matter of course the jurisdiction of the Court. All at once the judges, in an informal manner, but in reality by a true judgment, decide the second defence in favor of the British contention, and thus make a decision of the preliminary defence unnecessary. How was this remarkable transaction brought about? It can hardly be possible that the proceeding originated in the Tribunal, and was enforced upon the litigants. Each Government must have assented to the scheme before the formal act was gone through with at Geneva. Did not the Governments themselves invent the plan? And if so, which Secretary contrived the method by which the arbitrators and counsel at Geneva were to posture before the world, in order that the United States might not seem to have receded from its original position? These questions have been asked many times, both in England and in America, and as yet no answer to them has been given. Mr. Cushing could have answered them, and, judging by the freedom of treatment which he uses towards the English arbitrator, he could not have been restrained from answering them by any considerations of propriety or decorum. When we first opened the book, we eagerly turned to the pages indicated by the index on which this subject is mentioned, but our expectations were utterly disappointed. Here, as elsewhere, Mr. Cushing does not venture beyond the merest outside act and appearance which the newspapers had described with greater minuteness. He acknowledges that there were interior transactions, that he could tell us stories of extraordinary interest; and it is thus that he piques and disappoints our curiosity: "It will be taken for granted that, in the interval between the 15th and the 19th of June, communications by telegraph passed between the respective agents and their Governments, and consultations took place between the counsel of both sides and the respective agents, either orally or in writing, and, with more or less formality, among the arbitrators, the result of which was announced by Count Sclopis as follows,"

* 'The Treaty of Washington: Its Negotiation, Execution, and the Discussions relating thereto. By Caleb Cushing.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1873.

giving the decision already quoted from. This citation illustrates the whole book. Wherever we might expect information, wherever the interests of both nations had centred in some passage of the negotiations, wherever there was something which had hitherto been concealed under a flow of mere words and a display of mere forms, this book leaves us exactly where it found us, and goes no further below the surface of things than did the correspondents whose narrations preceded it.

As has been already remarked, this book was written with a single object: it was designed and executed as a means of attack and retaliation upon Sir Alexander Cockburn, the British arbitrator. Undoubtedly the provocation was great. The opinion delivered by Sir Alexander had none of the elements of a calm judicial decision. It was a heated partisan argument; it contained several allusions to the American counsel and to their statements of facts and processes of reasoning which were insulting to the last degree. And it now appears that these allusions were specially directed to those portions of the forensic work which had been performed by Mr. Cushing. We would not be understood as justifying the British arbitrator's official conduct in writing this opinion, nor as palliating the offence which he gave to the United States represented by its counsel and to the counsel personally. This judgment is the proper object of criticism, and there could be no more appropriate and able critic than Mr. Cushing. But there is in this book rather a personal attack upon the Chief-Justice as a man than a searching and severe analysis of his official work; and unfortunately, in some respects, the charges which it contains are not based upon a foundation of fact. We shall call attention to a few of these instances in which veracity has been sacrificed to rhetorical point, or has succumbed to prejudice and passion. On page 88 it is said: "With the devotion of a Dalgetty, he placed his lance at the service of a chief, regardless of the merits of the cause." The insinuation is that Chief-Justice Cockburn is or has been an unprincipled political adventurer, a trimmer ready to serve any party or leader for the sake of preferment. The exact opposite of this is the truth. If Sir Alexander Cockburn has one characteristic which is prominent above all others, it is his personal independence. Every person acquainted in the most superficial manner with modern British politics knows that to impute to him time-serving and trimming is to make a charge absurd in its incorrectness. Many recent occurrences well known to every intelligent reader, and notably the controversy with Mr. Gladstone and Lord Chancellor Hatherly over an instance of ministerial favoritism in judicial promotion, will illustrate Sir Alexander's independence and self-reliance. Remembering the position which Mr. Cushing once held as a trusted leader of the Democratic party, and observing how he has employed his great learning and ability at Washington through several successive administrations, we should hardly have supposed that he would venture to use the comparison of an antagonist with Dugald Dalgetty to point an invective.

Again, on page 89 it is said: "When it was proposed to arraign Nelson and Brand as criminals in England for acts committed in Jamaica under proclamation of martial law, Sir Alexander Cockburn delivered a voluminous charge to the grand jury, which he afterwards published with additions and notes; notwithstanding the partiality and the urgency of which, the grand jury refused to find a bill; and it must be confessed that, as a charge, it was passionate, vague, declamatory, and confused; and as an exposition of law it is valueless when compared with the treatise of Mr. Whiting, in America, on the same subject." Two pages of criticism follow this extract. We must confess ourselves astounded at this particular attack. One would have thought that, to an American, to a citizen of a country in which the safeguards of personal liberty lie at the very foundations of the whole civil polity, the position which the Chief-Justice assumed in this celebrated charge, his outspoken denunciation of tyranny clothed with petty official authority and shielded by class prejudices and by the selfishness of moneyed and trading interests, and his zealous endeavors to protect and avenge the weak and humble, would have seemed deserving of high praise, and would have in some measure condoned the offences committed by him at Geneva. Is it possible that the influences at Washington have the effect to destroy the notions of individual liberty which were once the distinction and the pride of Anglo-Saxons on both sides of the Atlantic? A local outbreak in Jamaica had been dignified by the name of an insurrection, and had been put down by the military in such a manner as aroused a deep feeling of indignation among all true English Liberals. An attempt was made to bring the colonial governor and his subordinates to justice in Parliament. The Tories opposed as a matter of course; the Liberal Government made no movement, and the matter necessarily dropped. Chief-Justice Cockburn then delivered the charge in question to a London grand jury. It failed because the same mercantile spirit which enlisted itself on the side of the South for fear the cotton trade would be lost, was deaf to the claims of personal liberty and individual rights, which might come in conflict with the gains derived from Jamaica plantations. Mr. Cushing declares that the Chief-Justice's charge, "as an exposition of the law, is valueless, when compared with the treatise of Mr. Whiting on the same subject." We are familiar with the "treatise of Mr. Whiting." It is a collection of all the departmental orders and all the sophistical arguments which upheld the legality of arbitrary arrests and of military tribunals for the trial of civilians; which explained away all the stern prohibitions of the Constitution; and which were themselves brushed aside by the unanimous decision of the Supreme Court. It is a treatise which any European ruler meditating a *coup d'état* in the interests of imperialism might even adopt as a convenient text-book, but which in a constitutional government should be placed in a political index expurgatorius. Compared with it, Chief-Justice Cockburn's charge is like the breath of fresh air from the clear mountain-tops sweeping down into the enervating atmosphere of a malaria-stricken valley.

Finally, Mr. Cushing conveys the impression that the British Government itself has repudiated Sir Alexander Cockburn's opinion and conduct at Geneva as unnecessary and mischievous. This is a grave error of fact. It is true that immediately after the final decision Mr. Lowe, in some public address to his constituents, intimated that it would have been as well if Sir Alexander had voted in silence. Since that time, however, the opinion of the English people has been ascertained; this opinion has reacted upon Parliament, and the Chief-Justice is now sustained by the popular voice and by the leaders of both the great political parties. On the night of the 21st of March, the House of Commons debated a motion of Mr. Hardy, which involved the interpretation given to the "Three Rules" by the Tribunal of Arbitration. All the prominent speakers of both parties were in full accord as to the necessity of Governmental action protesting against the Tribunal's interpretation, and the only difference of opinion was as to the proper time for moving in the matter. In this debate, the action of the Chief-Justice was approved by all the representative speakers who addressed the House, by the Government, and by the Opposition. We have thus called attention to some of Mr. Cushing's errors of fact in his dealing with the British arbitrator; they plainly serve to weaken his case by drawing attention from the main issue, from a just and proper criticism of that arbitrator's judgment to immaterial questions and controversies.

Mr. Cushing is very naturally satisfied with the results of the Treaty and of the arbitration; in his view, they are stupendous triumphs of American diplomacy and statesmanship. In an especial manner he urges—and he does this the more emphatically because of the adverse opinion—that, by the adoption of the "Three Rules," and by the construction procured to be put upon them, the United States has not assumed any additional or unnecessary burdens, has not increased its neutral duties nor abridged its neutral rights. Congress, he says, among other things, always had the power to pass a neutrality law, and in fact did long ago pass such a statute, which contemplates exactly the same acts and duties on the part of the Government as those required by the Treaty. We have not the time nor the space in which to examine Mr. Cushing's statement of fact and of theory in detail. The *Nation* has fully discussed this particular subject, and has expressed its opinion in no reserved or doubtful manner. The book under review does not attempt to answer the course of reasoning by which that conclusion was reached, and we shall certainly not go over the ground again. But it may be proper to explain the exact point in issue. Certain neutral duties always rested upon the United States as well as upon every other nation. We may assume that these duties, although somewhat undefined, were accurately summed up and sharply set forth in the "Three Rules." Congress had long ago acknowledged the existence of these duties by passing the Neutrality or Foreign Enlistment Act. Now we might concede that thus far no greater burden of obligation had been placed upon the country; although we make this concession simply as a matter of present argument, because the Three Rules, in fact, go far beyond the requirements of the Neutrality Act, and the very change of form—from the elastic unwritten to the fixed and statutory clauses of the Treaty — is itself an increase of liability. Upon these Three Rules the Tribunal of Arbitration has placed a construction which the American counsel vehemently advocated, and which the British as strenuously opposed. This construction explicitly contains and sets forth the following propositions of universal law: (1) absolute international duties rest upon the neutral, independent of any provisions of its own municipal law; (2) its own municipal law is not, and cannot be, the criterion and measure of these duties; (3) "due diligence" spoken of in the rules is a variable quantity, and *depends upon the necessities of the belligerent.* All these propositions were maintained by the United States, and, having been accepted at our instigation, we shall be bound by them in future. It is simply absurd, it is a foolish denial of the plainest truth, to say that these propositions do not increase our neutral duties and burdens. Indeed, it has

been well said that if the last of the series passes into the general code of the International Law, it will be safer for a weak maritime neutral to take sides in any war and become a belligerent, than to remain a neutral and be subject to the reclamations which would flow from this rule. On the night of the 21st of March, Mr. Hardy moved an address to the Crown, praying that in bringing the Three Rules to the notice of foreign powers, as required by the Treaty, Her Majesty would express her dissent from the construction placed upon them by the arbitrators. There was no attempt to impeach the rules themselves nor the Treaty. It may be remarked in passing that if Mr. Cushing's argument is correct, the British Parliament has nothing to complain of, for it has recently passed an amended neutrality act which contains some provisions far more stringent than any in our own. The debate on this motion was interesting and instructive. Every one admitted that the reasoning of the Arbitration was wrong, however correct the decision might be. Some thought that this reasoning was merely *obiter*, and of no binding character; others that it was the *ratio decidendi*, and constituted the essence of the precedent. All agreed that in the proper time the subject of the motion should be attended to.

We have a single suggestion to make, based upon this debate. The decision has been made in our favor, either by means of, or independently of, the construction put upon the Three Rules by the Tribunal. Hereafter this construction, and the practical consequences which flow from it, must weigh heavily against us, and create burdens which some time it will be difficult to bear. We have no *material* interest in retaining this construction. No other nation but Great Britain has any interest in the Treaty, and Great Britain is anxious that we should join her in rejecting the interpretation given by the arbitrators. We suggest that the invitation should be accepted. It would be statesmanship to accept it. Must we insist upon maintaining a rule of law which will operate against us hereafter, simply because we procured the court to decide it and apply it in our favor *now*, especially when the adverse litigant, while fully recognizing the validity of the present judgment, is willing to abandon the advantage which he might have in future? Were it not for the spirit of exultation over the result shown in all the official reports and proceedings of the State Department, and in this publication of Mr. Cushing, we should expect, as a matter of course, that the proposal now made in the British Parliament would be eagerly adopted by our Government, and that the old American doctrine of neutral rights would again become a favorite with the Administration, and be upheld in all diplomatic negotiations. We do not, however, anticipate any such wise and statesmanlike course.

Fine Arts.

AN INFIRMARY OF OLD MASTERS.

THE collector of antiques treads a path full of snares, and though he is usually sustained by a good deal of the martyr's self-complacency, yet that cannot always be proof against the public scepticism and the compassionate civility of friends, while his own doubts, which he may never divulge to the world, must give him terrible moments in private. A collection of three hundred pictures, illustrating the oil-painting art from the time of its paternity in Jan Van Eyck, has been arranged and exhibited for a charity at the German Savings-bank in Union Square. We have been given no reasons for doubting the good faith of the scheme, and prefer, until better informed, to take the theory of the management, namely, that a private gentleman of means and culture is exposing to us the fruits of a lifelong hobby for collecting. This connoisseur, Mr. Louis Durr, after a tedious history of his antiquarian bargains and discoveries, after many a laborious washing-day spent in purifying his canvases, and after repeated comparisons in the European galleries, at last finds his museum in a shape for publicity. That some of his titles are guesses, that some of his originals may have to be degraded into copies, is likely enough, but at least there are illustrations of the styles characterizing almost all the great painters. For our own part we have found good and probable pictures enough to make our visits entertaining, and we had rather dwell on such as have pleased us than on such as our faith is as yet too weak to bear.

The study of old masters contains two elements which it is sometimes well to discriminate. There is the antiquarian element, and there is the artistic element. In the expert's mind they are apt to be much confused; a ruined Leonardo is far more valuable than a perfect Luini, though the latter contains better food for the taste. It requires great courage to say it, but we sometimes suspect that a Leonardo is admirable because it is a good picture, and not because it is a Leonardo. We own to some sympathy with the fearless artistic person who can move through a gallery, and lay his finger on the works that please him for certain qualities that they have, and can tell plainly what those qualities are, without distressing himself too much over the little paragraph in the catalogue which gives a picture's pedigree. There is something to be said for the imperturbable heretic who can enjoy a good thing whether it is proved a Correggiosity or not. Now, here is a gallery where the visitor, if he is skilled in telling good art from bad, may rove without trammel, finding out his affinities, and detecting excellences, with full liberty to change one artist's name for another whenever his study of the subject is deeper than the study of Mr. Durr. There is a fine canvas present, for instance, which we claim the privilege of admiring before we can decide whether it is by Ribera or Zurbaran. It is that with the half-length figure, No. 231, where, in a dusky Spanish glow of an impressive kind, is shown an old man half nude in his rags, who points with his compasses to a problem of Euclid's. The geometer has a thought-worn face, ugly and fascinating, something between Socrates and Michael Angelo; the drawing, whether of head, hands, or draperies, is finished and close; the tone, something warm for Zurbaran perhaps, rapidly deepens into fathomless shadows of the Spagnoletto kind. Whoever painted this genuine piece of art and character surely did a good work. Near by, however, hangs a large piece of pretence, brought from some church in Mexico, whose composition and motive resemble some of the groups of Spagnoletto, but whose touch is niggling and timid; we may suppose it to be a true Ribera of an early period, or, more probably, a copy for colonial use from some original hard to trace. What we wish to point out is the fact that such a picture may be better than the proof-engravings we amass sometimes, if even its authenticity cannot be proved, for the sincere study of a certain Spanish style. There are two compositions apparently painted or inspired by Murillo. One, a small sketch of the famous "Immaculate Conception," it is easy to call a copy, though that theory hardly accounts for its being so sketchy at once and so broadly good, nor for the eyes of the Virgin being lowered instead of elevated in the rapture so familiar to us. The other represents a king, surrounded by various figures, receiving a parchment from the Madonna; the lighting and arrangement are quite characteristic of Murillo, and one of the assistants resembles him in face; the grouping has a kind of affinity with the well-known specimen in Paris, where angels cook the dinner for a holy priest. In this rich painting, with its lights rolling around a focus like illuminated clouds about the sun, with its stately figures and mobile draperies, we venture to point out a canvas capable of yielding the kind of enjoyment proper to a work of Murillo's; it is numbered 225, and the finely imagined king in the foreground has been designated as Saint Ferdinand I., monarch of Castile, receiving from Our Lady the Code *de las Partidas*. A sketch of Saint Sebastian amongst his tormentors, strongly suggestive of Tintoretto, shows the graceful young saint in strong light like an Apollo; around him are the bold, unexpected groupings, in the style for which old Robusti would be no man's debtor, including his favorite female figure leaning around a pillar; all over the tumult there passes, windlike, that sense of life and impetuosity which is Tintoretto's gift, and which makes us sometimes fear to wink before his compositions, lest the rushing forms should pass out of the tableau; here, again, we think we find a study which, whether original or not, affords much of the instruction to be had in a real *motif* of the master's. A strong, crisp, clever dash at a Pietà has the characteristics of Annibale Carracci, to whom it is assigned; it is on copper, and is an able sketch from one of the eclectic schools, to whomsoever attributable. Close to the "Murillos," a "Supper at Emmaus," resembling but also differing from Veronese's treatment of the subject in the Louvre picture, seems to us a careful copy of some replica; but certain parts, as the Christ and the foremost disciple, are particularly good, and well interpret the fresh, healthy, ornate sentiment of that grand Venetian. A great decoration by Luca Giordano, signed, seems to us genuine, partly because it is not apparently worth copying: a romantic, graceful Paris, eligible cicisbeo for a goddess, hands the apple to a tiny-footed Venus, amidst the remaining contestants and some spectators; one of these, a river-god in a corner, makes a fine sketch, his white hair and beard spouting as cascades, and jets running from his eyes and lips. The picture contains shocking drawing, of which Fa Presto was perfectly capable on occasions, while he was, as Taine declares in his 'Italy,' a born child of the artistic race, hesitating between miracle-worker and sloven. In his case history yields us a parable of a new type, the Prodigal Father; and, regarding this clever performance mitigated by haste, we seem to see the spendthrift parent bending over and applying the goad to talent, that its greedy extravagance may be ministered unto.

Two heads by Philippe de Champagne, a Madonna and a Gabriel, are sufficiently impressed with his pale, false elegance; a portrait by Rigaud, the very inadequate "Vandyck" of France, has enough of his pretentious flutter and his academic correctness to be accepted; two female heads, labelled Greuze, are most limp and halting copies; a composition of cherubs

playing in the clouds with bubbles and an hour-glass may pass, we think, without dangerous challenging, for a Boucher; and there are some large color-sketches, showing a ready, free, but tortuous kind of strength, which not improbably represent the first thoughts of Le Brun for his series of "Alexander's Triumphs" in the Louvre. There are various Claudes, Watteaus, and Poussins about which we offer no opinion, and some Joseph Vernets which appear to us characteristic enough.

Just as there is a continual temptation for the schoolboy in the chapters of Susannah and Maccabees which he does not find in the canonical books, so do we find ourselves impelled to the apocrypha of the collection, which we hoped we could avoid mentioning. There is, it is almost needless to say, a Raphael present. It is a "Holy Family," like the Aldobrandini one in design, painted on paper, much retouched, and cemented to an old wormy board, which is marked with a seal; the cleaning process here revealed every evidence of a sketch—wandering pencil-marks and half-effaced heads. Every Raphael in existence being scrupulously catalogued and accurately located, we dare not yield our credulity to this interesting pretender; the utmost we venture to say for it is that the paper-panel-pencil-and-color method is an odd way to go about making a copy for the auctions, and that the little Saint John has a treacherous resemblance to Raphael's baby-studies. Another applicant for our suffrage is a very large canvas, which, black at first, turned out on cleaning to hold a "Martyrdom of Saint Lawrence," perplexingly like and unlike Titian's pictures of the subject in the Escorial and in the church of the Jesuits at Venice. Now, Titian was a shocking draughtsman, in the opinion of Michael Angelo, and colorists make the fact a merit; but if he ever drew such a back as that of the executioner here, who stirs the fire, he deserves to have been corrected with hot charcoal from under his saint's gridiron. The nomenclature of many such pictures as this would be greatly modified if our collectors kept in view the large number of copies made by skilful craftsmen in the last two hundred years for American churches of the Romanist belief. In this case, though, a comparison with the engraving after Titian shows intelligent changes in the figures, and alterations in the proportion, from the hand of no vulgar or slavish imitator. One more "Titian," and we may return to the pleasanter ways of comparative belief: a head on a panel, labelled as from the collection of General-in-Chief Alix of Westphalia, is lettered with "Pietro Aretino" in gold above, and "Txxx," beneath, and is conceived to be a likeness of the poet by his friend, painted in 1530. However, as it is not like Aretino, and not like Titian, and as the master can be shown to have signed hardly more than once or twice with a simple "T," the beholder will probably wish to wait for further evidence before yielding conviction.

In German and Dutch art the collection loses itself, and becomes almost invisible, drowned beneath the blackness of time. The "Dürer," No. 26, is a triptych where, out of the gloomiest of backgrounds, bend forth the heads of saints and a group of "Christ with the Tribute Money"; the work is properly marked and monogrammed, with the date of 1525; it has little of the look of the ordinary Dürer, being modern in draperies and sentiment. We are asked to suppose that the great German's trip to the Netherlands has superimposed some novelty in fashions and colors upon his style; and really the miniature finish of the faces, whether the picture's authorship be defined or not, makes it a valuable antique or an enticing counterfeit. A large panel, with a subject of "Christ Sinking beneath the Cross," from Dürer's "Passion," is so good and characteristic that for many purposes of the artist it may pass for Nuremberg work. Near the triptych hangs an unacknowledged head, the portrait of some bishop perhaps, richly framed in rosso antico, with inlayings of lapis-lazuli and onyx. An "Ecce Homo" of great quaintness and laborious finish is not improbably credited to Mabuse. A "Barbarossa," or at least a red-bearded knight, has a face modelled with all the best delicacy of the old schools, and is assigned to Lucas Kranach. A "Christ Blessing Children," a group with twenty-one heads, is accredited to P. Pourbus, born at Gouda in 1510. A head of a rough man in a cap, leaning doggedly on the hand, is awarded to Quentin Matsys, the blacksmith-painter, and seems to be strong, but is suspended so unfortunately beside a bright window that the most willing examination retires baffled from the decision. A multitudinous composition painted on wood with extreme elegance we see no reason for denying to Franz Francken the Elder; it shows the "Passage of the Red Sea," with the arches of water breaking up in a singular way to drown the hard-hearted Pharaoh. The specimens of this master at Blenheim are said to be inferior in beauty to this interesting example, which exhibits a strange daintiness in the midst of its overwhelming subject-matter. A small "Proserpine and Pluto," 173, is mobile, rich, and sketchy, and has much the look of a veritable Rubens. Among a multitude of Dutch cabaret scenes and kermesses, the interiors assigned to Adrian Brouwer seem to have a truly authentic look, and to be valuable examples of chiaroscuro. A "Cavalry Fight," No. 132, appears to us to have been very near the palette of Rembrandt; and at any rate to be about as valuable for purposes of study as most of the Dutch pictures accessible in this country. A "Hobbema," No. 129, we have less faith in; but in the case of this and of many other landscapes presented, we find the hint and the claim which a famous touch leaves in the spectator's mind: something less imposing, perhaps, than absolute conviction, but more instructive and reassuring than the suggestion left by the best engraving.

There are some valuable portraits. Dr. Bainbridge and his wife, in forcible, convincing fidelity, regard us from the canvas of Sir Godfrey Kneller, the picture numbered 212, and lately belonging to the collection of Sully the artist. The lady pinches a guitar, with the air of a précieuse; the husband, pride in his port, defiance in his eye, swells behind her, the ideal of a representative Briton. A somewhat faded female likeness of refined modelling, and recalling some of the portraiture in the feminine line of Van der Helst, takes the preceding number. A vast black Spanish picture, a lady in velvet with her children, we must decline to remember the sins of in our orisons as a true Velasquez. But in this and other cases where we feel the hardness of unbelief, we disburthen ourselves of a surmise without venturing upon full denial. The discrimination of old pictures is, under the most favorable circumstances, an attribute of long self-education. Many other qualities beside their purely artistic ones must enter into the question of their authorship. But while waiting for a Professor Waagen to give an opinion upon these carefully gathered specimens, we shall beg to retain in memory the pleasurable impression which many of them have given us.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

April 28, 1873.

MONEY is much easier. Commercial paper is more in demand, and prime names or first-class railway acceptances sell at from 10 to 12 per cent. Call loans vary from 7 per cent. currency to $\frac{1}{64}$ and interest; 7 per cent. gold being the most general rate. The most important feature is the return movement of currency to the city, which, so far as reported by the express companies, has been of considerable amount ($8,500,000), and including a fair proportion of legal tenders. The Senate at Albany has passed a bill providing for the forfeiture of interest, and not as heretofore of the principal, on usurious loans. This is considered very unsatisfactory, as it does not permit free and legal transactions in money at the current market rates.

The bank statement is favorable. The National banks in the Clearing-house hold $319,400 surplus above the legal reserve; the apparent total deficiency of about $300,000 in the 25 per cent. required by law being caused by a deficiency of $628,675 in the State banks. The statement is as follows:

	April 19.	April 26.	Differences.
Loans	$270,190,600	$269 301,900	Dec. $838,700
Specie	16.116 400	15,989,700	Dec. 126,700
Circulation	27,713,300	27,737 700	Inc. 24,400
Deposits	187,167,300	188,220.600	Inc. 1,053,300
Legal tenders	36,619,800	37,690,600	Inc. 1,070,800

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and total liabilities:

	April 19	April 26.	Differences.
Specie	$16.116,400	$16,589.700	Dec. $126,700
Legal tenders	36,619,800	37,690,600	Inc. 1.070.800
Total reserve	$52,736 200	$53.680 300	Inc. $944,100
Circulation	27,713,300	27,737,700	Inc. 24,400
Deposits	187,167,300	188.220,600	Inc. 1,053,300
Total liabilities	$214,880.600	$215.958,300	Inc. 1,077,700
25 per cent. reserve	53,720,150	53,989,575	
Deficiency in legal reserve	983,950	309,275	Dec. 674,675

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$232.177,900	$37,124.000	$269,301,900
Specie	14,471,000	1,518,700	15,989,700
Legal tenders	33,237,700	4,452.900	37,690,600
Deposits	161,862,500	26,358.100	188.220,600
Circulation	27,694,700	43,000	27,737,700

The stock market has been very dull, quotations remaining tolerably steady. The buoyancy which carried prices up last week was taken advantage of by parties to realize, causing considerable heaviness. The Atlantic National Bank affair also caused a fall of from ½ to 1 per cent. New Jersey Southern has become a speculative stock under the leadership of Jay Gould. It is rumored that the Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, and Indianapolis Railroad will pass into the control of the Lake Shore party. That creditable and sole representative of American commerce, Pacific Mail, is again short of American ships, and proposes to make the China trip of 1st June with an English steamer, and trust for compensation to Congress —a policy exactly the reverse of the prudent maxim of trusting to Providence and keeping powder dry.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending April 26, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101⅛ 102⅜	101⅝ 102	101¼ 101⅞	100⅜ 101½	101½ 101⅞	101⅜ 101⅜	70,900
Lake Shore	92⅛ 93⅛	92⅝ 93⅛	92¼ 92¾	91⅞ 92½	92⅝ 93⅛	92⅜ 93⅛	47,400
Erie	66⅛ 66⅜	65¼ 65⅞	63¾ 65	64 64⅝	64¼ 65⅜	65¼ 65½	59,400
Do. pfd	75¼ 77	74½ 76	 77	 75	 75	....	.....
Union Pacific	33 33⅛	32½ 33⅛	32¼ 33	31¾ 32½	32½ 32¾	....	29,000
Chi. & N. W.	81 82½	80¾ 82½	82 82	81¾ 81¾	81¾ 81⅜	....	15,000
Do. pfd	86½ 87½	87 87	87 87¼	....	87 87½	....	400
N. J. Central	100 100	100¾ 100¾	100 100	100 100¾	00 100	....	1,500
Rock Island	109 109⅜	108⅜ 109⅜	108⅜ 109¼	107⅜ 108⅜	108¼ 109	108⅜ 109	22 200
Mil. & St. Paul	60⅛ 6 ¼	60¾ 61⅜	60 61¼	59⅝ 61⅜	60¼ 61	59½ 60½	122,300
Do. pfd.	73½ 74	73½ 73½	73 73¼	73 73¼	73⅜ 74	73½ 73⅜	3,700
Wabash	69⅜ 71¼	69½ 70¼	69⅜ 70¼	69¼ 70¼	70¼ 70¾	70¼ 70⅜	22,900
D. L. & Western	100 100¼	100¼ 100¾	100 100	100 100	99½ 100	....	1,200
B. H. & Erie	2⅛ 3⅛	3⅛ 3¼	8¼ 3⅛	3 3¼	3	....	3,400
O. & M.	44⅜ 45⅛	44¼ 44⅝	44½ 44⅝	43¾ 44⅜	44¼ 44⅝	44⅜ 44½	47,000
C. C. & I. C.	39 39⅜	38⅝ 39½	38½ 38⅞	38 38⅜	38⅜ 39⅜	39¼ 39½	14 000
W. U. Tel.	85⅝ 87⅜	85 86¼	85½ 86⅜	84¾ 86	85½ 86¼	84⅜ 86	242,500
Pacific Mail	59⅜ 61¼	58¼ 60¾	58¼ 59¼	57⅞ 59⅜	58¼ 59⅜	58⅜ 59¼	140.100

The Bull's Head Bank is reorganized, and again doing business. Its impairment of capital has been made good, and the proceedings in bankruptcy discontinued upon the payment by the bank of the legal costs and fees, which amount to $5,603 75. The Atlantic National Bank, at the very end of the week, has failed utterly and scandalously, through defalcations of its cashier, who has embezzled about $425,000 belonging to the bank and its customers.

Certificates of indebtedness of the Washington City Board of Public Works have lately been offered for sale in New York. These certificates represent a liability the total of which is absolutely unknown. The assessed value of real estate in Washington has been arbitrarily increased fifty per cent. for the purpose of evading the limitation of indebtedness prescribed in the creation of the District; and yet, with this increase, the percentage of indebtedness has not been kept within the letter of the law; and the "Ring" appear to have added to the city debt at the rate of $1,000,000 *per month* for the past eighteen months. It is probable that the total obligation exceeds $20,000,000. This, for a corporate existence of less than two years, and a mixed population of about 135,000, who are not engaged in trade or manufactures, is such convincing evidence of recklessness, rascality, and insolvency that it is to be hoped these certificates will be found as unsalable here as in their place of nativity.

Great interest attaches in railroad circles to the decision just rendered in the case of the Covington and Lexington Railroad Company *vs.* Bowler. The road was, some years since, sold at public foreclosure sale, and purchased by the defendant—a director in the Company—for himself. The decision of the Court is unanimous that, whether acting in good or bad faith, the defendant could hold the property only as trustee for the old Company, and that, on an accounting to him for expenses in satisfaction of judgments, repairs, and improvements, the plaintiffs are entitled to a share of all profits, and to resume control of the road. This important decision directly affects several suits now pending in similar causes; amongst others, those arising in the New York and Fort Lee and Hudson River West Shore roads, which, under the name of "New York, West Shore, and Chicago," have lately consolidated and reorganized, and the new president, Governor Page, is now on his way to Europe, with hopes that an Amsterdam "Syndicate" will take its first mortgage bonds. The previous history of this Company, the present suits, the fate of the Rockford and Rock Island and other bonds, the difficulties with the California and Oregon Railroad Company, the fact that near $60,000,000 of defaulted American railroad obligations are now held in Germany, do not seem sufficient warning to foreign capitalists, and, with railroad investments second in intrinsic value to no securities in the world constantly to be had here, our German friends charitably select such as would not be purchased at any price by a respectable American banking firm. The old securities of the West Shore road have long been offered at five or ten cents on the dollar, and we learn of bonds of the new Company for sale here already, probably before the first day's work has been done by the incoming administration of the "*reorganized*" affair, which, not *owning* so much as a locomotive, *owes* hundreds of thousands of dollars.

In Boston, Hartford, and Erie Railroad matters, bills have been filed in the different United States Courts through which the road passes, claiming that portions of the property are to be taken for the general floating debt, proved in bankruptcy. The amount of such debts is comparatively small, only a few hundred thousand dollars, and it is thought that, after their satisfaction, any surplus must go to the shareholders, if, as is asserted, the Berdell bondholders have relinquished all rights by taking possession of their mortgage security, it being held that in bankruptcy no party holding security can participate in bankrupt assets unless he has first given up the security he holds for the benefit of all creditors. Among property thus laid claim to is the stock of the Hartford, Providence, and Fishkill road, the Norwich and Worcester lease, and the Boston depots and water-front.

Government securities have continued active and high. As the market is practically bare of bonds, it seems likely that prices will advance. There has been little doing in Southern State bonds. The market is steady as far as quotations go, but there are few, if any, actual transactions. Business in railroad bonds is not large, but the prices are firm, particularly for old established roads, and sales at the board, as well as over the counter, are decidedly on the increase. In a few weeks' disbursements on account of interests, payments by the Government, and by States, cities, and corporations, will exceed the sum of $100,000,000, of which much the larger part, owing to the relatively high price of Government and good railroad stocks, will be reinvested in railroad bonds. Union Pacific land-grants have advanced to 75. The land sold by this road during the month of March was 17,626 acres, at an average price of $4 79 per acre, amounting to $84,461. The total sales to April 1, 1873, are 703,437 acres, at an average price of $4 27 per acre, amounting to $3,003,430. Gold closed for the week at 117⅜ to 117½, and has been less active on speculative transactions. Whether the advance movement is broken, and we are drifting into a permanent decline, is not well ascertained. The imports at the port for the last week were of the specie value of $2,088,748 of dry goods, and $8,252,015 of general merchandise. The specie exports for the week were $773,018, or, since January 1, $17,121,441, against $9,187,334 for the corresponding time in 1872. On the other hand, the exports of cotton from all the ports for the week were 60,872 bales, against 28,971 bales for the same period last year, and the total exports are 2,105,900 bales for the cotton year, against 1,746,825 bales in 1872, whilst the stock still on hand is almost double that of the previous year. It is stated that $1,000,000 of coin is on the way here from London, and it is probable that on Monday the Government will commence paying the May coupons. The rates in the gold market range from 7 per cent. for carrying to ¼ per cent. for borrowing.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 8, 1873.

The Week.

THE Illinois farmers' movement seems to have thus far practically resulted in little more than a determination to have freights regulated by law. The railroad managers, meantime, are said to have arrived at a tacit understanding to interpose no obstacles to the pending legislation, but to comply strictly with any laws that may be passed. In case the "discriminating freight rates" are established, however, the companies, "in obeying the law, will be compelled to make important changes in the present system of management." Some of these changes will be rather inconvenient. The "time schedule" will be overhauled; trains will be run "on a paying basis only"; "lightning-express" trains will be abolished; luxuries will be dispensed with; and "soft-cushioned seats" will only be given to localities offering a paying business.

"If less than a car-load of freight is offered at any place, the car will be detached until it is filled up, and left to wait for the next train. The expensive high-pressure fast freight and passenger trains will be run on a more economical slow-coach basis. Half-full freight-cars and partially-laden trains will cease to run. Cars and freight trains will be left at localities until they are full, and then, and then only, will they be moved to their destination."

One thing the Illinois farmers may certainly rely upon, that no railroads will be run at a loss for any great length of time; and the ordinary profit means in these times not only profit on the money sunk in building and equipping the roads, but additional profits on various contracts with palace-car companies, white lines, red lines, and other transportation agencies of a very valuable and at the same time somewhat doubtful character.

As an illustration of the angry and irrational attitude of the farmers, we may refer to the convention held on April 30 at Princeton, Illinois. This meeting resolved, among other things, 1st, that railroad charters are not contracts, as they have been held by the courts to be; 2d, that the Illinois enactments relating to railroads are not repugnant to the Constitution of the United States; 3d, that the legislature shall pass laws establishing reasonable maximum rates, and that this legislation, whatever it may be, shall be enforced by the courts; 4th, that they will support no candidate for judge of the Supreme Court who does not agree with these resolutions—the last resolution being that a recent judgment of this very court in a matter having nothing to do with railroads "is a violation of the principle of free government." The Chicago *Tribune* says that on this platform the convention undertook to nominate some one for judge of the Supreme Court, but the gentleman named, who "is a respectable member of the bar," very naturally "wrote a peremptory refusal to be a candidate." No lawyer with any self-respect could do otherwise, for the platform is a direct attack on the independence of the judiciary, and an attempt to degrade it into the mere tool of the legislature. Delicate questions of constitutional law cannot be decided by a popular body like a farmers' convention; and even if they could, that would be no excuse for binding hand and foot the purest and most intelligent part of the government, and exalting in its place the most suspected.

The Honorable Samuel Shellabarger has published a long statement of his reasons for considering it a matter of imperative duty to take his "back pay," which, we fear, will not convince his "noble and only too generous constituency" that he is right, and the constituency in question wrong, in "this the first difference of opinion" between them. Mr. Shellabarger's main ground for taking the pay is that he steadily voted against it; and having been, contrary to his own intention, and solely by the action of his colleagues, placed in a position in which he is legally entitled to it, he thinks there can be "neither wrong nor indelicacy" in taking it. This is very much the same as if a gentleman in foreign parts, who had the misfortune of being obliged to consort with other gentlemen of very doubtful character, and some fine day should receive from his colleagues a valuable present, for which "no consideration had been given," should, after expostulating with them for some time, suddenly pocket the money, and return to his native country pleading that it was his duty to keep the gift, because there was no extradition law which covered the case. The argument that the increase of pay for services already rendered was not unconstitutional has very little weight with the public, who are not accustomed to regard the Constitution as a complete and final ethical guide; and the fact that other Congresses have voted themselves back pay does not make the matter at all better. If every Congress was to do it from now till the end of time, the public would not regard the precedent as making the practice delicate, or right, or decent. On the whole, Mr. Shellabarger's defence is rather calculated to amuse the readers of newspapers than to strengthen his own position—particularly that part of it in which he says he never allows himself for a moment to doubt the integrity of those who pushed the bill through. When a member of Congress has arrived at that pitch of innocence at which he confides in the integrity of his fellow-members, his state of mind is so widely different from that of the public, that the people feel he hardly "understands" them.

Apropos of the report that a Mr. Joseph Sloss, an Alabama Congressman, has declined to take his back pay, a contemporary remarks that "of course he is not a carpet-bagger." Now it may be as well for us to bear in mind that, abandoned rascals as a great many of the carpet-baggers have been, we of the North have had no such proud pre-eminence in rascality as it has been the careless fashion of the last year or so to assert. We might not win so very easily, after all, if we were to match Mr. Whittemore, for example, cadetship broker, etc., formerly of Massachusetts, against a certain gentleman "of good family," now and always of South Carolina, and at present holding an important office in his native State. This gentleman's disgusting conduct at the inauguration ball in Washington, the other week, has not, we observe, received anything like that amount of attention from the South Carolina press that it infallibly would have received had the honorable gentleman been a Northerner. This fact those of us whose business it is to make comments on carpet-baggism and other matters may properly recollect at such times as the carpet-bagger is up for objurgation.

Mr. Moses, for example, the present Governor of South Carolina, we may weigh however we like, and we shall find that in the matter of rascality, in its various forms of cynical indifference to decency, of rapacity, of corruption, of lawlessness and all the rest, he will probably yield to no other gentleman in South Carolina; but he happened to be born in that State, and for one word that the native South Carolinian editor, or the South Carolinian voter, or the South Carolinian woman will say about the virtuous Moses and his "steals," each will say one thousand words about the "steals" of Scott, born in Ohio. The Northern adventurers in no Southern State have never wanted for indigenous allies as greedy and shameless, whether or not as politically clever, as themselves. And the South, had she tolerated more of the entirely respectable kind of "carpet-baggers" than she would tolerate, need have suffered less than she has from her rogues, imported and native. The Mr.

Sloss of whom and whose "back pay" we have just made mention may help to point this moral. It appears that he has not declined the money, and probably does not intend doing so. Looking up this model of virtue, we find that he is, in fact, a native Southerner, and that he is set down in the books as having been elected by Democratic voters—presumably, therefore, not by carpet-baggers nor by negroes under the carpet-baggers' influence. However, we have no wish to institute these comparisons, but only to suggest that to this carpet-bag question, as to every other, there are two sides, and that for about a year some of us "Liberals" have been talking as if there were only one.

Word comes from St. Petersburg of the death of the Hon. James L. Orr, the United States Minister at that court. This death, though sudden, was not unexpected by such of his friends as knew the condition of his health when he left this country, for though a comparatively young man, and of an originally strong constitution, he had of late been very rapidly aging. He had been in his day something of an historic figure in the South, but in the North it will be thought his best claim to mention at the present day that he was one of the few prominent Southerners who, on the close of the rebellion, honestly held and acted upon the belief that the true course for Southern men, politicians or not, was to make the best of the situation and set to work to learn and to control the new political machine. This, we suppose, he did sincerely, though beyond doubt Mr. Orr was a fine natural-born politician, and had also sedulously studied that business. The North first knew much of him in the brief period when, between 1850 and 1860,the North and the South used to fight excitedly for the Speakership of the House. On one such occasion, in '57, he was the successful candidate, and made an excellent presiding officer. By-and-by came the war, and he rather reluctantly "went with his State," though he had previously done much secession talk, and afterwards served the Confederacy in field and council. The fact was that Mr. Orr, born poor, the favorite of the small farmers of the hill country of South Carolina, entertained of the Sea-Island and rice-plantation gentlemen, who were hottest for secession, an opinion quite different from that which those gentlemen entertained of themselves. Moreover, he had a native shrewdness which probably discovered far sooner than did their heated brains the final event of their policy. Of late he has "done the state some service," in the lower sense of those words, perhaps, as well as in the higher, but in the higher also. Mr. Orr had not quite completed his fifty-first year.

We said the other day that there was nothing in the Constitution to prevent the half-dozen ratifications given to Mr. Madison's salary Amendment eighty-odd years ago "from being carried forward as still valid, and counted in its favor, should any other States now feel like reviving it." A disposition to do this very thing has since been shown by the Ohio Legislature, in which, we believe, a motion to take up and ratify the Amendment, without any renewal of it on the part of Congress, has been entertained. The Chicago *Tribune* adduces some reasons for considering this step contrary, if not to the letter of the Constitution (as it cannot be shown to be), at least to the spirit of it. One of its arguments is, that "in the case of a bill before the legislature, a defeat of this kind would require the proposition to again go through the usual forms of presentment before it could be passed." The analogy fails, however, in this, that the life of a legislature is limited, while the continuity of a State is never interrupted. We saw, when the Fourteenth Amendment was hanging by the eyelids, New Jersey first reject and afterwards recall and ratify it, and a precedent established according to which rejection counts for nothing, while ratification (even if subsequent to rejection) is always valid. The interval here was short, to be sure, but that does not affect the principle, which, on the other hand, can have no relation to the duration of the Congress proposing the Amendment. For, in the first place, such a proposal might be its last act in its last session; and, historically, we know that the Eleventh Amendment was four years in getting ratified—a period equal to the life of two Congresses, and actually, as it happened, overlapping two Administrations. So far, therefore, as analogy and precedent go, the States of Rhode Island, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, seemingly might be held to their ratifications of the so-called Second Amendment of 1789; the objections of New Hampshire, New York, and New Jersey might be revoked; and Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Georgia might now first consider the Amendment, unprejudiced by the fact that they neglected to do so at the date named. Nor need Ohio, although a State admitted long after the Amendment had been lost sight of, forfeit its right to pass upon it at its own pleasure.

The question, so long as our vast territory is scarcely more than half parcelled out into States, and so long as the existing States maintain their conservative attitude towards all amendments of the Constitution, can hardly be called a practical one. We do not see how any great harm can come from the exercise of the liberty asserted by the Ohio Legislature, even if it transcends the reasonable interpretation of the requirements of the Constitution. On the other hand, we think we see certain advantages in having a more explicit declaration of the term within which amendments might lawfully be considered—say, four or five years; and of the effect on a State, as disqualifying it for further action, of ratification, rejection, and non-consideration respectively. At present it is certainly no reproach to our fundamental charter that its vagueness is wholly in favor of the vitality of amendments, no matter how often rejected or how long under consideration. And on this side, doubtless, any attempt at precision should lean.

The relation existing between the managers of a powerful railroad company and small State governments in this country is not very unlike that which formerly existed between the large land-owners in England and rotten boroughs. An investigation is now going on into the affairs of the Vermont Central Railroad which brings this to light in a curious way. The Vermont Central was built between the years 1845 and 1850. The Vermont and Canada, an extension of the same line, was then built, and leased at 8 per cent. to the Central. At first the rent was paid; but in 1854 it suddenly stopped. The Vermont and Canada then went into court and got some receivers appointed, who were ordered to operate the road, paying the rent and also the interest of the first and second mortgage bonds of the Central. Strange to say, these receivers first failed to find money enough to pay the first mortgage bonds, and then the second; and then the money for the rent disappeared. Meanwhile, they had contracted on their own account a floating debt of several millions; and an attempt is now making to discover the explanation of this strange state of affairs. The first thing that comes out is the existence of a "secret service fund," used by the railroad to "retain" all the prominent men in the State. In the printed list we find the names of all sorts of officials: one was a senator last year, another an ex-district attorney and prominent politician, another a governor, another an auditor, another the present lieutenant-governor, another an ex-railroad commissioner, another an ex-senator and now a judge. The list is a very long one, and it is evident enough that the upshot of such a system is the complete inversion of the normal relation between the Government and the railroads, and the complete absorption of the former's functions. The next step in the history of the Vermont Central is still more curious, for it consists in the gradual rise into power, on the ruins of the corporation, of a family; for the Vermont Central, the State of Vermont, and the "Smiths" have been for some years in that part of the world synonymous. The investigation, if only in the interest of sociology, ought to be made thorough.

At the annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday of last week, Mr. William E. Dodge was re-elected President. This signal mark of confidence the Chamber followed up by heartily applauding speeches in which unshaken faith in the integrity and honor of his house was expressed, and by unanimously adopting

resolutions instructing a committee "to examine the laws relating to penalties and additional duties as now imposed, and to recommend such alterations of the same as will protect the honest importer from the forfeitures and fines which should fall only upon those who are dishonest and unscrupulous." Mr. Dodge himself, in acknowledging the honor conferred upon him, stated that except for the attitude in which his firm had been placed by the Government he should have declined a renomination. Referring to the excessive payment in settlement made by Phelps, Dodge & Co., he said that since they had fully understood the case, they regretted ever having paid a dollar; and this, as we have before had occasion to remark, is the only regret which the public can entertain on their account. While this rebuke to the Government for its outrageous treatment of one of the half-dozen representative firms of the country was being offered by the leading merchants of its chief city, at Vienna the opening of the Exposition on the same day gave equal occasion to Americans to blush for the care which the Government bestows on the commercial and industrial interests of the people, whether at home or abroad.

The strikes continue with varying success. In St. Louis, a strike of the coopers has been followed by an importation of Chinamen, and this again by the usual threats of violence. No one, it is said, dared to rent rooms to the Chinese, and the owner of the shops had to furnish them with lodgings. Private warnings of intended incendiarism were given by the white coopers. The police, as usual, were turned out to prevent disturbance. In Rhode Island, the mill operatives are striking for the "ten-hour" system. The most interesting of all the strikes, however, thus far, is that of the New York coopers. The grievance of these men is not that they have to work too long, or that they are underpaid, or that "Chinese cheap labor" is competing with them, but that their employers are able to import barrels from Portland, Maine, cheaper than they can manufacture them here, and they accordingly insist that no more new Portland barrels shall be imported to New York. This strike is perfectly justifiable on the principles of political economy taught by Mr. Carey and dimly believed in by "Uncle" Boutwell, as the brokers fondly called him, but the coopers are much more logical men than either Mr. Carey or Mr. Boutwell. They sweep away at one brush the transparent and slightly impudent fallacy that free trade between New York and Maine can be a good thing and free trade between New York and Canada a bad thing. They know and see that Maine barrels lower their wages just as much as Canadian barrels would, so they promptly and properly insist on their exclusion, and the refiners have promptly and properly agreed not to use them. This is real protection, and as such has our hearty admiration. If we cannot have a low and simplified tariff, we want to see every county or village "protected" against outsiders, and, indeed, every citizen freed from annoying competition.

Journalism has a happy summer before it. The old scores of last year's campaign have been pretty nearly settled during the winter, and as spring opens there seems a general disposition to forgive and forget. We observe with pleasure that almost all the leading newspapers congratulate the *Herald* on its enterprise and pluck in securing as its Viennese correspondents Berthold Auerbach and Louisa Mühlbach—the well-known novelists—and printing their despatches in German and English. The employment of these authors is said to have excited great amazement and interest in the minds of the German population of New York—and well it may, for more soul-stirring compositions we have never had the pleasure of reading. Auerbach begins his correspondence, not as one might expect of the tyro in journalism that he is, from the city of Vienna, but from Gernsbach, on the "verge" of the Black Forest. His first letter begins: "A May Greeting sent to the New World from Gernsbach in the Black Forest by Berthold Auerbach!" But the finest passages are those in which the correspondent imagines the Emperor Francis Joseph and Benjamin Franklin taking a walk through the halls of the Exposition. "Thoughtfully, but with a beaming countenance," Franklin examines the various electrical inventions around him; "onward he paces," and thinks, "What would the Olympian Games be compared with this?" "Onward walks Franklin," and "with intense joy" he contemplates the ingenious labor-saving contrivances of the age; but "a sense of intense pain clouds his thoughtful brow" as he contemplates the improved instruments of destruction; "but as he looks at the Stars and Stripes he is recalled to a sense of joy, and murmurs to himself words of delight, which he will only openly express at the Centennial Celebration of the Independence of the United States." Edmund Yates, too, is writing for the *Herald*, while William Howard Russell, who it seems is a doctor of laws, has been secured by the *Times*. Many an old feud is forgotten in the generous emulation of the moment, though we are sorry to see that some of our contemporaries refer to another *Herald* Vienna correspondent—Mr. John Russell Young—as the "notorious news sneak-thief." This, however, is the only thing which mars the prevailing harmony. Even the titanic and bloody controversy between the *World* and the "young disciples" of the *Tribune* has come to a timely end, the latter journal resolutely and prudently declining to "throw back the ball of discussion."

The will of the late Emperor Napoleon has been presented for probate, and being dated in April, 1865, and adapted to the political conditions of that time, is so violent an anachronism as to suggest a rather ghastly attempt at joking. It reads very much as we should suppose a Chinese mandarin's communication from the other world would read with Mr. N. P. Banks for a "medium." The meaningless platitudes which alike distinguish the people of the Flowery Kingdom and the Massachusetts ex-Governor, are here mingled with ancestor-worship which would extort the admiration of the court of Peking itself. As the Emperor declares his intention of dying in the Catholic, Apostolic, and Roman religion, it is curious and sad to notice his neglect of the saint of the 15th of August—the Neopolis, Neopolas, Napoleo, or Napoleone, who suffered martyrdom at Alexandria under the Emperors Diocletian and Maximian for the express purpose of bestowing a name upon the Corsican. Apparently he has not done his duty by Napoleon III., who says, "It is the soul of my illustrious uncle that has always inspired and sustained me," and that the like will apply to his son.

There has been a ministerial crisis in Italy, owing to the defeat of Signor Sella on the question of an appropriation for an arsenal at Taranto. In the latter part of March, the Radicals in Parliament, with the support of a large portion of the Conservative party, alarmed by the conclusion of the Franco-German evacuation treaty, which is likely to set the French at liberty to threaten Italy with a crusade before the present year will have come to an end, made a desperate attempt to obtain an increase of the army, which was firmly resisted by the Minister of Finance. In his opinion, a prosperous state of the finances was the very first condition of all political strength, and if he consented to any further outlay he would call upon Parliament to vote for fresh supplies. The result was a compromise, Signor Sella consenting to the relatively small augmentation of about $6,000,000 for the War Office on condition that Parliament should vote fresh taxes to an equal amount. Three bills for that purpose were immediately brought in, and we judge that one of these the House rejected in violation of its pledge. The Cabinet promptly tendered its resignation, but it was soon found that nobody coveted the premiership, and the King having revoked his acceptance, Signor Lanza returned to the head of affairs, and has withdrawn the bill on which his colleague broke down. The incident resembles the recent experience of the Gladstone Ministry, though we trust that Signor Sella has not been really thwarted in his purpose to make Italy pay as she goes. On the 3d of April he achieved a decisive success over the Left, backed by more than eighty members of the Centre, maintaining the unpopular but very productive, and at this time indispensable, *macinato*, or tax on grinding.

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT TO PUBLIC MORALS.

WE discussed one aspect of the Phelps-Dodge affair last week—the economical one. The matter ought not to pass from the public mind, however, without some notice of another and still graver aspect of it—the moral one; the importance of which is increased by the spectacle of the frauds, defalcations, breaches of trust, venality, and, in short, general loosening of the bonds of honesty and fidelity which meets the eye in every direction, and over which patriots and moralists are lamenting so deeply. It is now and has long been generally conceded that governments owe something more to the cause of good morals than legislation against vice. They not only provide penalties for offences, but they refuse the aid of the judicial machinery for the enforcement of contracts which are *contra bonos mores*—or "against public policy," as the lawyers say. More than this, they are expected to refrain from making money by pandering to vicious tastes or habits. It is now generally conceded that a government ought not to keep gambling-houses or open lotteries, let them be never so profitable; many go still further, and say it ought not even to license houses for the sale of intoxicating liquors, or derive a revenue from permitting the manufacture of such liquors, or in any manner countenance or encourage their use. There are differences of opinion on some of these points; but we believe there is none whatever among civilized men, that a government ought in the transaction of its fiscal business not only to refrain from what is positively immoral, or mean, or tricky, or perfidious, but to set an example of scrupulous, high-minded integrity, such as private persons ought to follow. In other words, administration as well as legislation ought to have an educating influence on the popular mind, ought to present to the young a lofty standard of honor and fair dealing, ought, in short, to embody in practice, as far as possible, the highest national ideal of right living. It is still less permissible in a government than in an individual to cheat, to lie, to break promises, to defraud, or cozen, or indulge in sharp practice, or take advantage of people's weakness, or ignorance, or necessity. The imperceptible influence of an immoral government is far more mischievous than the perceptible. When it defrauds a man or denies him justice, the wrong done him is only a small part of the mischief; the greater portion of it is to be found in the impression made on the minds of the youth of the nation by the spectacle of rascality perpetrated by persons holding responsible positions, acting in the name and using the resources of the whole social organization. We verily believe, that after every allowance had been made for the influence of the war and of paper money in producing the recent marked decline in public morals in this country, it would be found that the greater portion of this decline was due to the practice which yearly becomes more striking, of collecting the riff-raff of the nation, its social, commercial, and professional bankrupts, every four years, and committing the charge of its money and its honor to their keeping. There is a deep and lasting connection between civil-service abuses, which seem so far away from us, and other abuses, which reach our pockets directly. In other words, the renown and influence of the Murphys and Caseys help to make the army of small rogues who rob our savings-banks and trust companies, and issue our counterfeit money and bogus bonds.

What has all this got to do with the Phelps-Dodge affair? Much, as we think we can show. The legal proceeding by which our Government punishes infractions of the revenue laws is, in form, a civil one. On its face, it is a civil suit for an amount of damages previously fixed by the statute. But, in reality, it is a criminal proceeding. The evidence to sustain it is procured by the criminal process of searches and seizures. The amount of damages recoverable bears no moral or mathematical relation to the injury sustained. It is, in all respects, a penalty, and may be a tremendous penalty, even from a pecuniary point of view; as when in the Phelps-Dodge case a million and a half of dollars was claimed, and over a quarter of a million actually extorted, by way of compensation for the loss to the revenue of little over sixteen hundred dollars. Not only, however, are the damages a real penalty, but the suit is, from its very commencement, an assault on character of the most terrible kind. Private individuals sue each other for all sorts of reasons—good, bad, and indifferent—and the public pays little heed to the plaintiff's story until it has heard the defendant's. But when the Government pursues a man in the courts, it raises in the popular mind a strong presumption of guilt against him. There is a traditional prejudice that such a suit, being undertaken on public grounds and in the public interest, cannot be dictated by private malignity or passion, and must have an array of facts behind it; so that, when the district attorney files his bill against a merchant to punish a fraud on the revenue, and the "special agent" seizes on his books and papers, and the telegraph spreads the news over the country, the fair fame of a lifetime often vanishes in a moment. The man's character is damaged to an extent which no subsequent refutation or vindication can wholly cure, because such are the intricacy and obscurity of our revenue laws that, even if the facts were clear of all suspicion, the defence must, from the nature of the case, be dry and tedious reading, while the charge can be contained in two lines of a spicy despatch.

Now, no man is arraigned on a criminal charge without a preliminary investigation before an impartial tribunal. He is taken before a magistrate who has no personal interest in his acquittal or conviction, before a grand jury who are indifferent also, and before a district attorney who, at worst, is animated in the prosecution by nothing stronger than professional pride. It is only after all these have agreed that there is fair ground for trying him that he is, as the law says, "put in jeopardy" before a court. When, however, the Treasury directs the prosecution of a merchant, entailing possibly the ruin of his business and of his reputation, it acts on the report of two persons, who both have a strong pecuniary interest in his conviction—that is, it decides to prosecute him, as it were, on the commitment of a magistrate who will make thousands of dollars by having him found guilty; and on the presentment of a grand jury who, if he *is* found guilty, will be allowed to divide between them a considerable portion of his assets. But this is not the whole nor the worst. In order to procure the information on which these prosecutions are founded, the Government does not employ policemen and pay them itself for their services, as in the case of other breaches of the law, and keep up among them by discipline a sense of honor and of self-respect and of regard for the rights of their fellow-citizens. On the contrary, it enlists in its service a class of detectives whose zeal is stimulated not by the prospect of promotion or by public spirit, or any of the honorable incentives to exertion, but by the prospect of sharing in a division of the criminal's property. Even if the experience of all nations and ages as to the effect of this mode of reward on police agents were not known to us, we should only need very little knowledge of human nature to predict the result of it on the morals of the officer and on the peace and welfare of persons exposed to his attacks. It is a common and justifiable practice of governments to offer rewards to educe evidence likely to lead to the conviction of the perpetrators of crimes already committed. But to offer large rewards to persons who will bring accusations and make them good is a well-recognized offence against public welfare, to which only the basest governments in the worst times have ever resorted, because it not only breeds one of the foulest classes of men, but places all good citizens at their mercy.

The detectives employed by our Government, and whom it dignifies with the name of "Special Agents," are constantly trying to procure materials for charges, and in order to do so are constantly endeavoring to put themselves in communication with "informers," with whom they afterward share the enormous reward. It is well known that it is not uncommon to use clerks as spies on their employers, or in other words to induce young men to engage in one of the lowest

forms of hypocrisy and perfidy of which a man can be guilty, and the one which most rapidly and surely eats out the very roots of manliness, honesty, and self-respect. We may depend upon it, anybody who has ever taken Custom-house pay as a spy, issues from his employer's counting-house in just that state of mind which makes slow and lawful gains irksome, and chances for fraud and defalcation welcome. In the Phelps-Dodge case, a confidential clerk first sells his employers' business secrets to business rivals, and spends his nights in helping them to ransack their books and papers. When he is detected and prosecuted and escapes through a technicality, far from flying, he puts himself in communication with the representatives of the United States Government, who welcome him as a valued coadjutor, and the result is that by this one stroke of rascality he walks off with nearly $70,000, or, in other words, a larger fortune than usually rewards a lifetime of honest and successful toil. It requires no great effort of the imagination to figure to one's self the effect of this man's performance on the thousands of youth who are serving in a fiduciary capacity in this city, and to whom long hours and small salaries are hard to bear. That he is a thief, a cheat, a liar, a hypocrite, a monster of ingratitude and baseness, is all hidden under the fact that he has assisted the worthy Jayne in bringing a charge of having defrauded the revenue to the extent of sixteen hundred dollars against a house whose importations are every year worth six millions, and the income of whose partners is counted by hundreds of thousands.

We may depend upon it that as long as the national Government lends its sanction to speculations of this kind, the fountain of corruption and dishonesty will not dry up or cease to spread. There is no way, we are glad to say, of keeping rascality confined to "the politicians." We cannot make politics a lazar-house, and prevent the contamination from reaching trade and commerce. Perhaps one of the alarming signs of the times was that little burst of janissary's insolence in which this detective, Jayne, spoke in his "report" to Mr. Boutwell of the merchants of New York as "the ordinary brood of importers," evidently looking at them much as one of Louis Fourteenth's dragoons looked at peasants, or a Mameluke looked at a rayah. When a person of his calling and position indulges in remarks of this kind to his official superior about the traders of the principal American city, and the superior has the audacity to publish the letter, we may be sure it is high time for the axe to be laid to the root of the tree. The worst charge that can be made against the house of Phelps, Dodge & Co. is that, having wealth and character, they did not stand firmly in the forefront of the battle which undoubtedly must be fought out before the great Custom-house nuisance is abated, and the lesson finally taught that Government exists for the convenience and aid of the citizen, and not for his confusion and annoyance.

ECCLESIASTIC SUBJECTION IN GERMANY.

PRINCE BISMARCK is trying an experiment on the Catholic Church which will be watched in all other countries with great interest, and which, although, as the English press has pointed out, it bears some resemblance in form to the performance of Henry VIII., in reality deals with the matter from a totally different standpoint, and one which well illustrates the change that has come over modern society with regard to religion. Henry VIII. put down Catholicism, it is true, as dangerous to the state and to the supremacy of the crown, but he also put it down as error, or at all events as only one expression of truth, and undertook manfully to supply another and better expression himself, and, mysteriously enough, succeeded in getting his own version accepted by the people. Bismarck, however, professes no interest whatever in the question of truth or falsehood of Catholic doctrines, and is evidently not troubled by the question of a state church. But neither, on the other hand, does he accept the great American principle of "a free church in a free state," which Count Cavour seized on as the best solution of the ecclesiastical problem in Italy, and which his successors are now slowly and laboriously endeavoring to carry into effect. Bismarck does not particularly care what doctrines are taught within the King's dominions, or with how much acceptance they meet, but he insists that there shall not be two sources of authority, or two powers capable of inflicting temporal penalties, or any set of persons bound to render obedience to anybody not authorized by the state to receive obedience, or trained for their duties without any interference from the state. In short, he will not hear of "a free church." He insists that the church shall be strictly subordinate to the state, and, in so far as it is visible, regulated by the state. He has accordingly introduced, and, as the Cable informed us on Saturday, has succeeded in carrying even through the Upper House, a batch of measures which constitute one of the most audacious assaults on ecclesiastical independence ever entered upon —audacious, because it is neither due to religious hostility nor to any desire to convert the church into a tool of the state. We gave some account of the leading features of these measures some weeks ago, but we may repeat again that they place the curriculum and discipline of all existing theological seminaries under the control and superintendence of state officers, and forbid the establishment of any new ones. Everybody applying for ordination must have been educated at a state university, and must undergo an examination in which there is no whiffling about "rival theories," but in which the candidate is obliged to swallow a good solid dose of philosophy, history, and literature prepared by Prussian officials. No bishop can put in charge of a parish any priest who has not gone through this course; he cannot put him in charge of one, even when he has passed it, without the approval of the President of the province. If any bishop or priest attempts to act in contravention of this provision, he exposes himself to a heavy fine; if the bishop attempts to inflict any ecclesiastical penalty on anybody for obeying the law, he not only pays a heavy fine, but he goes to jail. No person of non-German origin can undertake to enforce ecclesiastical discipline, and all questions of ecclesiastical discipline are hereafter remitted to the jurisdiction of a state court established expressly to take cognizance of them; and if any ecclesiastical superior wishes to punish a subordinate for anything done or left undone, before that court he must go. The four acts in which these stringent rules are contained must furnish curious reading to the Catholic prelates in Dublin, whose chief grievance is that the state does not provide them with a university in which they can teach their own peculiar history, philosophy, and astronomy to all comers. They must furnish almost as curious reading to our Catholic prelates here, who want to have a portion of the school fund set apart for such modes of instruction as Catholic clergymen choose to approve and provide teachers for.

The boldness of the proceeding in Germany is in part accounted for by the stern necessity under which Bismarck labors of providing for the consolidation of the Empire into a strong and compact political organization, undisturbed by internal dissensions over questions of authority or jurisdiction. The Pope has formally declared war against him and his ideas, and he is bound to show that he cares nothing about the Pope's thunders, and that the King's authority admits of no dispute. As yet the law only applies to Prussia, but there is little doubt that he will also secure its adoption by the German Parliament. His boldness is also due in still greater part to the thoroughly secularized condition of the German mind, and to the low estate into which the German clergy have fallen, both as regards social position and education, in relation to the educated classes of the community. A pastor counts for very little now in the eyes of the Prussian scholar, politician, or military man; and a priest counts for less. There is, therefore, in Germany nothing of novelty or shock about a proposition to lay the strong hand of the state on a whole ecclesiastical organization which there would be in any other country. The learned class is in no other so completely lay in its composition as it is in Germany, and in none has the work of education been for so long a period and so thoroughly withdrawn from clerical hands. In Italy or in France, a lay teacher, or a teacher emancipated from

clerical supervision, is still somewhat of a monstrosity, and in England the clergy have, almost down to the present year, had the universities and schools, high and low, wholly in their hands; and the new educational system is in great danger of going to pieces under the influence of the strong and steady opposition of the ministers of all denominations to teaching which they have no hand in preparing or administering.

The hands of Bismarck are undoubtedly strengthened, too, by the infallibility dogma, which is probably proving to what may be called the Conservative party—using the word in its largest sense—the most serious blow which it has ever received, or is ever likely to receive. We mean by Conservative party that portion of European society which believes, to state the matter roughly, that life is not all living, nor death all dying; or, in other words, that there is a hereafter, whatever its nature, in which man will either be rewarded and punished, or in which he will enter upon a larger and nobler sphere of activity than has been vouchsafed to him on earth. It is in reality difference of opinion on this matter which now underlies the great divisions in European politics as well as in religion. It is rapidly taking the place of the great disputes about the division of the sovereignty as well as the great disputes about the interpretation of the Bible and the authenticity of Church traditions. Everything in church and state now hinges on it. It has produced and is spreading the cardinal idea of the socialist democracy which is honeycombing European society, namely, that material well-being is the first and great end of life, and that all sacrifices of it to remoter considerations of any kind are marks of imbecility; and it is arraying behind the Legitimists, whether followers of Henri V. or Don Carlos, weightier interests than those of pope or king. In fact, the Conservatives are no longer fighting for what used to be called "a cause," but for property, marriage, inheritance—for, in short, nearly everything that makes life to all the well-to-do classes worth having. To them the church was a powerful aid as long as its reconciliation with science and progress was a thing which hopeful and reforming spirits might look forward to and talk of; but the proclamation of the infallibility dogma has cut the ground from under their feet, and delivered them naked to the enemy. The scientific men now make open sport of them, and the socialists are furnished with a fresh illustration of the imposture of the religionists in their attempt to palm off an old man in feeble health as incapable of being mistaken or deceived. So that when Bismarck strikes, he strikes a foe already demoralized and divided.

BARON RICHTHOFEN'S TRAVELS IN CHINA.

III.

SZR-CHWAN was well worth conquest. It is one of the finest inland countries in the world, and, even at this day of low water in the general character and circumstances of the Chinese race, it is occupied by a people who may well take rank with any. Intelligent, courteous, and energetic, they make the very mountain-sides bloom with cultivation, while throughout the Empire the province is spoken of as the garden of China and the repository of every sort of wealth. This is what Baron Richthofen says of the people:

"Among the inhabitants of the eighteen provinces the people of Szr-chwan are (according to my own experience with them) the most gentle and amiable in character, and the most refined in manners. They are also more cleanly and orderly in dress and habits than the Chinese in general. Although somewhat prejudiced against foreigners by stories spread among them, they give evidence by their behavior that they are not hasty and superficial in forming an opinion, and desire to improve it by personal acquaintance. Like the people of Shanse, they arrive at the conviction that men who have attained a high rank in industrial arts must have merit. They meet us with civility and respect, are not in the least shy, and, without evincing that rude curiosity so repulsive to us in many other places, they answer frankly and without hesitation any question put to them. It is no hazard to say that the zeal of the early missionaries has left in Szr-chwan a far more numerous community of Catholic Christians than in any other province. Whenever I arrived at a place where there lived some of them, they would come and confess frankly their faith before any assembled crowd. I got the impression that they are true and devoted Christians, but that, besides the religion, they have a profound veneration of everything connected with Europe. Also, in regard to the pagan population, I arrived at the conviction that they would like dealings with foreigners more so than the people of any other provinces, and soon become our devoted friends."

And again, when speaking of the plain and city of Ching-tu-fu, the finest district in the province, he says:

"Ching-tu-fu is among the largest cities of China, and, of all, the finest and most refined. The streets are broad (very unusual in China), most of them straight, and cross each other at right angles. They are carefully paved with square flagstones, scarcely one of which can be discovered to be out of place, and they are well graded and provided with drains on either side. Their appearance is even more picturesque than that of the streets of Canton, because there is more depth to the views. The houses are adorned with fine and carefully elaborated wooden fronts. Within doors is an unusual amount of luxury, cleanliness, and ease. Through the gate the view opens into a series of yards separated by open halls, every yard a garden, lined on two sides with well-made inner-house frontages. The institution of clubs is quite general in Ching-tu-fu. The houses devoted to them have, when lit up by painted paper lanterns, a touch of a magic appearance. People are remarkably well dressed, silk being a common material of wear. In shops all wood-work is polished, and they are kept clean. A large proportion of them are devoted to articles of luxury, such as silk brocades, silk ornaments of all kinds, silk shoes, costly furs, silver ornaments, articles made of, or set with, precious stones. More than twenty watchmakers find profitable employment, each having a shop with watches and clocks. Nowhere in China is art valued by the present generation as high as in Ching-tu-fu. All tea-houses, inns, shops, private dwellings, have their walls covered with pictures, many of them reminding one of the Japanese ink and water-color drawings in point of artistic touch. No traveller can help being struck with the great artistic perfection of the triumphal arches, worked in red sandstone, which abound in the country. They are covered with sculptures in *haut* and *bas* relief, representing scenes of mythical or everyday life, mostly with a tinge of the humorous. Some of them are masterpieces of Chinese art. In no respect is the refinement more perceptible than in the polished manners and gentle behavior of the people, in regard to which the inhabitants of Ching-tu-fu are ahead of the rest of China. Although in foreign dress I took frequent walks through the city, the people avoided all appearance of taking notice of me, considering any symptoms of curiosity as below their dignity, of course with the exception of the ever-present little urchins whose education is not yet finished. In the shops I was civilly addressed, and I met with the same civility on the part of the officials. These last said they made it a point of honor in Szr-chwan to treat foreigners well, and proved practically that they meant more than polite phrases. Yet, as I had occasion to remark in another page, the people of Szr-chwan do not like foreigners, partly because they are prejudiced against us by the most curious stories spread among them, and partly because they are on no good terms with the native Christians living among them. But if they could have the opportunity of frequent intercourse with educated foreigners, the probability is that they would like them better than the Chinese of other provinces do."

The population of the whole province is about 35,000,000, and the extent of ground is 250,000 square miles. It is, therefore, a full-sized kingdom in itself. The greater part of the population is in the eastern half, and it has about reached its maximum, any failure of crops bringing dire famines. There was one prevailing at the time of our traveller's visit; and without the gates of Ching-tu-fu above described were 20,000 people, in a destitute condition, being fed by the authorities and under military guard. The prevalence of famines in bad seasons is mainly owing to the isolated situation of Szr-chwan. The whole country is hilly and mountainous, of high elevation, being from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is shut in on all sides by very rugged chains. Its only communication with the rest of civilized China is by the Yang-tze River as a main line, by the road heretofore described, and by minor roads to the head-waters of some small rivers that flow ultimately into the alluvial plain of the Yang-tze below the mountains. All these roads are more or less difficult for merchandise; that by the Yang-tze is obstructed by rapids and gorges, and the current itself is such an obstacle that even passenger boats are twenty to thirty days in reaching Chun-king-fu, the first great distributing point of trade coming from the east.

Only on the east does Szr-chwan touch civilization. On the west and north are mountainous countries inhabited by rough tribes; on the south, the province of Yünnan, for a long time in chronic rebellion, and lying desolate. Thibet lies beyond the mountain tribes northwesterly, and trade roads reach from the province to that country; but Szr-chwan is the civilized neighbor, and not Thibet. Everywhere throughout the province the roads are difficult, except in the one level plain of Ching-tu-fu; that is the only piece of level ground in it. There are a few main roads which are well paved with flagstones and are wide enough for two pack-trains to pass each other. Beside these an infinite number of foot-paths permeate the country, also paved and kept in good order. In steep places there are flights of steps, up and down which the ponies climb with surprising ease; but, except on the main roads, nearly all the carrying is done by coolies. Brooks and rivers are constant, so that bridges are everywhere needed, and are a specialty, so to say, in Szr-chwan. A fine and well-constructed bridge is a matter of local pride. They are built of cut-stone, generally red sandstone, and kept in perfect repair—sometimes arched, sometimes made with long slabs. The

baron saw such slabs 24 feet long, 4 feet wide, and 2 feet thick—heavy stones where the appliances for moving are so inferior. He says:

"In the wilderness of Western Szr-chwan, it often happens that a road must traverse a narrow chasm between rocks where, deep below, the water descends in foaming cascades. Then the chasm is spanned with five or six strong iron chains lying parallel to each other. These are covered transversely with stout planks. Other chains form a sort of railing on both sides. These bridges are frequent in the west. In other places of a similar character, where a passage for man only is required, wire bridges of an exceedingly elegant pattern are constructed. In rocky dens filled with huge granite boulders, between which grows a luxuriant vegetation, these delicate structures are a surprisingly decorative element."

This province is noted in China for the variety and value of its exports —silk, tobacco, opium, sugar, oil, salt, iron, hemp, and vegetable wax—all valuable. Its product of coal is very large and general throughout its extent, but consumed within its borders. It raises for itself tea, cotton, wheat, barley, rice, and all the vegetables. It is almost the only part of China where the hills, out of the loess country, are generally cultivated:

"It is probable that in no country of the world, not excepting Japan, an equally perfect use of the hillsides is made. As in those beautiful islands, the cultivation of the soil is not limited to agriculture alone, but consists in great part in the planting of useful and ornamental trees, such as bamboo, tung-tree, mulberry-tree, cypress, fruit, and fig trees. It is owing to these various circumstances that Szr-chwan is, considered as a whole, the most beautiful province of China."

It is very interesting to consider that this really civilized spot of earth lies from 1,200 to 2,000 miles from the sea, and has had so little communication with the Western world that its condition is entirely uninfluenced by our existence. Both foreigners resident in China, and Chinese themselves, none more so than the natives of Szr-chwan, have it greatly at heart to open the country to foreign intercourse. And this not only for the interchange of commodities, but because, if foreign steamers can accomplish the navigation of the upper Yang-tze, the worst of the horrors of the periodical famines will pass away; for the seasons in the up country and the lower valley of the Yang-tze are not alike, and the crops below would be available above in times of need. The Yang-tze is, however, very difficult, and has indeed been pronounced by some able observers to be impracticable for steamers. Baron Richthofen is more hopeful, and thinks that ingenuity and skill will conquer the difficulties. As before stated, foreign steamers now ascend to Hankow, 600 miles from Shanghai, and there a flourishing settlement of foreigners has existed for ten years. For 400 miles further the river is still easily navigable; but there, at the entrance to Szr-chwan, the rapids and gorges begin, and continue, with some intervals, to Chun-king-fu, 400 miles beyond. There are two stages of the river, the low in winter and the high in summer, the rise in some of the narrow gorges being 80 feet. The greatest difficulties and dangers are in winter, though very considerable also in summer. The whirls in the gorges are so powerful that, if a vessel is caught, she is spun round and sometimes engulfed, and sometimes dashed against the rocks. In the rapids, up which the Chinese track, there are sharp-pointed rocks, to touch on which, in the swift current, is destruction. The walls of rock through the gorges are of great height, and canals impossible, or even a track for a railroad. Baron Richthofen agrees with all other travellers in this view, and he says, if the navigation proves impracticable, and resort must ultimately be had to a railroad, the route will necessarily be, not up the line of the Yang-tze, but further to the north where some of the branches of the Han River penetrate into the mountains. He thinks a line anywhere would be difficult and costly. In the high stage of the river, the water, rising above the narrow channel which it has cut in the rock in the centre of the defiles, fills the whole width of the gorge, and then the high rocks scattered loosely over the space become the dangers, as it is impossible then to define the banks of the deep cut where alone a safe channel exists. An extract from another source gives a lively idea of the dangers of the river:

"The upward-bound boats have to be dragged by main force round projecting reefs and isolated rocks which form rapids. The trackers are often compelled to take out 200 or 300 yards of the bamboo tow-line, which is constantly chafing against sharp rocks. The line, of course, frequently snaps, and the boat, being in such case perfectly helpless, is carried away at the mercy of the current, and is fortunate if she does not encounter a rock before she is secured to the shore. The downward-bound boats simply commit themselves to the current, keeping in the middle of the stream, and having just power enough in their oars to keep clear of rocks. But the great indentations in the bank, which is for the most part a broken wall of rock, and the inequalities in width and depth of the river, cause great whirlpools in which the boat is spun round and round beyond any power of control, and in this helpless condition she is often swept through the most dangerous rapids at the rate of eight or nine miles an hour, seeming scarcely to have escaped one rock in the channel when she is almost hurled on to another. The native traders regard the passage with horror. One man, who had been engaged in business in Szr-chwan, was so alarmed when we came to a rapid, that he invariably got out and walked, though this involved several hours of arduous climbing over rocks before he could rejoin the boat. It is calculated that out of ten boats, seven only arrive safely."

Baron Richthofen well states the advantages that would follow the conquest of this river:

"A population, perhaps equal in number to that of Great Britain, surpassing that of all other provinces in China in refinement, in average wealth, and in wants; applying skill and industry, in no common degree, to the raising a quantity of valuable and very varied produce; well adapted to intercourse with foreigners; commanding the commerce of two other provinces—this population is connected with the rest of the civilized world by one inconvenient mountain road, and one large river, the Yang-tze. That river is the outlet of the produce of the country, and its feeding channel as regards the supply from without. It is the main road of travel, and the only way by which the people can hope to have calamities such as the present famine mitigated, however imperfectly. Now, by overcoming a certain number of impetuous passages on a river otherwise fairly navigable, steamers can go amidst that population, and penetrate into the heart of the country, or, at least, to regions 1,800 miles from the sea, richly supplied with cheap coal. The produce of the country would then be carried at cheap rates and comparative safety to the great markets of Central and Eastern China; the imports would increase, and foreign goods laid at the door of a population to all appearances eager to receive them; and, finally, the terrible scourge attending the failure of the crops would in future be reduced, so as to have none but a temporary effect."

The Chinese boats are wrecked in great numbers, both in the passages up and down, and the yearly loss of life is very large in crews and passengers. At every dangerous gorge and rapid there are wrecking villages, the inhabitants of which live entirely on the plunder they collect from foundered boats.

Baron Richthofen's plan of travelling through Yünnan being frustrated by the disturbed state of the country, he could only give the information he collected by hearsay of that metal-bearing province. The metal treasures of China seem to be collected there. The most valuable are copper, white copper, lead, spelter, tin, and iron. Silver and gold are found, but in moderate quantities. In a foot-note, the Baron remarks upon the very small quantity of gold found in China, and upon the fact that, where produced, it is a sure sign of extreme indigence among the population. The reason of this is that the return is so poor that only where no other industry presents itself will any laborers seek for gold. Everywhere that they are seen, the aspect of the gold-diggers in China is miserable in the extreme. From Sü-chau-fu, therefore, a large city on the Yang-tze, about 1,500 miles from the sea, Baron Richthofen descended that river by Chinese boat to Hankow, being thirty-seven days on the passage, and having occupied five months in the land journey from Peking to Sü-chau-fu. We have necessarily omitted many interesting details regarding the products of the several provinces and the habits of the people; but enough, perhaps, has been given to show both the general character of the country and its population, and the remarkable qualities of the traveller who reports upon them.

SOME NOTABLE ENGLISH BOOKS.

LONDON, April 18, 1873.

THE holiday which we are all enjoying at the present moment is by no means devoid of topics of conversation. To say nothing of political rumors, we have a variety of those little incidents in which newspaper editors have selfish motives to rejoice, though of course they deplore their occurrence. There is the wreck of the *Atlantic;* there is the reported murder of poor Sir Samuel Baker; there is the melancholy story of the barrister who stole books to save himself from starvation; there is the eternal Tichborne case, which is again cropping up; and, if we are tired of listening to stories of crime and misery, we have various reasons for discussing the merits of co-operation, of secular education, of the law of conspiracy as applied to strikes, and of a number of other subjects, such as delight the souls of social science associations. I shall, however, on the present occasion, turn from these enticing topics to dwell for a little upon two or three literary events which have an interest of their own. I will venture in the first place to call the attention of your readers to a book which is just coming out, entitled 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.' The author is announced to be Mr. Fitzjames Stephen; but the book has already appeared in the form of letters addressed to the *Pall Mall Gazette*. Mr. Stephen, as it is no breach of confidence to say, is generally known to have contributed to that paper a number of the articles to which it chiefly owes its character. Although many persons, especially persons of a sentimental and enthusiastic turn of mind, are apt to complain of the said articles as cynical and brutal, and to bestow other damnatory epithets upon them, nobody who admires good, forcible English can deny their extraordinary merit as literary productions. Mr. Stephen, in fact, is probably the greatest living master of a style of writing which is characteristic of some of our best authors. Englishmen, I may say, whatever their defects in other directions, have a splendid faculty

for wielding the intellectual sledge-hammer. That vigorous common-sense of which we are apt to boast rather excessively, is yet a reality, and, in its way, a very admirable reality, in the writings of such men, for example, as Swift or Johnson or Cobbett. Mr. Stephen has a considerable affinity with authors of that class. Occasionally he is rather clumsy in expression; he indulges in few flowers of rhetoric, and he may occasionally shock the sensibilities of the connoisseurs who prefer the finer literary essences. But in terse masculine vernacular in smashing a fallacy and squelching a windbag he has no living rival. Of course, he is pugnacious and stamps on a good many toes pretty heavily. Positivists would excommunicate him forthwith; Ultramontanes curse him in the name of their faith; the gentle *Spectator* and its friends of the Broad-Church persuasion shriek at his brutalities; Mr. Mill's disciples, and especially the believers in woman, are utterly scandalized by his assaults on their pet commonplaces; and, in short, he finds few sympathizers and, indeed, few parties to whose knuckles he has not administered some not overgentle raps. But then he is perfectly capable of standing on his own legs. He can treat his enemies to the hug of a bear or a wrestler. Perhaps the writers with whom he is in the closest sympathy are Mr. Carlyle and his disciple, Mr. Froude. But then Mr. Carlyle, translated into strong, sound sense, deprived of his poetry and his peculiar dialect, is Mr. Carlyle no longer; and Mr. Froude has a vein of sentimentalism which is as alien as possible to Mr. Stephen's modes of thought. His likeness to our literary prophet consists chiefly in an uncompromising hatred of every kind of humbug and a certain mode of thought (for it is too indefinite to be called a system) which may be described as Protestantism stripped of all its dogmas.

Anybody who reads the *Pall Mall Gazette* learns very soon to recognize his style, and such persons will not require any elaborate analysis of his tendencies. The letters of which I now speak give a kind of summary of his creed, and they will, I venture to think, be worth reading by any one who takes an interest in the development of modern English speculation. For, though few people would accompany Mr. Stephen throughout, and many will be repelled by the clear assertion of the logical consequences of their own opinions, he represents very fairly a large body of more or less latent opinion. He takes for his text the doctrines of which the fullest expression is given in Mr. Mill's 'Liberty,' and he certainly shows them no quarter. It would be useless for me in this space to express any opinion as to his success in attacking theories which pass for first principles with our modern radicals. The questions involved are very wide and lead into all manner of collateral discussions. I will therefore merely say that anybody who wants to know what a staunch English reasoner, who refuses to be put off with words, has got to say against theories of the rights of women, the duty of the state to be absolutely neutral in view of all religious controversies, and so on, cannot do better than refer to these letters on 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.' Probably he will be of opinion that a good many humbugs are very effectively exposed, whilst in many other cases the defenders of the ordinary principles would be driven to seek some firmer foundation than those platitudes on which they are accustomed to rest their case. I will add that, to me, the weakest part of the book seems to be the reconstructive. In dispersing all kinds of shams, the very small residuum of doctrine which Mr. Stephen regards as capable of affording satisfaction to a reasonable mind strikes one as a little too scanty for one's needs. However, I will content myself with referring your readers to a book which, if not conclusive or sufficiently comprehensive, is at least a striking protest against the theories which are apt at the present day to pass current without question. Much is due to anybody who will make one think by applying a definite and tangible test to all plausible theories without flinching; for if he does not destroy one's faith, he forces one to examine its foundations.

Various symptoms might be quoted to show that discussions of this kind are employing men's minds more than they have done for some time past. It would be hard to find a greater contrast to Mr. Stephen than Mr. Matthew Arnold, who has lately been putting forth his profession of religious faith. The passage (which all the critics quote) about the three Lord Shaftesburys is an odd instance of a lapse from good taste of a writer whose good taste is precisely his strongest point. The book is throughout a curious exemplification of the ferment which is taking place in our minds. Mr. Arnold puts into his graceful language and covers with a fine glow of religious sentiment an amount of real scepticism which would, a very few years ago, have made the hair of the orthodox stand on end. When God is blandly resolved into "a general stream of tendency," and this view is put forward as on the whole consoling to a religious mind, one begins to feel that the ancient landmarks are indeed shaken. Another book, not quite dissimilar in tone, is Mr. Greg's 'Enigmas of Life.' Both of them, if I interpret them rightly, aim at throwing a veil of religiosity over scientific conceptions, and making gentle emotion do the work of positive belief; the harsh contrasts which downright sceptics bring into violent relief are toned down as much as possible; and the attempt is made to smooth the transition from the old to the new, by treating ancient figments as tenderly as possible and sidling with averted gaze into the new attitudes of thought. There is, indeed, nothing very new or startling in the method. Rationalizers of many varieties, both in England and on the Continent, have been laboring for generations at the same task and with powers considerably greater. The only remarkable thing is that such speculators enjoy a popularity in England just now which has hitherto been scarcely conceded to them. We are moving with a rapidity which is daily becoming more sensible. Poor Mr. Maurice's speculations, which I remember to have caused infinite scandal some twenty years ago, would now be regarded as hopelessly retrograde. The dose of orthodox dogma which is necessary to sweeten rationalism for the popular palate is growing daily more homœopathic, and we are now satisfied by the thinnest of moonshine. When Mr. Gladstone has once more time to devote himself to theology instead of politics, he will find that the sentiments which so shocked him in Strauss's last book have already become commonplace; and he will have still more leeway to make up in order to bring himself into harmony with the outside world.

I will venture to mention two other books which have made or seem calculated to make a certain stir in the world, and both of which touch one important problem. A novel called 'Joshua Davidson' is a translation into terms of modern society of the career of the founder of Christianity. What would Christ have been if he had lived now? and what, therefore, was his real character? are the questions suggested by the book, though the answer does not seem to be very definite. It is in fact not much more than a smart reproduction of the revolutionary assertion that Christ was the first *sans-culotte;* and though written with a good deal of cleverness, I do not imagine that it has much value except as a proof of the popular interest taken in such speculations as those of Strauss and Renan. When novelists begin to deal with such problems, it is plain that the ideas connected with them have spread far beyond the circle of professors and writers. The other book to which I refer is a singular production called the 'Fair Haven.' Ostensibly it contains the remains of a certain John Prichard Owen, preceded by a brief memoir of his life. The memoir describes how Mr. Owen, brought up under orthodox influences, gradually lapsed into scepticism, and how his opinions then slowly underwent a process of reconstruction and became what is generally known as Broad Church. Soon after this happy consummation Mr. Owen unluckily became idiotic, and died after passing four years in that condition. His remains consist of an argument ostensibly intended to defend the reality of Christ's death and resurrection. The ordinary arguments on the subject are put forward with great care and elaboration. The intention of the author is apparently to do full justice to both sides of the question. The imaginary author—for Mr. Owen is a fictitious person—is ultimately convinced of the truth of Christianity; but the impression which is meant to be left upon the mind of the reader is that he was a fool for being so convinced. His lapse into idiocy is in fact symbolical of the true nature of his intellectual history. This, at least, is the impression made upon some intelligent readers; others may not impossibly consider the whole argument as a *bona-fide* defence of Christianity. Such a book is a literary curiosity, and it is written with an ability which should attract some attention. I have not, however, seen it noticed as yet in any critical quarter; but I mention it as possibly interesting to your readers, if only as significant of our religious tendencies at this moment.

Correspondence.

THE DEFENCE OF INSANITY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I venture to call your attention and that of your readers to the very sound and able argument of Mr. Henry L. Clinton, delivered April 15 before the Judiciary Committee of the New York Senate, in favor of a bill in relation to the defence of insanity in criminal cases. (Pamphlet, pp. 41; Baker & Godwin, prs.) The passage of such a law would be an immense stride towards the public security.

Three things have operated strongly to prevent proper convictions by juries in capital cases:

1. The testimony of physicians such as Dr. Ray, who, looking solely (and properly enough for their profession) to the cure of diseased brains, are in danger of considering insanity and crime as identical, and to be treated accordingly.

2. The sentimentalist theory that the end of punishment is the reforma-

tion of the criminal. Both physicians and philanthropists need to be constantly reminded that the object of criminal justice is the security of society against future crime.

3. A feeling on the part of juries and the community that the act of the murderer was not morally wrong—that regarding the murdered man it merely "served him right." This is the efficient cause of such verdicts as the Sickles, the Mary Harris, the Cole, and others unfortunately numerous.

I have frequently considered whether some such a statute as the following might not be useful in preventing at least that entire failure of justice which seems now to be the inevitable result of the unwillingness of juries to take life in such cases, viz., "In all trials for murder, it shall be competent for the accused to give in evidence the seduction or rape of his wife, daughter, or sister by the person charged to have been murdered, and if such seduction or rape be established to the satisfaction of the jury, they shall render a verdict of guilty of murder in the second degree, notwithstanding the killing may have been deliberate or premeditated."

I throw out this suggestion, not without doubts whether it might not in some cases be taken as a license to kill, but still as a suggestion for a remedy of an unquestionably serious evil. Probably Mr. Clinton's act might practically accomplish all that this would. M.

PHILADELPHIA, April 28, 1873.

MINISTERIAL RESPONSIBILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your review of Mr. Cushing's book has not touched upon one point which seems to me not the least important. Mr. Cushing indulges in expressions of pity for the British Ministry because, during the progress of the arbitration, they were vexed and harassed by the attacks of the Opposition, and were placed in a false position through their responsibility to individual enquiry in Parliament, while on the other hand he admires the calm and undisturbed attitude of our Government. Now what, in fact, was the effect of the secrecy and irresponsibility of our Administration? That a claim which put every honorable man to the blush, and is described mildly by the term "sharp practice," was, by the joint action of the counsel and the Under-Secretary of State, put forth to the world as the deliberate act of the Government and people of the United States.

What, on the other hand, was the effect of British publicity and responsibility? The Ministry, through the negligence of Earl Granville, came very near allowing the indirect claims to be considered. It was Parliamentary enquiry, followed by the roar of public indignation, which compelled them to take a stand against the indirect claims, and it was most fortunate that this took place while it could with honesty, before the arbitration began; because if the nation had refused, as it certainly would have done, to abide by the award after it was made, it would have been disgraced, and there would have been imminent danger of war.

If, as Mr. Cushing seems to think, the Government should exist for the personal comfort of officials, it is a pity he did not flourish at the court of Louis Napoleon; but if for the benefit of the nation, his attack upon the British system is well suited to the rest of the book. G. B.

BOSTON, May 3, 1873.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in press 'Comets and Meteors: their Phenomena in all Ages; their Mutual Relations; and the Theory of their Origin,' by Prof. Daniel Kirkwood, of the Indiana University; 'The Years of Youth,' poems by Horace Rowe; 'The New Theology; or, Brevities of Christian Doctrine,' by Henry B. Browning; and numerous novels. We are glad to observe that 'Macbeth,' of Mr. Furness's Variorum edition of Shakespeare, having been offered at $3, the same reduced price will now be put upon the preceding volume of 'Romeo and Juliet.' To understand how cheap this is, one must examine these elegant publications.——The third number of Mr. N. B. Dennys's *China Review* has a number of articles of general interest, the longest being the translated "Adventures of a Chinese Giant," a sort of Chinese Fanfulla; the "Symbols of the Yih-King"; "The Colony of Hongkong," from a lecture by Rev. James Legge, which supplements chronologically one delivered in Shanghai two months later by the venerable Dr. Williams, on the early days of foreigners in Canton, previous to 1840; "Chinese Medicine"; "Chinese Philology," in which Mr. Edkins runs a tilt against Dr. Eitel; "Notes on Chinese Mohammedan Literature," etc., etc. There are the usual Notes and Queries on Eastern matters, and short notices of books.——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'A Smaller History of England,' by Benson J. Lossing: a new Classical Atlas with text, by Leonard Schmitz, LL.D.; 'Absolute Religion,' by the late Prof. T. C. Upham; and 'Quickstar,' by the author of 'Blindpits.'

—A meeting of the American Social Science Association will be held at Boston, beginning May 13. The opening paper by Mr. Dorman B. Eaton on "Municipal Government" will carry a good deal of weight on account of the author's known large experience in the matter, as well as of his eminent ability. Mr. J. S. Ropes reads a paper on the "Resumption of Specie Payments," and Gen. Walker presents some considerations based upon the late census. There will be a paper by Col. Higginson on the "Higher Education of Women," and some statements are expected from officers of Vassar College in regard to the practical working of that institution. One of the most noteworthy papers to be offered is a "History of the International Society," by Mr. D. A. Wasson, whose long residence abroad and deep interest in the subject give him a certain fitness for the task. Interesting papers are also promised on "Laws in Relation to Pharmacy," and on "Some Physiological Facts in Relation to Crime," the latter from Dr. Jarvis. Altogether, the meeting seems likely to be of great interest, and to be fruitful of suggestions leading to practical results.

—"F." writes us, from the University of Wisconsin: "In Mr. W. J. Stillman's article of April 17, 'The Records of Primitive Civilization,' occurs the following passage: 'Remark here how singularly suggestive is the fact that *the Etruscan language has no analogy with any other known, nor can the inscriptions, though collated with everything hitherto discovered in ancient or modern language, be deciphered.*' Although older authorities, like C. O. Müller, Lepsius, Lanzi, Donaldson, Klenze, and others, advance mere theories concerning the ethnological relation of the Etruscan which might excuse the above statement, yet there were good enough reasons for believing that it belonged to the Aryan family. Prof. Ascoli of Milan, in his 'Glossology,' a comparative phonology of Sanscrit, Greek, and Latin, mentions the Etruscan as an Aryan dialect, although it had not been sufficiently investigated to afford a secure basis for comparison. Since then Prof. Ascoli's colleague, Prof. Elia Lattes, has published several treatises on Etruscan inscriptions, in which he arrives at the conclusion that the *Etruscan not only belongs to the Aryan stock, but is an Italic idiom.* Mr. Schweizer-Sidler, in a notice on Prof. Lattes's papers, informs us that Corssen has reached similar results, which will soon be published. In conclusion, I would call attention to a recent publication of Dr. Von Maack, 'Die Entzifferung des Etruskischen und deren Bedeutung für nordische Archäologie und für die Urgeschichte Europas' (Hamburg, 1873)."

—"You remark so often and so justly," writes G. E. W., jr., "on the want of thoroughness in the management of our public and private affairs, and sustain your opinion with so many instances of really good work in Europe and of halfway work in America, that I trust you will be willing to call attention to an example of well-earned success in a field where halfway work stands no chance. Mr. C. S. Sargent, Professor of Horticulture at Harvard, has now thrown open to the public his fine collection of azaleas at Brookline, and hundreds of visitors daily enjoy his generosity. Good wine needs no bush, and the fame of this exhibition spreads from mouth to mouth, so that those who live in and near Boston need no public announcement of the pleasure these plants offer them; but there are many lovers of horticulture in other parts of the country to whom it is only just to say that this collection is not only well worth a journey to Boston, but that it is the finest exhibition of azaleas the world has ever seen, the loan exhibition at Kew and the fine display at the Paris Exposition not being excepted. There are not many more than 200 plants; but every one of them would be considered an acquisition in any private collection, and most of them are incomparably fine specimens. The queen of the house is a 'Decora,' sixteen feet in circumference, its perfectly-shaped dome being about five feet high, and having more than three thousand superb blossoms. This plant is nearly thirty years old, and has always been trained with the greatest care. To a certain class of minds, its quality will be best expressed by the statement that $1,000 has been offered for it; and the average quality of the collection may be estimated from the fact that it is not at all out of place among its present companions. Professor Sargent, in connection with Mr. Hunnewell, of Wellesley, is now arranging for a show of rhododendrons, on Boston Common, late in May, which in its way will be equally remarkable."

—Mr. James Brooks, the well-known editor and politician, died in Washington on the last day of April, having not long since entered upon the sixty-third year of his age. He may be said to have begun his public life at the age of twenty-five, as in 1835 he was sent to the Legislature of Maine. His career was in one sense of the word a common one, for similar labors and successes have occurred in the experience of very many Americans

but it showed him to possess some uncommon qualities. He was of poor parentage; at eleven years of age he was a clerk in a country store; five years later he was teacher of a district school; at twenty-one he had graduated at the college in Waterville in his native State, and at twenty-five he had become an editor and a legislator, having in the meantime, if our memory does not mislead us, been the Washington correspondent of a Maine newspaper at a time when Washington correspondents were a great rarity, and when their letters did much of the work now done by the telegraph. In 1836, he came to New York and founded the *Express*, a journal now of little influence, and little known outside of this city, except to the politicians who knew its owner and to the professional journalist. It was and is, however, a valuable property. Mr. Brooks, a Whig in those days, and a highly partisan Whig, was first sent to Congress in 1849, and served two terms, after having previously served one term at Albany. In 1862, when he had become a Democrat because the Whig party had disappeared, and he was a pro-slavery politician—or was unable to go along with the Republican party—he went to Congress again, and he has been kept there pretty constantly ever since; in 1864, however, his seat was successfully contested by Mr. William E. Dodge. Unfortunately for his reputation, he sat in the Forty-second Congress. He was one of the few Congressmen who have been declared by a Congressional Committee to have been deserving of expulsion. We need not here and now dwell long upon this close to what should have been a different public life; but something it seems proper to say when we are invited to pay our "tribute of respect" to the memory of a Crédit Mobilier Congressman. Mr. Brooks has published at one time and another some records of his travels, which were extensive, but they have no place in literature.

—The name of the late Mr. John R. Thompson is familiar to the student of American literary history rather than to the reader of American literature. He was the friend of Edgar Poe, and all who have read the story of that unfortunate life know how indulgent a friend Mr. Thompson was. He was born in 1823 in Virginia, and was destined for the law, which he somewhat studied, but of which he was not fond. Like many quick-minded young men destined for that profession, he considered himself predestined for what the Virginians of forty years ago, in common with some of the rest of us, no doubt described as the Muses. Literary labor, or perhaps we ought to say the pleasures of the pursuit of literature not too laborious or severe, engaged his affections, and the law he very speedily left. In 1845, at the age of twenty-two, he began to be the editor of the *Southern Literary Messenger*, a magazine then ten years old. While conducting this miscellany, Mr. Thompson became pleasantly known to most of our writers of that day, and also to some of their English contemporaries, and these pleasant relation she would seem to have the more easily maintained by reason of his sunny, friendly, and unselfish disposition and character. Many different descriptions of him agree in their high praise of his good-heartedness and his courtesy, and if these praises appear too unrestrained and without measure, why, it is much to have called out enthusiastic and ill-measured praise and affection. What heightens the picture thus drawn is the fact that for a long time Mr. Thompson was the victim of ill health, which might well have diminished his unselfishness and kindness; for some years he has been looking in the face of an inevitable death, consumption having seized upon him. For the few years just passed since the close of the war, Mr. Thompson has been on the editorial staff of the *Evening Post*. During the war he was in England, and it is right to say that while there he was connected with the notorious *Index*. That was a paper extremely hostile to the Federal Government, and very ardent in its support of the Confederates. Mr. Thompson fully believed in the virtue and the fortune of the Southern cause, and his pen obeyed his conscience and his intellect; as these, with such enlightenment as was vouchsafed them, directed him, he shaped his course. This is a matter about which it is fortunately not necessary to say too much now. Of Mr. Thompson's literary productions, there is none that calls for much consideration; they all answered sufficiently well the purpose of the moment, and none of them was fated, probably none was designed, to last. He, however, translated exceptionally well some few French poems, and this is more than can usually be said of writers of his grade and his nativity.

—Mr. Forster's 'Life of Dickens' for a moment recalled to the attention of this generation the fact that his friend Macready was still among the living; for another moment, the death of Edwin Forrest, whose name will in this country at least be connected with Macready's as long as the name of either is remembered, brought back to recollection the most tragical event in modern theatrical history. Now we have news that Macready's long life has ended. He was born so long ago as 1793, and was by birth a native of "the nation of London," the "most kindly nurse," as one of the greatest of Londoners has called it, of a noble roll of renowned men. His father, a manager by profession, was also the lessee of several theatres. By one and another of these he made a certain amount of money, and as he, like many other managers and actors, regarded the actor's profession, considered as a career, with but little favor, he determined on fitting his son for better things by giving him a good education. The boy was sent to Eton and thence was on the point of proceeding to Oxford, but the revenues of the actor and manager are proverbially insecure, and his father's affairs became so very much embarrassed when Macready was about seventeen years old, that instead of going to the university the boy had to betake himself to the stage. He had however profited by his Etonian instruction, which laid the foundation of that reputation as a scholarly gentleman which he afterwards bore and which was so constantly referred to by his titled and literary friends. His successes at first in provincial theatres, and afterwards in London and in Paris, belong to the brilliant annals of the stage. That the Parisians liked him still better than the Londoners is asserted, and perhaps may serve to explain why we on this side of the water were rather inclined to think him artificial, cold, and dull. That seems to have been the general opinion about his acting, though the fact that he made three professional visits to this country indicates that people paid to see him and hear him, whether or not he could have ever become a general favorite. We may cautiously suspect, however, that in 1826, or later in 1843, or even still later in 1849, a quarter of a century ago, we were, on the whole, not so good dramatic critics as the Parisians of the same date. It is certain that a great many of our deceased fathers and uncles and aunts thought that Mr. Macready could not compare with the late Mr. Forrest, who was then young, and strong, and healthy, and who did, we must admit, occasionally flash out something that was very like a hot flame of genius. Mr. Forrest, whose violence and rant had on one occasion provoked some hisses from an English audience, was very much indeed of this opinion; and as he had the self-conceit and arrogance of a demon, he chose to believe these signs of disapproval to have been instigated by Macready's professional jealousy. How this notion resulted in the bloody death of twenty-two people, and the wounding of thirty others, is known to everybody, and many New Yorkers now living well recollect the Astor Place riot. Forrest and his Bowery friends probably suffered far less of the consequences of his crime than fell to the lot of innocent bystanders. The affair afforded ample illustration of a fact which may profitably be pondered by every New Yorker who remembers the 12th of July, 1871—namely, that when we do bring out our militiamen to deal with a mob, we are apt to deal with it in an excessively costly manner. But probably an outrage such as that perpetrated at Astor Place would now be dealt with by a body of policemen, as indeed the Orange riot probably might have been. Mr. Macready retired from the stage in 1871. He had of late years become a devout Methodist, and occupied himself much with schemes for the education of the poor.

—No English work of extraordinary merit has made its appearance during the past three months. From the lists of books published and books announced during that period, we select what seem to us the most noteworthy, excluding those already mentioned in these columns. Mr. Darwin is an author whom, as commanding universal attention, it is always proper to begin with. While his latest work on the 'Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals' has not yet been laid on the shelf by the critics, he is preparing another: 'The Evil Effects of Interbreeding in the Vegetable Kingdom.' Another announcement has perhaps more interest for Americans as such: Mr. Motley's 'Life and Death of John of Barneveldt, including the History of the Primary Causes and Movements of the Thirty Years' War.' De Tocqueville's 'State of Society in France before the Revolution of 1789,' translated by H. J. Reeve; and Voltaire's 'Charles XII.,' with notes by Gustave Masson, are welcome borrowings in the field of history. Biography is represented by the fifth volume of the Duke of Wellington's 'Civil and Political Correspondence'; a further selection from the entertaining 'Diaries and Letters of Sir George Jackson (1809–1816)'; 'Life and Correspondence of Sir John Burgoyne,' by his son-in-law; 'List of Roman Catholics in the County of York, 1704'; and a 'Biographical Sketch of Sir Anthony Panizzi, late Principal Librarian of the British Museum,' by Robert Cowan. Geographical works and books of travel abound: 'Rio Grande do Sul and its German Colonies,' by M. G. Mulhall; 'Notes of Travel in New Zealand and Australia,' by Anthony Trollope; 'British Guiana, the Essequibo and Potaro Rivers,' with a map, by Lieut.-Col. Webber; 'Wild Wales: its People, Language, and Scenery,' by G. Borrow; 'A Book about Bristol,' by J. Taylor; a 'History of Plymouth,' by Llewellyn Jewett; 'Ireland in 1872,' by Dr. J. Macaulay; 'Through Spain by Rail in 1872,' by Alfred Elwes; 'Berlin of To-day,' by Henry and Edward Vizetelly; 'Harz Mountains: a Tour in the Toy District,' by Henry Blackburn; Tozer's 'Lectures on the Geography of Greece'; 'Egypt as It Is,' with a map, by Herr H.

Stephen; 'Lahore to Yarkand: Route of the Expedition of 1870,' by G. Henderson and Allan O. Hume; and 'England and Russia in the East,' by Sir Henry Rawlinson.

—Earl Russell's 'Essays on the Rise and Progress of the Christian Religion in the West of Europe, from the Reign of Tiberius to the End of the Council of Trent,' may lead off our theological list, which embraces also: 'Lectures on the Pentateuch and the Moabite Stone,' by Bishop Colenso; 'A Work Illustrative and Explanatory of the Various Books of the Bible,' edited by Rev. Prof. Plumptre; Matthew Arnold's 'Literature and Dogma'; W. R. Greg's 'Enigmas of Life'; 'The Asiatic in England: Sketches of Sixteen Years' Work among the Orientals in London,' by Joseph Salter; and Dr. Wm. Smith's 'Dictionary of Christian Antiquities and Biography' and 'Student's Manual of Ecclesiastical History.' In political and social science we are promised: 'Results of the English Census of 1871,' compiled and edited by James Lewis; 'Our Judicial System, as compared with those of other Nations,' by W. F. Finlason; 'Comparative Politics,' by Edward A. Freeman; and 'Lombard Street: a Description of the Money Market,' by Walter Bagehot. 'The Intellectual Life,' by P. G. Hamerton; 'Russian Folk Tales,' by W. R. S. Ralston; and 'Two Centuries of Ceramic Art in Bristol,' by Richard Champion, conclude our present summary.

LANFREY'S NAPOLEON I.*

THE second volume of M. Lanfrey's work appears, in all material points, fully to sustain the opinions expressed in our review of the first volume. The history of Napoleon is brought down to the Decree of Berlin in 1806. The Emperor's star has almost reached the zenith. We follow its astounding rise, wondering and pensive, but without being dazzled even for a single moment. If we had never heard the tale of the conflagration of Moscow, of the winter of 1812, of Leipzig, and of the "hundred days," M. Lanfrey's narrative would still not allow us to doubt for one instant that this sunward flight of the "meteor" is, from the beginning, nothing but the hurrying on to a terrible fall. The justice and the morality, or, in one still shorter word, the logic of history speaks out of every page with such a force and clearness that a child cannot fail to understand it. The historical facts, told with a simplicity and chastity quite remarkable in a Frenchman, enforce the moral unaided by any extra efforts of the author's moralizing faculties. Yet there is no lack of warmth. Every page strongly bears the impress of M. Lanfrey's individuality. With unimpeachable honesty he tries to write *history*, but not as the passionless muse of history would write it; it is M. Lanfrey, the man of stern political morality, and with a positive political creed, the sworn enemy of Cæsarism—nay, it is M. Lanfrey, the Frenchman, out of whose innermost heart every line is written. Everything is called by its right name, and that enables him to understand the legitimate bearing of everything. So he speaks (p. 572) of the *murder* of Palm, and goes on to say:

"The murder of this innocent man caused a shudder among all the German population. Shooting might have been an efficacious means in the half-savage provinces of Naples; but in the heart of civilized Europe, and in the midst of a people that had not yet been fashioned to servitude, the effect produced was far less that of fear than of anger and indignation."

He does not doubt that Napoleon would have eventually made true the threat addressed to Mack, that he would deal with the Austrians in Ulm as he had done with the garrison of Jaffa, and that the army would have executed the order if it had been given. But he makes the confession with a bleeding heart, for it is not only *Napoleon*, the *French* army, etc., he speaks of: it is always *we*, *our* army. We cannot, therefore, but sympathize with him as a man when he tries whether he could not possibly wipe off some of the shame clinging to the military laurels of this *our* army, although we must deny to him as an historian that the following description is a true picture of the army of 1805: "They were soldiers, but they were soldiers who remembered that they had been citizens; they were the tools of his despotism, but they had been formed by liberty; they were, in spite of everything, sons of the Revolution. Napoleon was less their master than their favorite. He was their work. He was not in their eyes a sovereign, but a sort of military tribune" (p. 466). The revolutionary recollections had at this time faded away into an imperceptible shadow. The army was drunk with Cæsarism—and worse than this. M. Lanfrey must himself confess: "They required not only honors but riches, great undertakings to occupy their activity, and nations to spoil to satisfy their covetousness."

It still, however, remains true that this unconscious desire to save a little more out of the general brilliant ruin than there really is to be saved, never degenerates into injustice towards the enemies of Napoleon. Occasionally M. Lanfrey even goes a little too far on the other side. Thus, for instance, he gives quite a romantic coloring to the death of Prince Louis Ferdinand in the battle of Saalfeld. On p. 586, he says: "He [the prince] made several charges at the head of his cavalry, and for an instant succeeded in renewing the combat. In one of these charges, carried into the thick of the fight, he was perceived engaged hand in hand with our horsemen, struggling to the last like a man who had resolved not to survive defeat, and refusing to surrender after having seen all his companions fall around him. A hussar, to whose summons he replied by a thrust with his sword, ran his sabre through his body." The sober, historical fact is that the prince was carried along by the general rout. But for a mere accident, he would have saved himself. Quartermaster Guindet, of the Tenth Regiment of Hussars, overtook him in the pursuit, one foot of his horse being caught in clearing a fence. This mistake is, no doubt, attributable to the author's want of knowledge of German authorities and sources—by far the greatest deficiency in the work, as we have already pointed out in the review of the first volume. It is certainly not of great importance whether the Austrians "passed the Inn on the 17th of September" (p. 465) or on the 8th (at Schärding), as the fact is; but it is annoying to meet with even such mistakes in a generally reliable and really praiseworthy book. Of very great importance is it, however, that several of the principal scenes in the great Napoleonic tragedy are too exclusively presented from but one point of view. Viewed from the front, so to speak—*i. e.*, from the French side—everything is perfectly clear, while a comparatively dim twilight reigns on the opposite side. The picture being taken as a whole, light and shadow are therefore not quite correctly distributed. The general impression we receive is partly erroneous, not so much on account of misstatements as because many things are omitted which ought to have been stated.

Let us take the catastrophe at Ulm as an instance. All M. Lanfrey has to tell us of Mack is that he was "a general already celebrated by his ill luck" (p. 455). Napoleon knew more of him, and upon this knowledge this boldest of all his campaigns was partly based. He knew him to be a genuine offspring of the whole rotten Austrian system, a great general at the "green table," every hour ready with a dozen new "plans," every one of them almost too sublime for such a military genius as Napoleon himself, but an unsurpassable bungler on a mere corporal's errand, and never in his life guilty of the slightest conception of the political situation. It was not only the great captain, but quite as much the keen-sighted psychologist, who planned the wonderful campaign of 1805; it was not only the incompetent general, but quite as much the naturally narrow-headed *man*, "dead drunk with self-admiration," who brought down this crushing disaster on the tottering power of Austria. Furthermore, leaving that quite aside, it was not only Mack, nay, not even principally Mack, upon whom the responsibility rested. It is not enough to say that the Austrians had but 70,000 to 80,000 men in Bavaria, and that, therefore, Napoleon was certain to annihilate them with his superior army of over 200,000 men, provided Mack was foolish enough to await him. We must know that, to gratify the animosities of the Vienna "Council of War," the Archduke Charles, the best Austrian general, was sent to Italy, where the decision of the campaign could not possibly fall; that the Austrians could have crossed the Inn several weeks earlier, and thereby forced Bavaria into an alliance; that Russia hurried to the rescue with tortoise speed, because she would persist in her distrustful squinting towards Prussia; that Russia as well as Austria had tremendous armies on paper, with which they threw sand in each other's eyes, manœuvring with the dead figures as if they were actual men of flesh and blood—in short, we must see the working of the whole system in order to understand that the campaign of 1805, like all the victorious campaigns of Napoleon, is not only the wonderful exploit of a towering military genius, but the legitimate result of the long-continued and general rotting of the old monarchies. Although the author has failed to show all that, yet there is a heavier burden resting on Mack's shoulders than M. Lanfrey has put on them. He says (on p. 469), speaking of the 8th of October: "This little struggle [at Wertingen] was the first affair of the campaign, and it was only by those who returned from it that Mack and the Archduke Ferdinand . . . *at length learned their true position.*" And on p. 471: "They had been forced, in fact, at length to open their eyes before the overwhelming evidence of a peril which the last soldier could understand as clearly as the chiefs of the army." Now, in spite of the really "overwhelming evidence," Mack's eyes were, at this time, so far from being opened to his "true position," that he still maintained on the 15th of October—*i. e.*, a week later and the very day the French took possession of the heights around the city—that "the army of the enemy is in the most terrible situation; it is impossible that it can hold itself more than a few days in the country."

All these deficiencies—and a great many more of a similar character might be pointed out—do not, however, essentially impair the value of the work,

* 'The History of Napoleon the First. By P. Lanfrey.' Vol. II. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. Pp. 604.

which, in our judgment, is principally of a moral and political character. Our historical knowledge has not been materially increased by it; but a true history of Napoleon I., written by a German or an English scholar, could never have found its way to the firesides of the French people. The "Napoleonic Legend" invented by M. Thiers could, so far as the French are concerned, be crushed only by a Frenchman. This M. Lanfrey is doing, and the sincere thanks of every true friend of political morality, genuine civilization, progress, and liberty are due to him.

THE MAGAZINES FOR MAY.

MR. ADAMS'S eulogizing of Mr. Seward, and his refraining from eulogy of Mr. Lincoln, have very recently caused many people to consider once more the relative services of the various distinguished civilians brought into prominence by the war, and the whole subject has become freshly interesting. Mr. Gideon Welles's article in the *Galaxy* will, then, attract many readers, and anybody who goes through it will find his expenditure of time and patience measurably repaid. We cannot say that it appears to be a very important contribution to history. Mr. Welles's object—not clearly avowed, however—seems to be to show that when Captain Wilkes seized Mason and Slidell, but allowed the *Trent* to proceed on her voyage, and thus put his own Government technically in the wrong, the Navy Department did not fully share in the general joy and gratulation, but on the contrary had some prevision of the trouble in store for us. The article rehearses a paragraph from the report of the Secretary of the Navy (Mr. Welles) for 1861, which indeed does not rejoice with a perfect joy over the *San Jacinto's* exploit, for it deprecates Captain Wilkes's "too generous forbearance in not capturing the vessel which had these rebel enemies on board," and asserts that "it must by no means be permitted to constitute a precedent hereafter." But there is nothing at all about the dubious legality of the arrest. A letter to Captain Wilkes Mr. Welles also cites, but this is of the same force, and in precisely the same sense, as the language of the report: "It is not necessary," the Secretary writes to Wilkes, whom at this moment the Bostonians were feasting, without giving much regard to the international aspects of his action—"it is not necessary that I should in this communication—which is intended to be one of congratulation to yourself, officers, and crew—express an opinion on the course pursued in omitting to capture the vessel which had these public enemies on board, further than to say that the forbearance exercised in this instance must not be permitted to constitute a precedent," etc., etc., etc. Here, again, we have no intimation whatever that to the "two elephants on our hands," as Mr. Lincoln called the rebel commissioners as soon as he heard of their capture, our title was fatally defective. Mr. Welles remarks, as if in justification of his letter to Wilkes, that a long interval of peace and of the rigid observance of neutral rights had made our officers extremely reluctant to treat neutrals with the harshness necessary in time of war, and that "it was felt to be impolitic to reflect upon the audacity of Wilkes" (though too audacious he might have been) while other commanders needed stimulating. Furthermore, the Navy Department was unwilling to chill the zeal of the people, who were extremely indignant with England, and to wound the feelings of a gallant officer who had displayed decision and intelligence. The congratulatory letter was therefore written. That it would have been written all the same had the Navy Department clearly known at the moment the law of the case, we are left to infer; but how safe an inference this would be we shall not undertake to surmise. We may readily concede that, in the early days of the war, Secretaries of the Navy and other officials "called, as most of them were, from private life," as Mr. Welles in another place reminds us, should have made many mistakes of ignorance and bad judgment. As regards the case of the *Trent*, Mr. Lincoln's Cabinet, if judged by Mr. Welles's statements, would appear to have been a little out in its law at first, and to have greatly underestimated the insolence and ill-will of the Palmerstonian Ministry. We can all recollect how troops and ammunition of war were immediately ordered to Canada; how the British squadrons in our waters were reinforced, and how a royal proclamation forbade the selling of arms and the shipment of saltpetre and other war supplies. And we can all agree with Mr. Adams that Mr. Seward's skilful and adroit note, diplomatically soothing the national pride by its assertion of the triumph of American principles in the rendition of the two emissaries, was a most useful and important achievement. It need not blind us to the fact that Mr. Lincoln was by no means the unknown and unrespected man that Mr. Adams's recent address might permit some of its readers to imagine; but certain it is—if Mr. Adams's knowledge of the facts be not at fault—that to Mr. Seward's great self-control, ability, tact, and readiness we owe a vast debt. We perhaps may well doubt if the country would have parted so far with its native good sense as to have entered on a war with England while the rebellion was still unsubdued; it would be unbecoming in an American to doubt that had such a war been entered upon we should in the end have had our way; but Mr. Seward's solution of the difficulty was infinitely the best, and saved an enormous deal of bad blood. We had been in the wrong, and he put us in the right; we had been tied up, as it were, and there seemed for us only a choice between a slap in the face and a knock on the head, and he adroitly put us in the position of a magnanimous belligerent, whose courtesy had been to his own detriment, but who would put up with the injury because he had long pleaded for a principle the adoption of which would make such injuries impossible. Reflecting on the quality and the magnitude of this diplomatic triumph and recalling the darkness of those days, we shall the more thoroughly understand the admiration with which it is regarded by a man like Mr. Adams—an expert in difficult negotiations and all the arduous transactions of state.

We may properly advertise the magazine reader that Mr. Welles gives marked attention to the lives and characters of Mr. Mason and Mr. Slidell, and that his study of those statesmen has some raciness. We forget whether we have before called attention to a certain comparison relating to Mr. Welles's writing, but we fear the loss of it more than the repetition: all of a sudden he broke a long silence, and began discussing sundry topics in which he and some enemies of his were interested, but about which the enemies had been having all the talk to themselves; it was thereupon remarked of him that he was a good deal like a log on which a Florida gentleman sat down one afternoon, and on which he reposed with complacency for some time, but from which he arose with precipitancy when he discovered that he was sitting on an alligator, and that it was getting ready to move. Mr. Welles is abundantly able to try conclusions with his adversaries, whoever they may be, and they may guard their own heads. As to how he strikes, the following passage may show. Apparently, he regards the "sacredness of the tomb" as very much dependent on the person who is in it. He is speaking of the bad end to which both Mason and Slidell finally came. Both, he says, "found themselves homeless and aliens" at the close of the rebellion, during the progress of which they had been disregarded suppliants at foreign courts. "Mason had a vagabond residence of two or three years in Canada," and afterwards "returning quietly and humbly to Virginia a broken-down old man, and finding his once pleasant home in the Valley of the Shenandoah desolated by war, he retired to the vicinity of Alexandria, where he died an obscure and miserable death in April, 1871." As for Slidell, he applied to President Johnson for pardon and a safe-conduct, and being answered that he could have no special privileges, "he therefore spent the rest of his days in exile, *passing the remnant of a vicious and intriguing career in reading French fictions*, and finally died in London in July, 1871, three months after his associate Mason had been entombed." Should this sort of summing-up of the careers of these two seem to any to be unduly harsh, it will be just to Mr. Welles to recollect that he was the humiliated and indignant spectator of their insufferable and contemptuous arrogance in the time of their prosperity, when the one of them felt, and the other affected to feel, or did really feel, that the Connecticut man and the Massachusetts man and the Illinois man were slaves and cowards,

> "As purchasable as the common stews,"

and when, as the Irish say, they made no bones of letting their opinions be known, in language as offensive as they could discover or invent. Those are old days now; but they are *the* days of some hearts, and by such can never be forgotten, well as it may be that in time they should fade out of the national memory.

Another historical article in the April *Galaxy* is by Mr. John Bigelow. "Our First Centennial, and How it was Celebrated," is the title of the paper, and it recounts how, on the day of our National Thanksgiving, last year, Mr. Cyrus Field gave a dinner in London, at which was present Mr. Gladstone, who made a speech. In the course of his remarks he said that England in waging against us the Revolutionary War was "in error—struggling against nature—struggling, I may venture to say, against Providence." Mr. Bigelow reminds us that one hundred years before—one hundred years almost to a day—Dr. Franklin, then residing in London as agent for the Colonies, came into possession of the celebrated "Hutchinson Letters," the publication of which did so much to enrage the colonists and to hasten the day of separation from the mother country. When the assertion in these letters that if a few more royal soldiers were sent over the patriots would keep themselves quiet, had called out the petition of the Massachusetts House of Assembly, asking the recall of Governor Hutchinson and Lieutenant-Governor Oliver, Franklin was commanded to appear before the Privy Council, and there he was shamefully baited by the Solicitor-General, the notorious Wedderburn. It is the

proceedings before the Council at this session that Mr. Bigelow compares and contrasts with the proceedings at Mr. Field's dinner—the celebration of our true centennial, for it was so early as 1772, says Mr. Bigelow, quoting for true the words of Mr. Parton, that "England had already lost her colonies, though no one suspected it." No one might have suspected it for many years more, we may add, since this kind of generalization is in fashion, had the English Ministry had any sense. Mr. Bigelow concludes his historical reviews and reflections by advising the United States that it will be "as well for her not to make honey of herself if she does not wish the flies to eat her, or, as the Haytiens say, 'make-believe die if she does not wish to be buried,'" and to remember that the same Mr. Gladstone who is now so sweet upon her is the same person who not very long ago asserted that "Jefferson Davis had created a nation."

Mr. Thurlow Weed has something to say on the Junius Controversy; Mr. Justin McCarthy, who is fond of M. Gambetta, asseverates that the French Assembly is "an embodied conspiracy," "a huge gang of plotters against the freedom of France"; Mr. L. Clarke Davis talks about "Actors Old and New"; "A Thorn in His Side" is a cleverish little story of mystification, by Mr. Edgar Fawcett; there are some "Casual Cogitations" by "Carl Benson," and much other matter. We commend Mr. Davis's gossip about the actors to the admirers of Miss Neilson. It is rapturous about this lady's beauty, justly and discriminatively severe upon her *Juliet*, rhapsodical abouther *Rosalind*, and generally a mixture of what seems to us highly extravagant praise with a dash of censure here and there as welcome as unusual.

Whoever would learn something about the fanatical painter Wiertz may find in the April *Harper's* a brief account of him, fanatically laudatory; and the same magazine has an excellent article which will be of use to intending visitors at the Exhibition in Vienna, and which is very good reading for anybody. Both are illustrated. "The Present and Future of Japan" is another readable article, and the most intelligible account of the singular changes going on in that country that we have anywhere seen in the same compass.

Scribner's Monthly has an estimate of Landor by Mr. E. C. Stedman, who does magazine justice to his great subject, whom he appears to understand well and admire much. Something about Gavarni is by Mr. Albert Rhodes, who cannot be praised for having done justice to his very good subject; indeed, he may be said to have done little more than taken the gloss off it, and it begins to be time to say thus much of this industrious writer, who would write no worse if he expended more pains and thought on a number of subjects considerably less. Burton, Speke, Grant, and Sir Samuel Baker are treated of in a rather slight illustrated paper, entitled "Four Great African Travellers," which is written by Mr. Henry M. Stanley. "Susan Coolidge" gives some practical advice to persons who meditate a trip to California. Go, she says, by all means; and visit the Yo Semite whether you are afraid of that part of the trip or not, for you will be thankful ever after that you did not miss the miraculous valley; take seven hundred dollars if you intend to be away two months; take a lunch-basket with some small trifles in it, for though the railway meals are wonderfully good (all things considered), yet they are but little diversified; by all means secure a place in a Pullman car; wear old and easy boots; take two linen dusters; if you are a lady, tie your head up in a veil, for the dust is something fearful, and in two days one comes to hate one's self by reason of the all-penetrating dirt. So the writer goes on, giving very specific counsel.

The various departments at the end of the magazine are filled very full, and the body of the magazine contains several stories and sketches that will be found acceptable, the one most valuable perhaps being the sketch of the progress of the Cuban insurrection.

Folks who begin to long to "go" on pilgrimages should or should not read the May *Lippincott's*, according as the partial or churlish fates have granted or ordained the power of indulging the wishes of the heart. A capital description of fly-fishing for salmon in the chill pellucid waters of a far northern tributary of the Saguenay will make the reader think with grief and woe of the fervors of Chestnut Street and Broadway, and the odors, unlike those of hemlock boughs and hackmatack, which haunt the July gutters in Philadelphia and New York. Very taking, too, and enticing to the free foot, is the scenery of Mr. Black's Thule, framing the figure of its princess; and not less delightful is the picture which Miss Margaret Howitt so pleasantly draws of the house in which she spent a summer in the Tyrol. We say nothing of the poetry in this number of the Philadelphia magazine, though we have seen worse as well as better, but of the prose articles there is none that is not worth reading. A list of them includes a third chapter of "The Roumi in Kabylia"; an account of the proposed Zoölogical Garden in Fairmount Park, which will be a very fine affair indeed, and to which we hope the attention of our own Park Commissioners is directed; an examination into the private fortune of Queen Victoria; two chapters of Mrs. Harding Davis's "Berrytown"; another paper on Wilmington and its Industries, which makes us acquainted with a really most interesting old-fashioned town; a good little love-story, with well-devised properties and scenery; and a sketch of American cricketing which American cricketers will enjoy.

Lars: A Pastoral of Norway. By Bayard Taylor. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—On several occasions Mr. Taylor has made manifest his affection for the Society of Friends and his high estimate of the value of their peculiar tenets, and still more of the value of their peculiar practice of these tenets in conducing to righteousness of life and holiness and peacefulness of spirit. His latest poem is another proof of this high estimate of his, and perhaps the best exemplification of it that he has given. Appropriately, then, this being so, he has dedicated this work to Mr. Whittier, now his friend, as formerly his encouraging adviser and his instructor in the Inner Light:

> "However Life the stream may stain,
> From thy pure fountain drank my youth
> The simple creed, the faith humane
> In Good, that never can be slain,
> The prayer for inward Light, the search for outward Truth."

The story of the 'Pastoral of Norway' is that of a very Norse and Berserker "pastoral" indeed. Lars, a herdsman, woodman, and hunter, and Per, a sailor and fisherman, are in love with the same maiden, Brita, who can hardly tell which one of the two handsome youths she likes the better, even if she likes either. We are introduced to her, the centre of a pretty picture, on a Sunday morning, when she is represented as chafing a little under the raillery of her young companions, and resenting the notion that soon she must choose between Per and Lars. Her feeling is partly coyness, and partly an uncertainty as to what her choice would be in case maidenly modesty allowed her to choose at all, and it is a more natural feeling, we should suppose, while her young companions are teasing her, than after both her suitors have separately and unmistakably offered themselves for her acceptance. However, these are deep matters. After church, Per demands the privilege of taking her home to Ulvik across the ford in his boat, Lars at the same time desiring to be her escort by land over the mountain road. Per, readier of speech, secures the prize; but, not to commit herself too far, Brita adroitly makes his invitation include all the other girls and young men of the party, and Per is obliged to be content with thus much of her company. This preliminary part of her dubiety Mr. Taylor manages with grace and cleverness. However, the same semi-coquettishness or uncertainty Brita shows a week or so later at the wedding-feast of Anders and Ragnil; and, as each of her lovers claims from her an amount of dancing incompatible with the gratification of the other, and each utters some hot-headed threats, there is evidently bloodshed in store:

> "The folk of Ulvik knew, from many a tale
> Of feud and fight, from still transmitted hates
> And old Berserker madness in their blood,
> What issue hung."

When they next meet, months afterward, at the dance which follows the great wrestling match at the close of harvest-tide, both the young men are exacting and wrathful, and as Brita still thinks she does not know her own mind, the question is fought out after the following fashion:

> "'No need!' said Lars. 'I choose for you,' said Per.
> Then both drew off and threw aside their coats,
> Their broidered waistcoats, and the silken scarves
> About their necks; but Per growled 'All!' and made
> His body bare to where the leathern belt
> Is clasped between the breast-bone and the hip.
> Lars did the same; then, setting tight the belts,
> Both turned a little: the low daylight clad
> Their forms with awful fairness, beauty now
> Of life, so warm and ripe and glorious, yet
> So near the beauty terrible of Death.
> All saw the mutual sign, and understood:
> And two stepped forth, two men with grizzled hair
> And earnest faces, grasped the hooks of steel
> In either's belt, and drew them breast to breast,
> And in the belts made fast each other's hooks.
> An utter stillness on the people fell
> While this was done: each face was stern and strange,
> And Brita, powerless to turn her eyes,
> Heard herself cry, and started: 'Per, O Per!'
>
> "When those two backward stepped, all saw the flash
> Of knives, the lift of arms, the instant clench
> Of hands that held and hands that strove to strike:
> All heard the sound of quick and hard-drawn breath,
> And naught beside; but sudden red appeared,
> Splashed on the white of shoulders and of arms.
> Then, thighs intwined, and all the body's force
> Called to the mixed resistance and assault,

They reeled and swayed, let go the guarding clutch,
And struck out madly. Per drew back, and aimed
A deadly blow, but Lars embraced him close,
Reached o'er his shoulder, and from underneath
Thrust upward, while upon his ribs the knife,
Glancing, transfixed the arm. A gasp was heard:
The struggling limbs relaxed; and both, still bound
Together, fell upon the bloody floor."

Brita, it will be observed, discovered, just as it was too late, that it was the man destined to be killed whom she really liked; Lars, then, has little to do but take himself out of the country, and this he does. He crosses the Atlantic as his mother's grandsire, Lief, the trooper, had done long before him,

"To those new lands the great Gustavus claimed,"

and wanders on through Delaware into Pennsylvania, neither knowing much nor caring much whither he goes, until one day at sunset he asks for a night's lodging at the house of a certain Quaker farmer, Ezra Mendenhall. To the Quaker's daughter, the gracious and saintly Ruth, whose favor he had won by speaking kindly to the cows as they came home, Lars is in good part indebted for an invitation to abide with the farmer for a time and work for him; this he does for months, feeling deeply the peace of the place, and being half unconsciously in love with Ruth, who, by the way, teaches him English, and is rather more than half consciously in love with him.

We may pass lightly over the episode of the bad young Friend, Abner by name, who had designed Ruth for himself, and who malignly harasses Lars, till Lars one day rises upon him, and would have slain him had Abner not fled; his pursuer accidentally knocking down Friend Ezra, who happens to be in the way, and who is much aghast at this revelation of the man of blood still resident in his quiet hireling. It is an episode which answers well enough its purpose of paving the way for Lars's full confession of his Norwegian crime. Confession leads to contrition and subsequent piety, and in due course Lars becomes Friend Thurston and the husband of Ruth.

By-and-by he feels it borne in upon him that he must return home and preach peace to his wild kinsmen and countrymen, and this he does; one of the most striking scenes of the poem being that in which Lars is challenged to the combat by Per's brother, and, although stripped and grappled to him with the belt-hooks as before he was grappled to Per, disarms him by his looks and words of brotherly love.

The poem is pleasing, with several pretty pictures, much good teaching and good feeling, and some characters in whose reality the reader will be glad to believe. Brita is perhaps the most poetically interesting figure, and the one for which the poem is best worth having. Her grandmother, too, is gracefully brought in, and the management of the brooch, if somewhat violent and needless at the last, is not more so than that of plenty of other "virtuous rings" and brooches which have been used in works of the imagination, while, at first, it is significant and of imaginative value. But, as we say, the poem is all agreeable reading, though none of it is especially fascinating, and though there may be a general suspicion of drabness—in several of the various literary forms of that non-poetical quality—some time before Lars endues himself with the sober-colored garments.

Memoir of Samuel Joseph May. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1873.)—All biographies are good for suggestion, some few for example; this one is eminently of the latter class. No one can read it without paying homage to the rare spiritual nature of the subject of it, the late lamented Rev. S. J. May, of Syracuse. Theological or political differences will not stand in the way of this recognition of a spirit so genial, so tender, so full of loving-kindness, so true, so steadfast, so courageous. In reviewing his character from any point of view, one can hardly forbear conceding to him his own admission to Mr. Garrison after hearing him for the first time on the subject of slavery: "I am not sure that I can endorse all you have said this evening. Much of it requires careful consideration. But I am prepared to embrace *you*." The present volume consists of Mr. May's autobiography down to the year 1829; of supplementary extracts from his 'Recollections of Our Anti-slavery Conflict' and from his diary and correspondence; and of reminiscences concerning him contributed by a number of his intimate friends. Mr. May's life-work falls naturally under three heads: the pulpit, the school-room, and the organized movement for the abolition of slavery. He was, it is well known, a Unitarian clergyman, a disciple of Channing, with all of Channing's "sweetness and light" and with much more than Channing's independence and breadth of view, even if his inferior in native intellect. His ministrations began in Brooklyn, Connecticut, nearly fifty years ago, when he was the only Unitarian minister in all the State; they were afterwards transferred to South Scituate, Mass., and finally to Syracuse, N. Y., where at the age of seventy he deliberately retired from the pulpit, having arbitrarily fixed the term of his usefulness as a preacher. In this and in his pastoral capacity, it is sufficient to say of him that he had few superiors, winning the affection of his congregation and the gratitude not only of his parishioners but of every community in which he lived. His liberality was truly catholic. He admitted ministers of all denominations to his pulpit, and he could when required so far disregard forms as to admit "a good man and his wife to the church at the same time, by immersing him in the river and by sprinkling her on the bank." His practical sense, it ought to be remarked, was proof against the temptations of the pulpit to indulge in merely rhetorical and abstract denunciations of vice. Of this there is very good evidence in his method of dealing with intemperance in Brooklyn (pp. 107–109). Not only as the temporary principal of the State Normal School at Lexington, Mass., but in other ways, Mr. May was an efficient co-laborer with Horace Mann; and the deep interest which he took in the public schools of Syracuse was acknowledged by naming one of them after him and by making him President of the Board of Education. To his influence was largely due the abolition of corporal punishment in the city's schools. He also had something to do with instituting the lyceum system, the original design of which, it is well to remember, "was to popularize the knowledge of natural history and of the physical sciences." It was while engaged in lecturing on natural philosophy in Brooklyn that he took a characteristic revenge on one of his parishioners who had jockeyed him in a horse bargain. Whenever he noticed this man in his audience, Mr. May would remark "parenthetically, on using the term 'horse-power,' 'I do not mean my horse, for you all know he has no power.'" Probably he would have extended to horse-dealers his opinion "that lawyers, doctors, merchants, and journalists ought to be solemnly ordained at the beginning of their professional career."

Of Mr. May's anti-slavery services we have spoken on a former occasion, and do not need to enlarge upon them again. Among his personal characteristics, his manners have a just weight assigned them. They were truly "of exceeding grace and dignity. . . . He was emphatically well-bred." That his good-breeding, like his humanity and his high courage, were inherited will appear on a slight examination of his pedigree as given on the first four pages of these 'Memoirs,' and in the January and February numbers of the *Register* of the New England Historic, Genealogical Society.

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Hurst (J. F.), Outline of Bible History	(Nelson & Phillips)
Jerrold (B.), A Day with Charles Dickens, swd	(Shepard & Gill) 0 35
Koner (Dr. W.), Zeitschrift für Erdkunde, No. 43, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Lawson (Dr. H.), Manual of Popular Physiology	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Leighton (R. F.), Harvard Examination Papers	(Ginn Bros.) 1 25
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MAY 5, 1873.

THE past week has been one of interest in Wall Street. The failure at the close of the week preceding of the Atlantic National Bank was the precursor of all sorts of wild rumors affecting the stability of both national banks and private houses. At one time these had such effect as to cause the rejection by some parties of checks on the Continental National Bank; and it was currently asserted that both this bank and the Manufacturers' and Merchants' National Bank were in difficulties. A prompt investigation, made by Mr. Tappan of the Gallatin National Bank and the Clearing-House Committee, showed these rumors to be utterly groundless, and that the Continental particularly was in a condition to pay off all liabilities at a moment's notice. These favorable reports having allayed the excitement as to the banks, the next sensation was the failure for a large amount of an old and highly respected Stock Exchange firm, followed, as usual, by anticipations of further failures and a renewed stringency in money; whilst, in order to depress stocks and cause a panic, the expedient was even adopted of telegraphing to distant cities hints of large failures here, provoking of course immediate responsive enquiries; and to add to the gloomy feeling came the news that the Comptroller of the Currency had directed the receiver of the "Eighth National" to compel payment from the unfortunate shareholders of an assessment of 54 per cent.

The Bank of England rates remain unchanged. The money market here has been active. The improvement noted last week was not progressive, owing to the calling in of a large amount of loans—some $1,500,000—by the Broadway National Bank, for the purpose of meeting the payment of maturing bonds and of interest on the city debt. Simultaneously with this contraction, the inevitable Tenth National reappeared above the speculative horizon—a creditor at the Clearing-House to the extent of $2,000,000. It would be a curious fact, though the suggestion might be resented by the bank officials, if this "lock-up" had any connection with the "bear raid" on the stock market. Commercial paper is quoted nominally at 10 to 12, but there is little if anything doing in it, and what there is is only with prime names. The rates on call loans during the early part of the week ranged from 7 per cent. to $\frac{1}{32}$ and interest. On Thursday the rate advanced to ¼ per diem, and the money market continued stringent up to nearly the close of Saturday, when a pressure to lend revealed an unexpectedly large supply, and the rates, which at the highest of the day had been 25 per cent. per annum, fell to 5 per cent.

The Express Companies report continued large receipts of currency from the interior. The "extra greenbacks" have been contracted, and now amount to an even $1,000,000. The bank statement is favorable, and indicates a much better and more satisfactory state of things approaching, provided artificial means are not used for evil purposes. The total gain in bank reserves is not only enough to take the reserves across the line, but to make $2,720,425 of surplus against a previous deficiency of $309,275; and the gain in specie and legal tenders is $5,049,200, whilst the banks have been encouraged to enlarge their loans about $1,500,000. The statement, compared with that of the previous week, is as follows:

	April 26.	May 3.	Differences.
Loans	$269,301,900	$270 721,100	Inc. $1,419,200
Specie	15.989 700	18,677,800	Inc. 2,688,100
Circulation	27,737.700	27,564,400	Dec. 173,300
Deposits	188.220,600	196,471.900	Inc. 8,251,300
Legal tenders	37,690,600	40,051,700	Inc. 2,361,100

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	April 26.	May 3.	Differences.
Specie	$15.989,700	$18,677,800	Inc. $2,688,100
Legal tenders	37,690,600	40,051,700	Inc. 2,361,100
Total reserve	$53,680,300	$58,729,500	Inc. $5,049,200
Circulation	27,737,700	27,564,400	Dec. 173,300
Deposits	188,220.600	196.471,900	Inc. 8,251,300
Total liabilities	$215,958,300	$224,036,300	Inc. $8,078,000
25 per cent. reserve	53,989,575	56,009,075	
Deficiency in legal reserve	309,275	2,720,425	Inc. 3,029,700

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$233,128,400	$37,592,700	$270,721,100
Specie	16.861,400	1,816,400	18,677,800
Legal tenders	35,360,900	4,690 800	40,051,700
Deposits	171,470,000	25.001.900	196.471,900
Circulation	27,521,400	43,000	27,564,400

The stock market has proved a very discouraging one for enterprising bulls. It is seldom that so many diverse means have been concentrated in the hands of the bears to produce a break in prices, and they have used their opportunities to the uttermost, at the same time manufacturing and spreading broadcast rumors of impending disasters, so that it is not surprising tha on Saturday the campaign culminated in a general giving way on the stock list. The retreat was led by that veteran Dick Swiveller, Pacific Mail, which from an opening quotation of 55¾ sold rapidly down to 49¾. The immediate excuse for this drop was a reported intention on the part of the shareholders of the Howe Sewing-Machine Company to test the integrity of a mortgage, which it will be remembered was executed by its president, Stockwell, on its property at Bridgeport, to secure certain indebtedness of his to the Pacific Mail S. S. Co. This mortgage is held as collateral security for the payment of $1,140,000, a small part of which has already been paid, and the principal point of interest to the "Street" is whether another part, in a note for $100,000, falling due May 1, was or was not paid. To the general public the interest is altogether of another kind, and embraces solely the question, by what authority does a corporation like the Pacific Mail S. S. Co., stepping outside of the functions for the performance of which it was given by the people a legal existence and privileges, presume to become an owner, speculator, or trader in the securities of other corporations, such for instance as Panama, out of a transaction in which grew its present entanglement with sewing-machines? One would reasonably suppose that a company which has not shown discretion enough to manage its own affairs, which, although endowed with a munificent subsidy on the plea of being an *American* enterprise, is continually falling back on *English* steamships or machinery (the engines for its new ships are being made abroad), and always in misery of some kind, might cease to concern itself with outside subjects.

Great efforts have been made to depress Western Union, but without much effect. Few panic-makers like to stultify themselves by attributing embarrassment to Vanderbilt, and as he is reputed just now to be behind this stock, stories detrimental to it fall comparatively lifeless.

The investment stocks have remained steady, differing at the close of the week but little from the prices of the preceding week.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending May 3, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100⅜ 101½	100 100⅝	100½ 101	100¼ 100⅜	100⅛ 100⅜	99⅜ 100⅜	88,400
Lake Shore	91⅜ 92¼	91⅜ 91⅞	91½ 92⅜	91⅜ 92⅛	91⅜ 92⅛	90⅜ 92⅜	61,900
Erie	64⅜ 65	64½ 65	64½ 64⅞	64⅜ 64⅞	64¼ 64⅜	64⅜ 65	15,300
Do. pfd	74 75	74⅜ 75	73½ 75	74½ 74½	74 74		
Union Pacific	30½ 32⅜	30⅜ 31⅜	31⅛ 31¾	30 31¼	29⅜ 30¾	28⅝ 33⅜	73,000
Chi. & N. W.	81⅜ 82	80 82	80¼	80			200
Do. pfd	87 86½	85 87	85½	86			600
N. J. Central	100 101	100¼ 100⅝ 101	102 102¼	102			200
Rock Island	107½ 104½	107¼ 108¼	108⅜ 108½	107¾ 108⅛	107⅜ 108	107 108	27,900
Mil. & St. Paul	57⅛ 59⅜	56¾ 57⅛	57⅜ 58⅜	57 57⅛	56½ 57	55¼ 57	13,800
Do. pfd.	73	72¾	73¼	72½ 73	71½ 72		900
Wabash	69¼ 70	68⅜ 69⅝	69⅜ 69¾	69⅛ 70	68⅝ 69⅛	68¼ 69¼	15,500
D. L. & Western	99½ 100¼	99¾	100½ 101⅜	100 102	101⅜ 112½	101 101½	1,400
B. H. & Erie	3¼ 3¼	3¼ 3¼	3½	3 3½	3 3½		5 100
O. & M.	43¼ 44	42¾ 43½	43¼ 43¾	42¾ 43¾	42¾ 43¾	41 42¾	64,700
C. C. & I. C.	37½ 38¾	35¾ 37⅝	37¾ 37⅝	36½ 37¾	34¾ 36¾	32¾ 35½	48,400
W. U. Tel.	83¼ 85	82½ 84¼	84¼ 85½	84¾ 85½	84½ 86½	84½ 86¾	366,900
Pacific Mail	55¼ 58¼	55¼ 57	56¾ 57⅜	56½ 57¾	55¼ 56½	49¾ 55⅜	237,000

The lower price of gold has had little effect on Government bonds, owing to their scarcity in market and a continued demand from domestic and foreign buyers. The Treasury during May will purchase $1,000,000 5-20s, $500,000 each on the 7th and 21st instant.

Business in State bonds has been small and entirely speculative. The Charleston *Courier* publishes the following explanation of proceedings brought in the State courts by Messrs. Morton, Bliss & Co. to compel the Comptroller-General to levy a tax for the interest payment on South Carolina bonds:

"A well-known banking-house has begun proceedings in the State courts to compel the Comptroller-General to levy a tax for the payment of the interest upon certain bonds of the State held by the firm. The interest is long in arrear, and the platform of the Radicals requires them to suspend the payment of interest upon any part of the public debt which is of doubtful validity. Nothing was said as to the unquestionably valid debt. Good and bad shared the same fate. The $6,000,000 or $7,000,000 of new bonds carried down with them the $9,000,000 which consisted of the old debt and of the bonds issued in absorption of liabilities outstanding when the war closed. That is the position to-day. The holders of securities whose genuineness has never been disputed are no better off than the holders of bonds for which the State received little if any consideration. The Comptroller has taken the proper course in refusing to levy a tax until the courts have determined that he has the requisite authority, and have determined, furthermore, what classes of bonds are legal and binding upon the people."

The gold market has been irregular; the opening and lowest price of Saturday was 116⅝, highest 117, and closing 116¾. The total customs for the week were $2,114,000; total interest payments, $4,643,800; and total bond redemptions, $14,200. The steamer *Celtic* took out silver bars and Mexican silver $207,000, and the *City of Paris* $19,000. The whole specie shipment for the week was $401,318 16, only $7,000 of which was American gold, against which $500,000 specie has been received from abroad by the *Scotia*.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 15, 1873.

The Week.

AMONG the numerous sensations of the week none has been more surprising than the news of the failure of the *Polaris* expedition, the death of its commander, Capt. Charles Francis Hall, the dispersal of his company, and the apparent loss of the vessel which took them out. Nothing has been heard from the expedition since the letter despatched to the Navy Department by Capt. Hall on occasion of his sailing out of the harbor of Tessiusak, Aug. 24, 1871. If the story told by the survivors be true, he succeeded in taking the *Polaris* to a point 82° 16′ N. lat., afterwards returning to winter in latitude 81° 38′, whence he made a short sledge excursion northward, and immediately on his return (Oct. 24) was smitten with paralysis, which terminated fatally on the 8th of November. Here, however, the romance only begins. After passing the winter at the scene of this melancholy catastrophe, the expedition starts for home in August, 1872, and, being beset with ice, drifts to lat. 77° 35′, where the steamer shows signs of becoming unseaworthy, and a resolution to abandon her is entertained. They begin on the 15th to unload the provisions upon the ice, till just as confidence is restored the ice cracks, breaks up, and off floats the *Polaris* into the darkness, leaving the greater part of the provisions on the floe, together with ten white men and nine Esquimaux (including two women and five children). One of the white men was Capt. Tyson, assistant navigator; another, Fred. Meyer, meteorologist; the rest, steward, cook, and seamen—the scientific corps remaining in the vessel. These castaways, with only two boats, suffered for eight months extreme privation, happily without loss of life, and, drifting and working their way as much as they were able landwards, were rescued from their ice-raft on the 30th of April by the steamship *Tigress* in lat. 53° 30′, near the coast of Labrador. The fate of the *Polaris* meantime is wholly obscure, nor is it known what if any contributions to science have been made by the expedition either before or since Capt. Hall's death. The story of the separation as told by the survivors is at best a singular one.

We fell into an error a fortnight ago in speaking of one of the rival sheriffs in Grant Parish, Louisiana, as black. Both were white, but we have now before us the sworn statement of the sheriff, whom we supposed to be black, Mr. D. W. Shaw, who acknowledges that he got fewer votes at the election than his competitor Nash, and was appointed, nevertheless, by "Governor" Kellogg. He says he in vain endeavored to persuade the negroes to leave the decision of the question to the courts, instead of seizing and fortifying the court-house. He declares "that they were very riotous, breaking open Judge Rutland's house, and smashing everything"; that "they also fired into Judge Richardson's house, compelling both, with all other whites, to flee across the river," and refusing all offers of accommodation from the opposite party. The three captains of the negroes were Leo Allen, whom we took to be the sheriff, Tilman, and Jack White, "and these, with their men, committed the wildest and most outrageous excesses, firing off guns, and threatening to murder the white men and keep the women." Finding them uncontrollable, Mr. Shaw left them previous to the fight. How credible he is we do not know, but his affidavit confirms the general account we gave of the transaction.

We have received from an occasional correspondent in Louisiana a letter which is too long to publish, but which has some interest. The writer is a Northern man, and something of a politician. He says there would have been no fighting if Congress had settled the question of validity as between Kellogg's government and McEnery's; as it is, there will be fighting until December; "the Latin, mongrel, and cannibal population of the State has shown itself unfit for self-government," and Louisiana should be reduced to a Territory and governed precisely as Arizona is governed; but since respect or a superstitious observance for the forms, at least, of American government is still entertained, the practical way out of the difficulty is still to be found, and our correspondent thinks he has found it: the negro leaders, he says, are at heart chiefly desirous of plunder and of the elevation of Pinchback, Warmoth's ostensible enemy but real friend. What they want, then, is a new State election under the shadow of the Federal bayonets. Kellogg they will not trust; his policy was to make a compromise with the Democrats, which would involve surrendering to that party the control of one of the branches of a fusion Kellogg-McEnery legislature, from which "most of the thieves" would be dropped, and that policy the negro leaders hate. For example, says he, "the great Martinsville fight grew chiefly out of the fact that the negroes elected as judges two native Republicans, whom I know personally to be infamous thieves"; but they had been elected and commissioned, and Kellogg had to install them, though this he would not do till he had endeavored to induce them to resign. We may remark, by the way, that what with the admitted attitude of the Louisiana whites toward Kellogg and the attitude of the negroes as here described, Kellogg has a happy prospect before him as "*de facto* Governor," etc. Now the remedy, says our correspondent, for all this is that General Grant should interpose with the negro leaders and make them go as far as Kellogg wishes in the way of compromise. "Everybody but the politicians says this," and "everybody knows that the negroes would instantly yield to Grant's expressed wishes in the matter." This proposed remedy shows, if we may say so to our correspondent, into what a condition of feeling and thinking a Louisiana office-holder can get himself. The legislators of the State should, he thinks, receive with obedient submission a message from the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States on a matter pertaining entirely to the internal economy of their State.

As regards the permanent cure for the Louisiana troubles, the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* reports "a strong Administration man" as saying lately some things which are as true with regard to the future as they are with regard to the past, viz.:

> "The President ought to have said to his officials in Louisiana a year ago, when Judge Scofield's committee returned from New Orleans, and the Chairman went privately to him and begged him to remove Collector Casey and Marshal Packard before the committee reported, 'From this time forward, I shall expect you to give your attention to your official duties and leave politics to the people of the State. You are to take no part in the organization of the Legislature, in influencing legislation, or in controlling nominations. If I hear of any interference on your part in local or State politics, or if I hear of any political troubles or controversies to which you are parties, I shall discharge you at once without enquiry as to the merits of the case, and put men in your places who will attend to their official duties.' 'Had the President issued such an order as this,' said the gentleman, 'you would have heard of none of these later troubles. There might have been party quarrels, but they would have been settled as in other States, had the President stood aloof and taken no sides.'"

There is little to be added to this, except that it is a national disgrace to have the United States troops used to sustain a State government which a committee of the United States Senate has declared to be utterly unauthorized and fraudulent.

The British-American Mixed Claims Commission has taken the testimony of General Sherman as to a much-disputed question—the responsibility for the burning of Columbia, South Carolina, and the cotton in it. General Sherman swears positively that when his army reached the town it was already burning, and that he not only gave no orders to fire it, but directed all his efforts to extin-

guishing the flames. He had made up his mind to spare Columbia, he says, beforehand, and his testimony makes it clear that the firing was either done by the Confederates under Wade Hampton, on their evacuation of the place, or else, without any authority, "by some person or persons unknown." General Sherman, in his evidence, referred to an escaped prisoner—a Capt. Byers—whom he found in Columbia, and who would be able to testify to the fact that he (Capt. Byers) "saw with his own eyes carts hauling cotton down in the streets for burning three days before he got in." This evidence, however, was excluded as hearsay. Of course it is the burning of the cotton, and only indirectly that of the city, in which the Commission is interested. The value of the cotton was very great, and it is refreshing to know that the United States did not burn it, particularly as there were general orders to burn cotton wherever it might be found, and the streets of Columbia seem to have been the only place in the long line of march where the Union forces busied themselves in saving property. There is one theory as to the firing which is perfectly compatible both with the assertions of the Confederates that they had nothing to do with it and the equally positive denial of General Sherman: this is, that after the Confederate troops had left the town, and before our forces entered it, the "bummers," who were always ahead of the army proper, did a little devastation on their own account.

Oakes Ames died to-day week, at his home in North Easton, Massachusetts, in the seventieth year of his age. As fair a general estimate of his character as we have anywhere seen we take to be that sent to the Springfield *Republican* by its Boston correspondent. It was all the better for him, the correspondent suspects, that his death occurred when it did, for the suits against him, now pending in the courts or soon to begin, could hardly have failed "to bring out some very disagreeable facts about him"—an addition to the facts already known which was not much needed, one would say. The case of Mr. Ames, he remarks, furnishes a very good instance of a man who ruins a good private reputation by seeking and holding public office. "As a man of business, a liberal giver of money, and a hard worker in his legitimate tasks, he deserved much credit and gained sincere friends," but as a public man he made a failure, "and that from a kind of moral incapacity which was not made up for by any intellectual power that entitled him to hold the places he filled." This is very temperate, but every one has the details of the picture fresh at hand.

The proprietors of the White Star Line have addressed a letter to the English papers, showing that they have in vain sought to have the condition of the ship *Atlantic*, at the time she sailed, investigated in Liverpool by the English Board of Trade, and offering proof that she had 967 tons of coal on board, and that the quality was the same as usual, and was reported on favorably by the captain and engineer after the run down to Queenstown; and declaring their belief, based on the consumption on previous voyages, that the engineer underestimated the supply on hand when he reported to the captain before the fatal divergence to Halifax, and that during the severest weather of the two last winters none of their ships had to put into any port for fresh supplies. The charge that the *Atlantic* was short of provisions they ridicule, and may safely do so, in view of the fact that every steamer carrying emigrants to New York is forced, under the requirements of the English law, and by a system of rigid inspection, to provide provisions for thirty-two days. She did, however, fall short of salt-fish, owing to the eagerness of the Catholics for that article during Lent. In fact, the Company has come very well out of the scrape in every point except the employment of Captain Williams after his dismissal by another line. The commander of a steamer who gets drunk on duty, as he did on the Guion line, shows his sense of responsibility to be too low to be cured by any subsequent pledge or reformation. Every steamship line which employs reformed drunkards as officers should state the fact distinctly on its passage tickets.

In France, things have been thrown into some confusion by the result of the Paris election. The Moderate Republicans, including even M. Grévy, the ex-president of the Chamber and the ablest of them all, are disheartened by it. It is said that the election by the leading constituency of the country of a prominent Lyons "Red" over a man of M. de Rémusat's antecedents and a member of M. Thiers's cabinet, almost immediately after M. Thiers had brought to a successful close negotiations which will relieve French territory of the presence of foreign troops by the beginning of September, will have several unfortunate effects. It will, in the first place, shake the growing confidene of the country people in the possibility of an orderly, moderate, and conservative republic, the only one to which they will ever permanently give in their adhesion; it will dishearten M. Thiers, who is clearly the best friend the Republic has had, and lead him to rely more than ever on the Right Centre, who are not sincere Republicans, if not to plot with the Right, who are not Republicans at all; and finally, it reveals a continued want among the French electors, even in the very fountain of intelligence, of that form of political sense which shows itself in readiness to compromise, and accept what you can get when you cannot get what you want. The Legitimists have in the meantime been trying to make capital out of the affair, and have held one or two meetings, marked by as much violence and folly of another kind as those of the Reds. It is clear that nothing can be considered as settled till after M. Thiers's death. The tug of war will come when he disappears, and the fate of the Republic will depend on what happens then.

The repulse of the Dutch in Sumatra appears to have been even more serious than first reported. They have lost five hundred men in killed and wounded, and among the killed is the general in command. The report published by the home government to allay the excitement in Holland, which was very great, acknowledges the fighting to have been desperate, the direct assaults on the Atchinese citadel not only having been repulsed, but the army having been harassed by attacks on its flank during the whole progress of the operations. The explanation of the cause of the hostilities given by the Minister of the Colonies is rather vague. It appears the Atchinese have been very deceitful and treacherous, have intrigued for foreign aid against the Dutch, and have committed divers outrages and offered various insults, for which atonement has been vainly sought during a long series of years, and the refusal of certain "guarantees" recently demanded of them led finally to the ill-fated attempt to chastise them. The operations were indefinitely postponed after the repulse, ostensibly owing to the prevalence of the monsoon, which made communication between the ships and the shore dangerous, and thus rendered the supplying of the army difficult.

The London *Spectator* finds, plausibly enough, some connection between this attack on the Atchinese and the recent conclusion of a treaty between Great Britain and Holland, by which the Dutch territory on the west coast of Africa was ceded to Great Britain, in return for which the latter waived her objections to the extension of Dutch territory in the Malay Archipelago. It is rather odd, it remarks, that just at this juncture the conduct of the Atchinese, as man-stealers and plunderers, should, after having been borne so long, suddenly become unbearable. In the meantime, the Dutch press throws the blame of the defeat on the British, whom it accuses of jealous hostility to "Dutch prestige" in the Archipelago, and of intriguing against it with the natives, and even hints that the gunners who worked the heavy artillery in the Atchinese defences were drawn from the English service, all of which the London *Economist* considers amusing, and doubts whether most Englishmen, either in India or elsewhere, were aware until now whether there was such a thing as "Dutch prestige" in the East.

The condition of the Spanish Republic is apparently no better. The Permanent Committee has been dissolved, the mob of militia

which rose in defence of it at Madrid has been disarmed, and the Ministry reigns supreme in Madrid; and the elections, in so far as they have been held, have resulted in a large Federal Republican majority, which means, in all probability, the continuance of the prevailing disorder, inasmuch as the Socialist element is predominant and gains strength in the Federal ranks. In the meantime the government at Madrid continues almost powerless as to the rest of the country, the negotiations opened with the artillery officers, looking to the reorganization of the army, having failed, and there are ominous rumors of the manufacture of large quantities of paper money, which is to meet the demands of the treasury by being put into forced circulation. General Contreras, who was sent to command in Catalonia after the proclamation of the Republic, and would have done so if the troops had let him, has published a letter in explanation of his resignation which throws curious light on the condition of the force. He found the officers had nearly all gone home, and the men were doing what they pleased, and treated all attempts to exercise authority as acts of hostility, and he vainly appealed to the government at Madrid for reinforcements to enable him to restore discipline. The Carlist "news" is of the usual composition—defeats, skirmishes, battles, and sieges, about which little seems to be known, and which have apparently no definite result. The friends of the Republic in this country, we observe, begin to talk about it in a more rational manner. What they say now is, that with all its disorders it is as good as the monarchy any day, and they acknowledge the monarchy to have been shockingly bad. This has a sensible sound. We have no doubt, if pushed a little harder, they will acknowledge that as the people is so will the government be, whether the form be monarchical or republican, and that talking of a "republic" as a complete remedy for ills which have their origin in sloth, ignorance, and want of political sense, is simple quackery. It is like saying of a man who cannot drive a stationary engine, that what he needs to prove his skill is the management of a locomotive. Moreover, there is no use in calling on us to consider a nation apart from its own weaknesses. The presence of bad men in it in sufficient force to resist the efforts of the good men to maintain order, is a constitutional defect which has to be cured. To talk of it as an excuse for bad government is like saying that a man would be very strong if he were not very scrofulous or had not diseased lungs.

The Clerical party seems to follow a general *mot d'ordre*, and to carry out a plan of campaign throughout Europe. In Switzerland and Germany, the Church is to remain strictly on the defensive; in Spain and France, it has openly taken the offensive; in Austria, England, and Ireland, it is preserving an attitude of simple observation; in Belgium, where it rules supreme already, it has established its general staff and real headquarters; while in Italy, where is the nominal commander-in-chief, it has already begun to unmask its batteries. The Holy Father himself gave the signal in various speeches, whereupon the Catholic press took it up, and is growing more impudent daily, thanks to the really unlimited liberty of the press enjoyed in Italy. Lent gave the preachers sundry opportunities to attack king, kingdom, and constitution from the pulpits with unheard-of violence. The Liberals picked up the gauntlet, and held conventicles on their side; in the churches, particularly in the *Gesù*, the freethinkers began hissing. On another day a row ensued at the very doors of the temple, and many of the rioters were arrested. All this, however, was but the prelude to another most dangerous demonstration which the Clerical party are busy preparing just now. They are organizing a sort of monster meeting in the shape of a pilgrimage to the birthplace of St. Francis of Assisi, very similar to the famous pilgrimages to Lourdes, which created such a sensation in France last year. The Liberals, and particularly the Radicals, on their side do not remain silent; the whole of Umbria is agitated; everywhere popular meetings are held; in Perugia there is a committee of patriots and another of freethinkers, who are preparing a counter-demonstration, and we may esteem ourselves very happy if these artificial agitations do not end in some sanguinary encounters. However, the remainder of the nation, *i.e.*, the immense majority of Italians, are so utterly indifferent at the bottom in all matters concerning religion, and even in political affairs, that it will be no easy task to work them into a passion.

The great event of the week in foreign news has been the panic on the Bourse at Vienna. We are at this writing without authentic details about it, except that it was caused by the failure of a prominent house, and was "wild" while it lasted, which was not long, as several bankers came forward with 12,000,000 florins to ease the market. Confidence, according to the late accounts, has however not been restored, and the affair has made itself felt in London and here. The Associated Press published on Tuesday a somewhat ludicrous "bear" dispatch, which announced that the "shrinkage in values," on the Vienna Bourse, caused by the panic amounts to $100,000,000, and that "the 'shrinkage' in American securities in Germany is estimated at $10,000,000." It would be interesting to know who made these "estimates," and what they are based on. It is hardly necessary to say that they are guesses of the wildest sort, and are somewhat nonsensical. "Shrinkage of values" is only real if permanent, or if the holders are forced to sell; but real "shrinkage" is hardly ever caused by a panic, and what it amounts to nobody can tell. The dispatch concludes worthily with the sapient announcement "that recent American legislation, and the hostile tone of a portion of the American press towards European capitalists, occasioned general anxiety among investors in American securities." It is safe to conjecture that the panic has been caused partly by the inflated expectations of profit caused by the Exposition, and partly by the state of things at Berlin, which is also one of "shrinkage," following on the extravagent speculation which succeeded the war, and which will probably not pass away until the remainder of the French indemnity is paid during the summer. The prevailing depression has, however, been increased by recent attacks of Herr Lasker on the Bourse, which he accuses of all sorts of naughty things in connection with his recent exposure of railroad corruption. He made a savage speech on this subject, which produced a good deal of distrust, early in April, and the effect of which the Board of the Exchange sought to diminish by forwarding a protest to the Reichstag. It is worthy of note, in connection with this, that Count Itzenplitz, the Minister of Commerce, who was implicated in the railroad abuses, has given in his resignation.

The latest news or reports from the Khivan expedition represent the Russian column from Tashkend as having successfully crossed the Kizil Kum desert, and effected a junction with that advancing from the Sea of Aral, and the combined force, having established a base at Kohne Urgendj, on the Oxus, a point reached by the boats from the Sea of Aral, and not much over six days' march from Khiva, continued their operations, and the place has fallen. This last report comes from St. Petersburg, without date or other particulars; but there seems to be no good reason for doubting it. The only difficulty the Russians had to contend with was that of getting into the oasis in which the city stands, and this overcome, its capture was sure, even if the Khan had been crazy enough to attempt resistance. It will now be interesting to see what course Russia will pursue. She has entered into a sort of "understanding" with England not to make her occupation of Khiva permanent, in consideration of another "understanding" that England is not to allow Afghanistan to attack her; but the best-informed portion of the Russian press maintains stoutly that Russia will be governed solely by her own interest and convenience in considering whether she will stay or retire. As the Russian press is not apt to speak positively on a point of this sort without authority, it is easy to see that Khiva bids fair to furnish materials for a first-class "complication."

THE GROWTH OF CORPORATE AND DECLINE OF GOVERNMENTAL POWER.

SOME thirty or forty years ago American society discovered that this country lies remote from European complications; that it has no great rival powers upon its borders, such as France is to Germany, or Germany is to France; that the dangerous classes which lie a weight of foreboding upon the minds of European statesmen, were only to be found in a few large towns, and in comparatively trivial numbers; that a large standing army, which in Europe is both a protection and a burden, was needless; and that the likelihood of future wars did not require every American, like every Prussian, to be in effect a soldier. In this safety of isolation American society said: "We will lay aside the responsibilities and sacrifices of citizenship, and religiously ascribing all virtues and all growth and progress to a republican form of government, will allow our own to go to the dogs, devoting ourselves meanwhile to the business of getting rich." The broadest views of duty were covered by the word "industry," and of elevation by the word "wealth." These ideas were flung about by the press, and caught up and adopted by society, so that every philanthropist who addressed a public school generally summed up his moral teachings in the prediction that all the good boys would work hard and get rich.

Such sayings as, "The world is governed too much," "The less government you have, the better," "Individual enterprise will accomplish everything, if you will only give it a chance," were adopted as incontrovertible maxims, and society set itself to giving individual enterprise all the chance it asked. At the same time, the science of government, which had received so much attention from the earliest statesmen, was allowed to die out in this country, and the business of governing was gradually abandoned to a class of professional politicians contemptuously called office-holders and office-seekers, and the task of serving one's country fell into general disrepute. It next became perceptible that the Government was always cheated, and that it began to be thought that this was inevitable, and, being inevitable, that there was nothing wrong in allowing it to be done. It followed soon that a large proportion of men who passed as respectable secretly carried this reasoning a step further, and held that, if the Government must be cheated, they might as well do the work and reap the harvest as anybody else.

In a country so undeveloped on the one hand, and so rich in resources on the other, there were innumerable fields for individual enterprise—and fields of such vast extent as to be beyond the powers of any single fortune. Hence it was inevitable that individual enterprise should seek the aid of combined capitalists, and that these combinations should take the form of corporations. It is a forgotten fact that, in the first days of American corporations, they were not well managed, and that men talked of their management then very much as some men now talk of the "irremediable imperfections" of the civil service. The shrewdness and economy of administration that were common in the business of individuals no one ever expected to see transferred to the affairs of incorporated companies. On the contrary, it was supposed that the employees of a corporation would always be well paid, with little to do, and that its contractors would certainly grow rich. There were also two restrictive elements in the problem which of late years do not exist—the corporations were then both small and local, *i.e.*, having no great wealth, and being owned, managed, and influenced by the local community in which each existed, and, to a great extent, for the interest and convenience of that community. A sufficient illustration of this will be found in the history of the all-powerful New York Central Railroad. One company was chartered to build a line of less than twenty miles from the Hudson to the Mohawk; another to build a line of less than eighty miles from Schenectady to Utica; a third to build a line of less than sixty miles from Utica to Syracuse. Such corporations were manifestly too small, too weak, and too local to control legislatures, or seriously conflict with the interests of the community which created them. They were practically, as well as theoretically, the creatures of the legislature, and created for the public convenience. If it had been told at that day that the President and most of the Directors of the old Mohawk and Hudson Railroad would be residents of New York, and transact its business there, and that its President would defiantly snap his official fingers in the faces of the citizens of Albany, and tell them that he would run his trains away from their hotels, and, if they complained, would run all of his trains through the town without stopping, the story would have been deemed as fanciful as that of 'The Coming Race.' In time, however, these several corporate links, with others of the great chain, became welded together, and since then consolidations here and "giant enterprises" there have brought great corporations upon the whole country. The immense power of great and concentrated wealth which is actively employed made itself almost immediately felt. Every eminent lawyer along the line of a road was its counsel; half of the judges of the State were stockholders or directors or ex-attorneys of the road; the sharpest, shrewdest, most active business men in every town were in some way interested, or connected with the company.

With such new forces springing into existence in every State, more numerous, if not intrinsically greater, than was ever known before in the history of corporate bodies, and growing rapidly into a magnitude that could never have been anticipated, and with the efficiency of American government constantly lessening, it is apparent that a time might, indeed *must*, come when Government would be really too inefficient to maintain the rights of society by duly restraining their aggressive powers. Such is not far from the condition of American society at the present moment. Indeed, as against the Government all the administrative talents of the country are to be found among the corporations. Their managers have learnt the value of ability and the wisdom of paying for it; while Congress, in its ignorance, has been abandoning the early policy of the country, and, by niggardliness to everybody connected with the Government (except its own members), has been driving the talent of the country out of the public service. What chance had the Government of retaining Mr. Thomas Scott in its War Department? Where is Assistant-Secretary Fox, who was practically the head of the Navy Department during the war? Does any one suppose that Mr. Vanderbilt could be induced to accept a secretaryship in exchange for his present office? Did not the last Solicitor-General resign the second legal position under the Government to become the law officer of a railway company? Is not the United States District Attorney in each of the two largest cities on the continent a comparatively young and inexperienced lawyer whom no corporation would entrust with the control of its legal affairs, but who is entrusted with all the law business, civil and criminal, of the Government? Contrast the array of counsel in the Crédit Mobilier Railroad cases—Mr. Curtis, Mr. Evarts, Mr. Cushing, and Mr. Bartlett—with the Attorney-General and his two juniors. Contrast, too, the liberal fees that will be paid to these really leading counsel with the salaries of the Attorney and Solicitor Generals. Manifestly society, as represented by Government, is beaten wherever it comes in contact with the great corporations, because society has allowed these corporations to secure as agents men who can outgeneral, outwork, and in any ordinary fight overcome, the men who are the agents of the Government. Corporations to a certain extent take the place in American society of the privileged classes in aristocratic Europe; for they constitute a feudal system which exacts service, if not homage, from an influential portion of every community, and which carries on a disguised warfare with the Government, sometimes in Congress, sometimes in State legislatures, in which warfare concentrated wealth and power are arrayed against the wishes and, in some cases, interests of society at large.

There is one peculiar phase in the contests that are beginning to be waged against corporations, which is the tacit acknowledgment that, in one sense, we cannot do without them. The Illinois farmer does not propose, like the Irish peasant, to pull up the track or burn the bridges, nor even to abate railways as a nuisance. It is essential to his welfare that railway trains continue to be run,

and that they be run by the very company with which he wars. In ordinary battles, the object is to stay the enemy's movements, to cripple his resources, to cut off his supplies; but such warfare would be more fatal to the farmers of the West than to the New York or London stockholders. The contest is one in which it is confessed by the assailants that they cannot exist without the existence of their adversary. Hence, it is a battle which must be confined within the limits of legislatures and courts, or, in other words, is a battle which can only be won through the instrumentality of good government. In Illinois, as in all of the Western States, railways were built by foreign capitalists. Deputations of progressive citizens came to New York with their hats in their hands, beseeching capitalists to come and build them a railway. When the roads were opened, there were the usual rejoicings, and celebrations, and promises of service on the one hand and of gratitude on the other; and then, almost immediately, began a state of enmity between the corporation and the community; and such is the condition of affairs to-day wherever there is a railway. The West is not rich enough to buy up its railways; it cannot do without them; and is too frequent a borrower to be able to frighten capital away by any unwarrantable act. Contrary to the advice of her most sagacious legislators, Illinois did not reserve in the charter of the Central a power of revision or repeal, and the rights which she cannot now take away, will finally come under the protection of the Supreme Court of the United States, if they are impaired.

To the general sense of our dependence upon corporations there are perhaps two exceptions. Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., and his progressive friends in Massachusetts form the one, and that part of the community which is in favor of buying up the telegraph lines and making them a part of our post-office system is the other. Massachusetts is not a borrower, like Illinois; her railways are owned substantially, if not wholly, within the State, and she is abundantly rich enough to make the purchase. The telegraph transfer to the Postal Department has been tried in Europe, and we have before our eyes the success of the English experiment. Yet in these two exceptional instances we are immediately met by the same obstacle of an inefficient, corrupt, and partisan government. Men in this world who are beyond the necessity of working for their bread work either for pay or honor. Society has seen fit to decree that the ambitious American shall find neither honor nor pay in the service of his country. Society, therefore, cannot command his services, and society having pushed this policy to the extreme, is now awakening to the fact that its government, be it general or local, is too inefficient to restrain a corporation or manage a railway.

THE LATEST REFORM MOVEMENT.

THE "Farmers' Movement" deserves all the attention that it has thus far received, and indeed even more. It ought to be looked on not simply as an attempt to secure cheap transportation, but also as the latest popular attempt to secure what is vaguely called Reform – a popular attempt of somewhat the same kind, though directed to a different immediate object, as the Cincinnati movement of last year and the free-trade operations of the last decade. It is indeed rather more popular in character than either of the others we have mentioned—for no movement can well be more so than one directed to cheapening the cost of corn and wheat—but it is like the others in this, that it is based on the idea that the country is laboring under the weight of abuses which are not merely moral, but material as well, which in almost all cases take, sooner or later, the form of tax, and which must be removed before the normal condition of prosperity can be restored. Just as the taxpayers of New York felt the rascalities of Tweed, and as every consumer in the country feels the oppression of the tariff, and every taxpayer suffers from the condition of the civil service, so the farmers feel the weight of railroad abuses—in their pockets. They find that they have to pay, if they desire to transport their goods to market, not merely the ordinary profit on building and maintaining the railroads, but the ordinary profit also on various swindling contrivances of the Crédit Mobilier sort, in the shape of contracting companies, freight companies, and so on, which makes every price three times its natural size. It is the general disbelief of the honesty of railroad management which causes the tone of anger generally pervading all discussions of the subject. Animated by this incredulity and anger, the farmers of Illinois determined to strike a vigorous blow at the "monopolists"; and, in order to make their proceedings fatally certain, it was decided to have a popular convention on the subject of cheap transportation. Accordingly, several conventions have been held in Illinois; and more recently a National Convention, representing several different States, has been held at the Astor House in this city, with this result. The Astor House meeting has resolved—(1) That cheap transportation ought to be secured by law and by building more railroads and canals; (2) That cheap transportation is essential to the welfare and prosperity of the country; (3) That cheap locomotion is "necessary for the maintenance of a homogeneous and harmonious population within the vast area of our territory"; (4) That dear transportation is a "burden upon the producer and the consumer which it is the part of wise statesmanship to remove"; (5) That certain leading railway corporations of the country are plundering the public, enriching themselves, and impoverishing the country through which they run; (6) That, besides this, they have "oppressed the citizen, bribed our legislatures, and defied our executives and judges, and stand to-day the most menacing danger to American liberty and to republican government"; (7) That the present system of railway management "must be radically reformed, and controlled by the strong hand of law, both State and national"; (8) That the railway "hirelings" who "prostitute public office to the base uses of private gain" must be "expelled and excluded" from the "halls of legislation"; (9) That the problem of cheap transportation must be worked out by the various parts of the country in such manner as "they may deem best"; (10) "That the people of the various States" ought to "organize" at once; "the power to accomplish the purposes desired rests absolutely with the suffering millions; relief is within their reach and control; united action and the near future will give, as certain as its need, for all time and the good of all, the true solution of the problem of cheap transportation."

This is certainly on its face a beggarly array of empty phrases, but their meaning is rendered plain enough by the action of the Princeton Convention, to which we alluded last week. The farmers at Princeton resolved, in effect, that the legislature should determine what are reasonable rates of freight; that the courts should consider the legislative decision binding, no matter what the private conviction of the judges might be; and that no man should be supported as a candidate for the Supreme Court who would not pledge himself in advance to decide all freight cases against the roads.

We now begin to get nearer a comprehension of the farmers' movement, and we shall be able to understand it still better if we recall the circumstances of the principal case which excited the anger of the farmers. The Legislature of Illinois having passed a law, at the solicitation of the farming interest, establishing maximum rates of freight, the Supreme Court decided—and no one doubts that the decision was good law—that the act was unconstitutional, intimating at the same time that the roads were bound to charge only "reasonable" rates, but that what was "reasonable" was to be determined in each particular case on its merits. This decision it was which exasperated the farmers to such a degree as to make them determine to wage war upon the courts, the legislature, and the railroads all at once. Judge Lawrence, of the Supreme Court, was the judge who was particularly obnoxious to them on account of the recent decision, and, his seat now becoming vacant, the question was how to fill it.

Up to this time, the farmers' movement had had one merit—it had been perfectly genuine. The men who had held the meetings

had been real farmers, animated, if by an angry and unintelligent, at least by a well-founded conviction that something was wrong somewhere. Thus far it was not unlike the earlier stages of the Cincinnati movement, before a platform had been adopted or "organization" begun. The Princeton meeting was to show a still more striking resemblance in the result. The object of the convention was the nomination of a judge to fill the vacancy caused by Judge Lawrence's retirement. Up to this time, there had been no offices to fill, and the politicians had been kept, or kept themselves, in the background. Now, however, there was a vacancy, and they scented their prey afar off. The usual manipulation of the "wires" began, and they were managed with the usual skill. That we do not exaggerate when we say that the politicians captured this little reform convention, and in the same way that certain other politicians captured the Cincinnati Convention last summer, we might show in various ways, but the best, perhaps, is the account of the character of the meeting published afterwards by one of the delegates. This is what he says:

"The convention of farmers called for nominating a candidate for Supreme Judge for the Fifth Circuit, met at Princeton last Wednesday. To say that it was a convention representing the farming interests of the district is a mean slander on the honest yeomanry of the county. The whole machine was managed and run by a few old, outworn politicians, who never did an honest day's work on a farm in their lives. From many of the counties no regular delegates were selected, and from others only here and there a township grange sent up a delegate, and by a vote of the convention they were empowered to cast the full vote of the county—in some instances one and two delegates casting twelve or eighteen votes; and this was the way the farmers were represented. The noisy crowd wanted something, but they couldn't tell what. The office of Supreme Judge went begging, and no one could be found willing to accept the nomination—every respectable lawyer in the district, of any legal acquirements, being pledged to support Judge Lawrence. But the 'farmers' must have a man they 'know to be sound on the goose,' no matter whether he ever looked into the lids of Blackstone or not. A number of names were presented, among them the Hon. A. M. Craig, of Knox, and, after the first ballot, which was an informal one, he was nominated by acclamation. This was done in the face of a letter written to the convention by Mr. Craig, in which he refused the use of his name, and stating in unmistakable language that he could not and would not accept the nomination."

From other quarters we get the same account. One paper says:

"Farmers as a class are not schooled in the dark and mysterious ways of the politician, and accordingly we find, from nearly every county in the district, professional politicians succeeded in worming themselves into the confidence of the farmers, and getting themselves appointed as delegates to the convention. On arriving at Princeton, these dead-beats and scalawags found that they were in a majority, and that very few, except fancy farmers and politicians, were in attendance as delegates. Consequently they took possession of the convention, and ran the machine in their own interests, and nominated a man for Supreme Judge, in spite of his letter declining it, whom they fondly hoped would act in subservience to their interests; but who, it is rumored, will not accept the honor sought to be thrust upon him."

To turn now to the so-called National Convention held at the Astor House in this city, and representing some seven States interested in the question of cheap transportation—what was its composition? If any one is so credulous as to suppose that it was a convention of farmers or landowners or men who had made a study of the freight question, he is very much mistaken. The reason why the resolutions adopted were vague, and why absolutely no remedy for the existing evils was suggested, was that the convention was very similar in the character of its composition to the Princeton meeting in Illinois. The Chicago *Evening Journal*, a paper very much in favor of the farmers' movement, says:

"The earnest workers in the cause of this reform at the West were not present at the convention. Why should they be? What was the use of tramping off there, a thousand miles or so, to attend a mere random gathering? Men of ample leisure and plenty of money did well to attend the convention; but the anti-monopoly movement of the West is no kid-glove affair, nor is it made up of broken-down politicians, professional philanthropists, or experimental farmers"—

while it sufficiently appears, from the published reports of the gathering, that its principal business was the listening to an address from Mr. Josiah Quincy, of Boston, a gentleman in no way connected with the agricultural interest, and whose panacea for all ills, local or national, is building a few miles more of railway.

This is the upshot of the farmers' movement; what may come of it hereafter we do not know, but thus far it has gone through all the phases which we have of late years come to regard as the necessary stages in the development of a popular "rising" of this sort. First, it was a real movement of real farmers in favor of cheap transportation. Then followed meetings, protests, appointment of delegates, and loud-voiced denunciation of the "politicians." Then comes the period of management, manipulation, "seeing people," "arranging slates," and so. The farmers do not understand this, and the politicians do. The whole thing ends by the disappearance of the farmers from the scene, the capture of the movement by the very politicians who are so much detested, and—believe it, posterity!—the formation of a national association which announces its intention of securing cheap freight by building a few more "national highways"!

The moral of this fiasco, as well as of that of the Cincinnati movement last year, we take to be this—that the "convention" system has broken down by its own weight, and that the only way to secure any substantial improvement in politics hereafter will be through entrusting the work to small bodies of men, selected by extra-political machinery. The only reason why the reform movement in this city and State has had any success at all is that instead of working through the old political organizations, it has worked in opposition to them all through. It has worked through such bodies as the Committee of Seventy, the Bar Association, and sub-committees such as that sent up to Albany to "watch legislation." The chronic intimidation of the politician by small posses of genuine reformers is now one of the principal duties of the latter.

CHIEF-JUSTICE CHASE.

THE present flood of mortality among distinguished men has been so great as to add to the sense of shock with which the public heard of the death of Mr. Chase; but it has long been known that he might go any day. He died on Wednesday of last week of paralysis. Mr. Chase was a New Hampshire man, and was born at Cornish in that State, in 1808. He was of a family noted for a genuine New Hampshire ability in politics, but his own immediate parentage, if highly respectable, was poor, and the future Governor, Senator, and Chief-Justice, being left an orphan at the age of twelve, passed to the care of his uncle, the Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Ohio. After this the common road so often travelled by the ambitious young New Englander lay before him—though, with the luck peculiar to him, and which we shall notice further on as aiding him throughout, this road was made easier to him than to most. He had to get his schooling, and he had to do that usual work at school-keeping which has made our American common school the school, as it were, of American statesmen; but his uncle, the bishop, had an academy, of which young Chase was free, and he was able to enter in advance at Dartmouth College, and graduate in two years; while of the not very large amount of school-keeping that he did, he did the most important part in Washington, where his seminary made him known to several distinguished men, such as Clay and Wirt, who were its patrons, and in the office of one of these, Wirt, he studied law. It is said that it was with difficulty that he was admitted to the bar; but we may be sure that the utter self-reliance or self-confidence which was so prominent a trait of his character prevented any doubts in his own mind of his full success as a practitioner. He at once began practice at Cincinnati, and in no very long time was not only fairly successful in his profession, but he was even a man of mark, for already he had taken a very bold and a very creditable stand in politics, and, as history developed itself, his view was seen to be singularly prescient. He was but twenty-seven or twenty-eight when he allied himself with the much-hated anti-slavery party. He was a believer in most of the doctrines of the Democratic party, but was unalterably of opinion that slavery and its extension were no proper planks of the Democratic platform. Indeed, his contention in the premises was that slavery was the creation of State law; Lord Mansfield's famous decision he regarded as embodying the only sound principle in the matter, and, adopting it as his own, he very courageously and consistently, with whatever soundness of constitutional law, upheld his watchword of "liberty national, and slavery sectional" in the face of much obloquy and even danger.

In Mr. Chase's own opinion and that of his friends and followers, his political conduct was never inconsistent with his attitude in his early days. Thus they justify what his enemies have condemned as his coquetting with the Democrats in 1857 and 1863. He would never, they say, have been anything but a Democrat had it not been that the Democrats adopted the un-

democratic institution of slavery; that once gone, he was again a Democrat. We need not stop here to examine into the question whether, if the spirit of slavery was in 1865 the essence of Democratic doctrine, it could in 1867 have been much else than that. But whatever calamity was or was not averted when the Chief-Justice failed to be nominated at Tammany Hall, we may be absolutely sure of one thing—that there was involved in that failure a very bitter disappointment to a man whose ambition and sense of masterful fitness made him eagerly long for the place—be the Democracy what it might. What other Chief-Justice of the United States ever so desired and sought the Presidency as to make thinly disguised electioneering tours for the purpose of keeping himself before the people? Undoubtedly it was his burning ambition for the coveted honor which made it possible for this proud and honorable man to degrade so greatly a dignity and place so high. It is the chief dimness on a most honorable record.

His career as a politician, or rather as a statesman, in the great struggle which so occupied the minds of that generation of the public men of whom we are now almost daily taking leave, is well known, and still better do we know his career as Secretary of the Treasury. Yet in this latter capacity some injustice has been done him which he can ill afford; for of necessity his financial procedure was of a kind, and on a scale, and under a pressure which made his work open to some serious objections; but it is not open to the heaviest objection of all: neither the origination nor recommendation of the legal-tender feature of his financial scheme is to be charged to him. He never wished that feature adopted; he has always maintained that its operation should have long since ceased. In his dissenting opinion, when a majority of the Supreme Court reversed the previous decision of an equally strong majority, he gave this exposition of what he had done as Secretary of the Treasury (12 Wallace R. p. 576):

"In no report made by him to Congress was the expedient of making the notes of the United States a legal tender suggested. He urged the issue of notes payable on demand in coin, or received as coin in payment of duties. When the State banks had suspended specie payments, he recommended the issue of United States notes receivable for all loans to the United States, and all Government dues, except duties on imports. In his report of December, 1862, he said that 'United States notes receivable for bonds bearing a secure specie interest are next best to notes convertible into coin,' and, after stating the financial measures which, in his judgment, were advisable, he added: 'The Secretary recommends, therefore, no mere paper-money scheme, but on the contrary a series of measures looking to a safe and gradual return to gold and silver as the only permanent basis, standard, and measure of value recognized by the Constitution.'"

Reviewing his subsequent acquiescence in the legal-tender part of the scheme, he adds:

"Examination and reflection under more propitious circumstances have satisfied him that this opinion was erroneous, and he does not hesitate to declare it. He would do so just as unhesitatingly if his favor to the legal-tender clause had been at that time decided, and his opinion as to the constitutionality of the measure clear."

As we have said, a chief characteristic of his life seems to have been success—not in the ordinary sense of a man's accomplishing what he undertakes, but as a result always magnified by circumstances to an extent which could never have been anticipated. Poverty imposed school-teaching upon him as upon Mr. Seward, but circumstances which led the one to the obscurity of plantation life brought the other to the national capital, gave him a successful school already well established, and enabled him to become a student under one whom many regard as the most eminent and accomplished of American lawyers. In the first idleness of his professional life, he did what a thousand ambitious young lawyers have done—he essayed bookmaking, and his edition of the Ohio statutes immediately brought him into notice, and has continued to be a standard work, we believe, to the present time. In public life his career began almost at the moment when he was able to mount on the very crest of the wave that was overthrowing old parties and things. As Secretary of the Treasury, he found a field the magnitude of which no imagination had previously measured. Financially speaking, some of his projects were costly and unsound, but admirably adapted to our ignorances, prejudices, and ways. It was not his business then to economize, but to borrow money, and keep the Government going at any cost. In this he succeeded, never allowing it to fall into the monetary deadlock which well-nigh ruined the country in each of its preceding great wars. Indeed, his action appears titanic when we contrast it with the feebleness which in 1814 brought the Treasury to absolute bankruptcy, and threw the support of the Western army upon the charity of a contractor, whose advances, by the way, have never been repaid to this day, and who paid for his patriotic credulity by being reduced from great wealth to insolvency, and dying in the debtors' prison at Washington, vainly memorializing Congress for justice. The heavy work of the Rebellion, in fact, fell upon the shoulders of three lawyers, none of whom had had the slightest previous experience in his department; each of whom made mistakes and committed errors; all of whom performed their work without allowing it once to stop, or in any just sense to become a failure; and who left the posts of their responsibility with shattered constitutions and shortened lives. The last of these three has now passed away, and his death is a long stride toward transferring the leading and controlling statesmen of the great civil war from the region of partisan clamor and detraction to the juster balances of history.

As Chief-Justice of the United States, there has been in Mr. Chase's life the same mingling of individual and circumstantial success. It has been his peculiar fortune to have taken a leading part in the legislative history which preceded the Rebellion, and in executive management during the Rebellion, and then to have passed judicially upon all of the important constitutional and legal questions that have arisen out of the Rebellion. Mr. Seward took part with him in the first and the second of these, Mr. Lincoln and Mr. Stanton in the executive, but Mr. Chase alone is prominent in all three of these most important chapters of the national history. The nine annual terms through which he has presided constitute a judicial period of little less importance than that period of constitutional interpretation which it was the fortune of Chief-Justice Marshall almost exclusively to fill. For many years to come the decisions of these nine terms will be referred to by lawyers, legislators, and constitutional students more than any others. In them the late Chief-Justice will always appear prominent and never far from right. He brought to the court no store of legal learning, but he brought comprehensive views, considerable power of generalization, and a just sense of constitutional rights and judicial responsibility. Of this latter he gave a signal example during the impeachment trial of President Johnson. Entirely unmoved by the clamor of the party managers and the party press, he maintained complete impartiality, which, however, could teach them neither dignity nor decency, and brought on him their most savage maledictions.

"If any care for what is here
Survive in spirits rendered free,"

he must now listen to some of the praises which are poured out on his life and actions with a touch of sorrow for men who so little know how to honor their great while these live, and so little able to respect themselves when their great have gone from among them, but cover with unmeasured laudation the man whom once they brutally maligned. In upholding the rights of the citizen against the exercise of arbitrary power by the Executive, and the responsibility of the Executive and Judiciary against the unconstitutional usurpations of Congress, and in striving to maintain the financial integrity of the country against a demoralization which allows a man to borrow gold and repay it in irredeemable paper, he has been firm and liberal and just; and his judicial services will be more highly esteemed when it is more clearly perceived that they uniformly tend to the maintenance of those principles which are the basis of national integrity, personal or political.

SAINTE-BEUVE'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH PRINCESS MATHILDE.

PARIS, April 25, 1873.

EVERYTHING which comes from the pen of Sainte-Beuve has a great value for the literary world; he was the most analytical mind of his time, and his additions to the literary history of France will always be very valuable. Little is known of the man himself outside of a very small circle of people; and this ignorance gives some interest to a correspondence of his which has just been published. The correspondent was Princess Mathilde, the daughter of King Jerome Bonaparte, and the sister of Prince Napoleon. This Princess married, a long time ago, Prince Demidoff of Russia, but the marriage was not a happy one, and she lived separated from her husband. When the Second Empire was founded, she became one of the goddesses of the Imperial Olympus; but, though a strong Bonapartist, which can hardly be wondered at, she affected to take no part in politics, did not show herself much at court, and devoted her time either in Paris or at Saint-Gratien, her country-house, to the art of painting and to the society of artists and of literary men. Her imperialism was rather of the poetical kind; she considered the first Napoleon as a god, she looked upon him as the armed representative of the French Revolution; she was only half satisfied with the policy of Napoleon III., who was not brilliant and fascinating enough to strike her imagination; and she had an ill-concealed aversion for the Empress Eugénie, who was too Catholic and bigoted for her taste. She was essentially what the French call an *esprit fort*, and was herself less at ease with the ministers, the great dignitaries of the Empire and of the Church, than with scientific men, Darwinians, physiologists, and with littérateurs, to whom she allowed the greatest liberty of language. Sainte-Beuve was just the man who could best satisfy her curiosity, her genuine

love of truth, her contempt of all social shams, and her somewhat cynical (if such a word be not found too hard) disposition to deal with facts rather than with established theories.

Judging from the correspondence which is before us, a real friendship seems to have sprung up between the Academician and the Princess, and it is to their credit that it outlived many years and many painful incidents. Whatever may be said of the intellectual peculiarities of the Princess, her character comes out of this correspondence to her advantage. She was evidently not only very amiable, very generous, but she had that faculty, so rare among persons of royal extraction, of forgetting herself, and of experiencing a real interest in subjective matters. Of course, she played somewhat the part of a Circe: she found the means, through Sainte-Beuve, of drawing nearer to the Empire many shy and clever men whom a direct invitation to the Tuileries would have frightened at first. But she could not have played this difficult part if she had not felt more or less in sympathy with their persons, their works, their experiments. If I judge her right from the letters of Sainte-Beuve, she must be very natural, intellectually speaking very active, and singularly desirous of pleasing her friends.

The part of Sainte-Beuve was more difficult. He had, to be sure, almost from the beginning cast his lot with the Empire; he did not believe either in the honesty or in the intelligence of the old leaders of the parliamentary government; he thought sincerely that the best government for France was an intelligent despotism, a monarch who knew how to speak to the heart of the great nation, who could strike the popular imagination, and form and realize great plans. But sometimes the despotism of Napoleon III. did not seem to him intelligent enough; he found the sovereign too lazy, too disposed to abandon the direction of public affairs to corrupt or stupid ministers. The old Liberal who had been the companion and friend of all the great men of the Restoration, rebelled at times against the Bonapartist; he was anxious to preserve his independence of mind and of judgment. When the 'Life of Cæsar,' by Napoleon III., appeared, he was asked rather peremptorily to review the imperial work, and he answered, "I shall wait till Cæsar opens the door of France to Condé"—a pointed allusion to the seizure by the police of the 'History of the House of Condé,' by an exiled Prince. Sainte-Beuve besides, it must be said, belonged to the "genus irritabile vatum." It must be supposed that the work of literary creation overexcites the nervous system, for men of letters seldom enjoy the quiet serenity of mind of men of the world. There was nothing of the "snob" in Sainte-Beuve, and I cannot agree with those who think that in his correspondence with the Princess he shows occasionally a sensitiveness which is not quite *genteel*. It seems to me that he was not overcareful of his dignity, but he certainly had a painful consciousness that he must preserve it, and that it was not quite safe among the courtiers of the Empire. His remarks on them must have been sometimes too sharp. Did he not say of himself, "I have wounded more men by my praise than others could have done by their censure"?

The Princess is always disposed to heal his wounds, to smooth his ruffled mind. When he finds his work too hard, and complains of the necessity of making a living, like a machine, by writing at regular intervals, she is anxious to procure him a good sinecure—a senatorship. She does not succeed at first, and one of the most angry letters of Sainte-Beuve was written just after a promotion of senators in which his own name did not appear. This letter and a few others have been very severely attacked; but it must be remembered that the two correspondents were on the most intimate terms. I will give you proofs of this intimacy. Writing to the Princess on the 'History of the Empire,' by M. Thiers, Sainte-Beuve says that the historian has done a useful work, but has not known how to use the precious materials of the immense correspondence of the Emperor. "He had," says he, "the very water of the Styx, and he has not tempered his style nor his sword with it. The whole thing will one day be done over. *What is not written will not last.*" Such a severe criticism of one of the most popular books written during the last twenty years was certainly not intended for publication. Speaking of an article of M. de Sacy on Madame de Sévigné, he says: "What a good fellow he is! How fond he is of his authors! Does he not inform us that he would have liked to be imprisoned with Madame de Sévigné? All very well; but would she have liked it?" This was surely not intended to be published.

Here is a judgment on Renan: "There are whole centuries which are dryness and sterility itself. We try nowadays to make them live again, and to find something equivalent to life. Renan is excellent in this sort of work. As for myself, it amuses me without convincing me. I will even say that I prefer naked, authenticated facts, as I can then make my own reflections and constructions; but I should never dare to give these interior dreams as the truth. The necessity of making brilliant newspaper articles, of showing talent every time one writes a few pages, may lead us very far." In another place he says: "Renan speaks admirably, but he is not a charmer; he speaks more to the mind than to the soul, and astonishes by his talent; what is charming in him does not belong to his nature, slightly proud, disdainful, and which has still preserved the folds of priesthood (*des plis du sacerdoce*)." Of 'Salammbô,' the novel of Flaubert, which made so much noise, he says: "I am in Salammbô. *Ouf!*"—which says much in an interjection. Could any portrait be more bitterly ironical than this which reminds one of La Bruyère: "Madame de la R—— [everybody in Paris has recognized the original] is a person who needs indulgence. She has always aspired and never attained; what she thought she had she could not keep. Her mirror has never contributed to her happiness. The always speedy ending of her half-successes has given justification to her mirror. Now she has crossed the line which novelists have always drawn as well as geographers; she has renounced the *rouge*, and adopted devotion"?

Sainte-Beuve, in the palmiest days of the Empire, is never quite reassured. "I look out every day," says he, "for the weather." He had made to himself an ideal of the Empire; he wanted the Emperor to do every day something new, something unexpected, and something good. When this programme was not fulfilled, he suffered. The malady from which he died (the stone) is apt to make men bitter. His intellect, if I might say so, was gay: his character was not. "Marcus Aurelius," he says in the 'Nouveaux Lundis,' "drained his chalice silently. He did not say, like this cynic philosopher, 'I am drunk of men': he thought it. Cicero said it also in his own style, and there came a moment when everything seemed odious to him except death. Cæsar, at the end, no longer took the trouble to defend his life: 'Let them have it if they like.' One arrives at this state of disgust by many roads; it is enough to have lived long and to have seen too much of humankind." He was constantly preoccupied with those invisible forces of opinion which governments generally ignore. "This country," said he, "is not reasonable. The same men who would be so miserable if we went where they push us, and who have already been once betrayed by fortune, recommence their efforts; we are incurable; we deceive ourselves with words. When a word is found which sounds well to the ear and to the imagination, everybody repeats it, and it becomes the cry of the nation: light nation, not safe, and only agreeable."

Nobody better than Sainte-Beuve knew that the revolutionary springs were undermining the soil trodden by the armies of the Empire. His catholic and inquisitive nature had been drawn towards the personality of Proudhon, the socialist. He felt in his own veins the virus which pervaded the nation. He had an almost instinctive horror of priests, speaks to the Princess of "this dry and hideous cardinal" and the "hommes noirs" who are odious to the generous heart of France. He believes in no religion, not even in any political doctrine, in any constitution. He ties the whole fabric of French society to a despot, and in the end he ceases to believe in the despot. Little did he foresee, however, how soon his fears would be realized: his kind correspondent has sold the Hôtel of the Rue de Courcelles, where Sainte-Beuve dined every Wednesday; the Emperor is dead; and nothing remains of the Senate but a contemptuous memory.

Notes.

THE Fifth Annual Report of the State Entomologist of Missouri not only possesses its customary value as a discussion, with illustrations, of noxious, beneficial, and other insects, but is even more calculated for wide circulation by reason of the introductory paper on the relations of entomology to agriculture, with brief instructions for collecting, preserving, and studying insects. The reading of these will doubtless have the effect of sending a good many for further information to Dr. Packard's admirable 'Guide to the Study of Insects.'——Dr. Hepburn, author of a Japanese-English and English-Japanese Dictionary, of which a second edition was printed at Shanghae last year, is now in this country, engaged upon a portable edition, from which the Japanese characters will be omitted. A few copies of the former are for sale by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., 770 Broadway. It contains about 28,000 Japanese terms rendered into English.——A Milwaukee admirer of M. Laboulaye, Mr. W. H. Bishop, publishes at the office of the *Journal of Commerce* in that city a translation of the 'Prince Caniche,' apparently as a labor of love. We have examined it cursorily, and should pronounce it on the whole well done, though needing revision. In the prefatory dialogue, for instance, we note two failures to preserve the original shade of meaning, one slurring over (as, the substitution of "everything" for *milieu*), two important omissions of sentences, and one downright error

(as, "it loves art upon art," for *il n'aime que l'art pour l'art*). In Chapter XX. there are similar omissions; *égoïste* is rendered by both "egotistical" and "selfish," *bonté* by both "goodness" and "bounty"—where "selfish" and "goodness" is the only permissible version; and for "I have you there" (*je t'y prends encore*) we get "I know you now." In spite of this carelessness, the translation is spirited and idiomatic.——A. J. Bicknell & Co. will publish this month 'Church Architecture,' by Frederick Clarke Withers, with designs for twenty-one churches and two school-houses.——A biography of the late Chief-Justice Chase has been for some time in preparation by Judge R. B. Warden.

—The 'Report of Progress, for 1871-72, of the Geological Survey of Canada,' by the Director (Montreal: Dawson Brothers), is of more than ordinary interest, as it contains Mr. Selwyn's journal of his geological exploration in British Columbia, and the report of his assistant, Mr. James Richardson, on the 'Coal Fields of the East Coast of Vancouver Island,' both entirely new fields of investigation for the survey. Mr. Selwyn's journey through the province was undertaken during the summer and autumn of 1871, occupying some four months. His route followed up Fraser River as far as the Thompson, and afterward along the latter stream to its head-waters. He penetrated to the northwest corner of the territory, exploring the region around Cranberry and Moose Lakes, and reaching nearly to the summit of Leather Pass in the Rocky Mountains. Considering the nature of the country, his disadvantages for travel, and limited time, he has brought back a large fund of information concerning the geological features of the country traversed. Mr. Richardson's report is accompanied with a rough map of the coal-fields of Nanaimo and Comox, Vancouver Island, showing the area of coal-measures and workable coal-seams. From the structural and palæontological evidences, he regards the age of the beds as cretaceous, and estimates the entire thickness of the coal formations to be at least 2,500 feet. He also gives analyses of coals from the different mines, and detailed geological sections through the coal-bearing beds. The report is valuable as bearing somewhat upon our own still more important coal deposits of Bellingham Bay and Seattle, on the eastern shore of Puget Sound, in Washington Territory. Mr. Charles Robb has compiled several tables, one for each of the provinces, showing in a concise manner "the results of mining operations during the last three years throughout the Dominion of Canada and the British American Provinces." Not only are the statistics given for the metals, gold, silver, lead, copper, and iron, but also for coal, plumbago, roofing-slate, and phosphate of lime as apatite. The mining of this last mineral for commercial purposes seems to be a growing branch of industry.

—One of the despairs of Shakespeare commentators, or at all events of their readers, has always been the epithet applied by *Mercutio* to Cupid:

> "Young Abraham Cupid, he that shot so trim,"

or, as most of the later editions have it,

> "Young Adam Cupid," etc.

"It is 'Abraham' in all the old copies," say the commentators, "but," add nearly all of them in substance, "it must be changed to 'Adam,' for Abraham means nothing, and evidently *Mercutio* here makes reference to Adam Bell, the famous archer; both he and Cupid shot arrows so trimly that they never missed the mark." Mr. Dyce, however, thinking that "Abraham" or "Abram" of course would not do, and perceiving that "Adam" was about as well authorized a substitute as "William Tell" or "Esau," ventured the conjecture that "Abram" was a corruption of "auburn." "Why, yes," says his followers; "the suggestion is more than plausible; and we at least owe to Mr. Dyce the efficient protection which it must give to the original text." An odd way, it will strike most people, to protect a text that does read "Abraham" by saying that it ought not to read "Abraham," and, on the contrary, ought to read something else. But Mr. Dyce's friends might rejoin to a caviller making this objection that he quotes several passages in support of his plausible suggestion in which "Abraham" is unquestionably "a corruption for 'auburn.'" To show how vast may be the chasm across which the true commentator will lightly throw the "unquestionable" sort of bridge on which to trip dry-shod, we quote three passages where "unquestionably" auburn is corrupted into "Abraham." The first is from a play called "Soliman and Perseda," which bears the date of 1559. It is as follows:

> "Where is the oldest sonne of Pryam,
> That Abraham-colored Troian? Dead."

Now, here surely it is not a solution of our difficulty that we get, but rather unquestionably it is our difficulty over again. The second extract is from a play dated 1602:

> "A goodlie, long, thicke Abram-colored beard."

But this passage is not a solution either. It multiplies our original difficulty by three; what, we are compelled to ask, is this "Abraham-color" which corruptly creeps into one text in 1559; then, thirty or forty years after, creeps into another, keeping out "auburn" in both cases; and finally, seven or eight years later yet, creeps into still another text and with the same result? Mr. Dyce's third reliance is on a passage in Shakespeare's "Coriolanus," act ii. scene 3, where the *First Citizen* objecting again to *Coriolanus* that once he called the multitude "the many-headed multitude," the *Third Citizen* rejoins to him thus:

> "We have been called so of many. Not that our heads are some brown, some black, some Abraham, some bald, but that our wits are so diversely colored."

Here, to our mind, is our original difficulty still further increased, until we are ready to say that, inexplicable as this word "Abraham" may look, there must have been in Shakespeare's time, and before it, a term "Abram-colored" or "Abraham-colored," which was often applied to the hair and beard, and apparently to some very commonly occurring color. Mr. Dyce being thus answered as regards the written authorities cited, may well fall back on the pictorial art, and say that "Cupid is always represented by the old painters as auburn-haired." To this defence the reply would be that "Cupid is not always represented by the old painters as auburn-haired."

—What, then, is a probable or possible explanation of the epithet which the witty and fanciful *Mercutio*, seeking for a nickname for Cupid, applies to the god? His words are as follows. *Romeo* is hiding from him, and *Mercutio* thus laughs at him:

> "Romeo! humors! madman! passion! lover!
> Appear thou in the likeness of a sigh:
> Speak but one rhyme, and I am satisfied;
> Cry but 'Ay me,' pronounce but 'love' and 'dove,'
> Speak to my gossip Venus one fair word,
> One nickname for her purblind son and heir,
> Young Abram [auburn, Adam] Cupid, he that shot so trim."

For a full answer to this question we must refer the reader to "A Shakesperian Excursus" in the *Catholic World* for May. It looks to us as if it were "a more than plausible suggestion," to use Mr. R. G. White's words, and as if we at least owe to its author some sort of "protection to the original text"; for "Abraham" it finds there, and "Abraham" it leaves there, and it leaves the strange term with something like an intelligible—if withal an intricate and ingenious—justification for its existence and position. Very briefly and imperfectly we give the main points of the explanation: "auburn" is a common adjective, and is therefore not a "nickname," which is what *Mercutio* wants for Cupid; "Abram" excellently answers his purpose, for it is a nickname (as in Abraham-men, a term for impostors and sturdy beggars: see "Lear"), and it is also the name of a color; this color is the color of flax or the lightest of sunny light-brown—a color so prized by the painters and the poets; the tree or shrub called "Abraham's balm" is a "kind of withy or willow commonly called *agnus castus* in England, the hemp-tree" (see the definition of *vitex* in the Latin-English Dictionary published at Cambridge in 1693); wigs, so much worn in those days, and from their size so prominent an article of apparel, were commonly made of flax and hemp, and, to some extent, from the resembling fibres of the "Abraham's balm" tree; these wigs were of the color proper to the little god; they were moreover of the cheap, tow sort which a footpad bought to pull for purposes of disguise over his forehead and his own hair. "Young Abraham Cupid," then, is a yellow-headed little impostor. We may add, for our own part, that he is the young "Abraham-man" of whose "painted bow of lath" *Benvolio* speaks in the early part of the festal evening, when he and his friends pause at *Capulet's* door, and he urges his party to go on forthwith into the ball-room with no spoken speech—"no without-book prologue"—from the masters, and no mock Cupid:

> ". . . The date is out of such prolixity.
> We'll have no Cupid, hoodwinked with a scarf,
> Bearing a Tartar's painted bow of lath,
> To fright the ladies like a crow-keeper."

No mock Love, no young Abraham-man, such as *Mercutio* professes later in the night to believe is really the archer who has wounded *Romeo*. In this latter view the color question is wholly disregarded, and Abraham Cupid is merely Cupid the impostor, the Cupid of the masqueraders. It will be seen that here is opportunity enough for research; but there is a *prima-facie* plausibility, we think, in the views here presented, both the more intricate one and the one which we have just hazarded; and in a case so puzzling a *prima-facie* plausibility is not to be despised.

—The news of John Stuart Mill's death reaches us too late for any attempt to estimate his position either as a politician or philosopher. We shall therefore recur to him next week, but must content ourselves now with joining in the general regret over the close of one of the purest and, all things considered, perhaps most fruitful lives of our time. For whatever one may think of Mr. Mill's philosophy, it must be admitted that no one man's influence on the current way of thinking in recent days about sociological questions has been more potent than his. This influence, in so far as it was

intellectual, for reasons we shall give hereafter, has for the last few years been on the decline among the class which first experienced it; but he probably gained every day that he lived in the personal confidence and respect of the thousands of readers in all countries whose minds he had cleared on many of the knottier problems of human existence, and whose hope his cheerful view of human possibilities every year did something to sustain.

—Mr. Herbert Spencer, who is contributing a valuable series of papers to the *Popular Science Monthly* on the study of "sociology," examines, in his April number, some of the difficulties which surround the study growing out of the "patriotic" and the "anti-patriotic" bias. The "patriotic" bias is that which exists in most people's minds in favor of the institutions or the conduct of the particular country of which they are citizens, leading them to take distorted or prejudicial views of facts—views of facts in the history of their own country which may perhaps be diametrically opposed to the views which they take of similar occurrences in the history of other countries. There is nothing very new in this part of the essay except the illustrative examples; but in the account given of the bias of anti-patriotism, there is.

"In England," Mr. Spencer says, "the bias of anti-patriotism does not diminish in a marked way the admiration we have for our political institutions, but only here and there prompts the wish for a strong government to secure the envied benefits ascribed to strong governments abroad. Nor does it appreciably modify the general attachment to our religious institutions, but, only in a few who dislike independence, shows itself in advocacy of an authoritative ecclesiastical system fitted to remedy what they lament as a chaos of religious beliefs. In other directions, however, it is displayed so frequently and conspicuously as to affect public opinion in an injurious way. In respect to the higher orders of intellectual achievement, undervaluation of ourselves has become a fashion, and the errors it fosters react detrimentally on the estimates we make of our social régime, and on our sociological beliefs in general."

This self-depreciation, in some cases, no doubt, is caused by disgust at the "jaunty self-satisfaction" inspired by excessive "patriotism." In others it comes from affectation of a wide knowledge of the world and of "culture." In the remaining cases it is due to ignorance. Passing over those cases in which there is some justification for self-depreciatory estimates, Mr. Spencer takes as an illustration of one for which there is no excuse the disparaging estimate of the part played by England in "discovery and invention." "There is an assertion occasionally to be met with in public journals, that the French invent and we improve. Not long since it was confessed by the Attorney-General that the English are not a scientific nation." The *Times* is also responsible for an intimation that "abstract knowledge" is given the go-by in England. These statements, Mr. Spencer says, can only be accounted for on the supposition that those who make them have a "culture exclusively literary."

—"A convenient way of dealing with this bias of anti-patriotism will be to take an individual example of it," and the example selected is no less a person than Mr. Matthew Arnold, of whose sociological speculations Mr. Spencer heartlessly observes that "the mode of procedure generally followed by Mr. Arnold is not that of judicially balancing the evidence, but that of meeting the expression of self-satisfied patriotism by some few facts calculated to cause dissatisfaction, not considering what is their quantitative value." For example, to reprove the Anglo-mania of Mr. Roebuck, Mr. Arnold comments on the murder of an illegitimate child by its mother, reported in the same paper with Mr. Roebuck's speech—an effective reply enough if infanticide were peculiar to England, or "baby-farming" not common in the neighborhood of Paris. Mr. Spencer asks what Mr. Arnold would think of it were he to take as a "test of Continental culture" the number of murders committed in England by foreigners "within our own memories," and were then to compare the "ratio borne by this number of murderers to the number of foreigners in England with the answering ratio among our own people." Or suppose, as a test of German administration, he were to take the disclosure of Virchow, the leading Berlin physician, "who shows that one out of every three children born in Berlin dies the first year," while the general mortality has been steadily increasing for twenty years. This evidence, Mr. Spencer thinks, would be more to the point than a single case of infanticide in England. Further, suppose French administration were tested by the statistics of mortality in the Crimea—greatly in favor of the English soldier—what would Mr. Arnold reply? Turning from Mr. Arnold's method to some of his specific statements, he first combats the charge that the English are deficient in "ideas," his method being so little like Mr. Arnold's that he is at the pains of going through the whole range of the sciences, and enumerating the recent English contributions to them—a long list, which will do a good deal to convince an unprejudiced person that Mr. Arnold's denunciations of his country must be taken *cum grano*. He also quotes from a number of foreign sources to show that, while Mr. Arnold is lamenting the absence of *Geist* in England, Frenchmen are asserting that there is more *Geist* there than either in France or Germany, and Germans admitting that England "has always been, and is particularly now," rich in scientific works. The peculiarity of this examination into Mr. Arnold's speculations is that it is conducted without any heat or animosity at all, in the interest of pure sociology.

—Mme. Edgar Quinet has published a diary of the siege of Paris, with a short preface by her distinguished husband, in the course of which he says that the five months of the siege were the best in his life, because in that period he "saw the French nature reach its greatest height":

"For the first time I beheld a France without reaction, without subterfuges, without Jesuitism, without servitude. How novel it all was to me! The performance according to the promise; no underhanded manœuvring—the spirit of a great nation hovering over the city; more management—everybody exalted and transfigured; every face radiant with the bursting of bombs; the long falsehood dissipated by the nearness of battle; steel and fire bringing the most hardened back to truth, to lost sincerity; a city which used to be called so frivolous, and which found it had a heart of bronze—inflexible so long as a mouthful of bread was left it; the enemy, which had counted upon disorder, astonished to encounter instead of the petty passions of a people in its dotage the patience, the energy of a new people—Sparta instead of Byzantium."

M. Quinet wrote on the 23d of March. It is probable that he has never read M. Labouchère's 'Diary of a Besieged Resident.' The same phenomena witnessed with different eyes, and with what a different report! Here is what the latter says of the radiant and transfigured fellow-citizens of M. and Mme. Quinet:

"If the thirty-eight million Frenchmen outside Paris are such fools as to allow themselves to be ruled by the two million amiable, ignorant, bragging humbugs who are within it, France will most deservedly cease to be a power of Europe. If this country is to recover from the ruin in which it is overwhelmed, it is absolutely essential that Paris should cease to be its political capital, and that the Parisians should not have a greater share in moulding its future policy than they are numerically entitled to."

As to the "outside" Frenchmen, M. Gabriel Monod, in his 'Souvenirs of the Campaign of the Loire,' had already testified. He saw among them neither the laying aside of frivolity nor the return to "la sincérité perdue"; on the contrary:

"Never had I been so painfully conscious of the incorrigible levity of our national character, or of the strength of those illusions by which so many minds are prevented from grasping the reality in all its deformity, or of that wilful blindness which not only makes the French unable to see the truth and unwilling to speak it, but makes them even detest to hear it."

HALL'S 'EXEMPLIFICATIONS OF FALSE PHILOLOGY.'*

IT is not a little remarkable how many kind gentlemen have undertaken within the past dozen years to lecture us about how we shall talk and write our English speech. There are, for instance—but we forbear to harrow up the memories of our readers, although it were easy to mention half a dozen conspicuous examples in a line. For it is upon the whole a dreary and barren literature, far more assuming and complacent than edifying, and founded on so insufficient a basis of scholarship as to deserve, in great part, the name of "false philology." Our minds have often been filled with impatience, not to say indignation and wrath, at these self-elected guides. And here is a book which is inspired by our own feeling; which attacks the critics of correct English, and exposes and denounces their errors and shortcomings.

Mr. Hall passes unnoticed, or with only a word or two of condemnation, some of those who have most moved our ire—as Alford and his antagonist Moon, Blackley, and Gould. He expends a few trenchant introductory pages on Landor and Coleridge, De Quincey and the London *Athenæum*. But his chief exemplar of false philology is Mr. Richard Grant White, as exhibiting himself in the volume, more than once mentioned of late in these pages, entitled 'Words and their Uses.' The second and revised edition of this work had not yet made its appearance when Mr. Hall undertook to expose its weaknesses; but the exposure will apply very nearly or quite as well to the new as to the old form of it, for we have not observed that the alterations recently made affect any of the points criticised. More than one additional revision may be made, we think, still leaving a plenty of matter for adverse criticism. Mr. White's dogmas and semblances of arguments have met with many severe answers, and from diverse points of view; his philological knowledge, as to the history of English words and forms, has been made the chief subject of one formidable attack; his ideas of general grammar, of another; his command of English authorities, and the soundness and good taste of his decisions on disputed points of usage, of yet

* 'Recent Exemplifications of False Philology. By Fitzedward Hall, M.A., Hon. D.C.L. Oxon.,' etc. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1872. 12mo, pp. 125.

others; and it is in this last direction that Dr. Hall's criticisms expend themselves. They are throughout pungent and able, and they are founded on a wide acquaintance with English literature, a philological cultivation, and an acuteness and penetration to which his antagonist can make no pretence.

Mr. White is, however, on his own showing, pre-eminently a man of no pretence. In the new Preface to which he directed the other day our halting attention, he reiterates and emphasizes his former assertion that he is no scholar, and least of all that silly and stilted pedant which he defines a "philologist" to be. As for "usage" in language, he denies its value and spurns its authority, even adding a chapter to strengthen the misapprehensions on this point which he had disclosed and urged before, and setting up as his ideal of a word which has its own *raison d'être* in itself and needs no support from usage to make it good English, that bold venture of Lowell's, *undisprivacied*—a word easily pardonable to a genius like Lowell, but very far from being a safe model for imitation. He thus clears the field of everything which others rest upon as the grounds of argument, and proposes to be governed in his decisions only by "reason and taste." Now what these qualifications may be, as distinguished from those of which other language-critics avail themselves along with and by the aid of the philological training and acquaintance with English usage which he contemns, we are somewhat at a loss to see. Nor does it appear in the volume what they are; it is plain enough there that the author brings up every particle of philological knowledge that he has, and that his citations of English authorities are not a whit narrower than his reading allows. There is no such thing as taste and reason absolute in language; every case of doubtful propriety requires to be discussed on the foundation of history and usage, of analogy and adaptedness; and the true scholar differs from the make-believe only in the sufficiency and solidity of this necessary basis. If Mr. White had only his prejudices to explain and recommend to us (as, indeed, in many cases he has nothing better), there was no reason for his telling us so long a story. In these days of philological light and knowledge, no man has the right to come forward and lecture the community on the proprieties of speech, and then try to creep away from adverse criticism under cover of the plea that he is "no philologist": the plea itself amounts to a confession of judgment against him.

The main alteration made in this new edition of Mr. White's work is by the addition of the chapter already referred to, in which the author defends at greater length his old dogma that usage does not govern language. To our mind, it only illustrates anew his unclearness of thought upon the subject; in fact, usage does govern language, and absolutely; all that his counter-pleas mean is that questions of linguistic propriety may remain open a long time; that no partial usage, on the part of whatever class, avails to settle them; and that usage is fluctuating, and every man has the right to open the question in regard to any particular item of usage and get it changed—if he can.

Along with this, the most striking weakness of the book is perhaps its abhorrence of the element of synthetic form in language, and its assumption that reason and logic belong only to analytic expression, like that which forms the main part of English speech. *Amatur* and *amaverit*, as compared with *he is loved* and *he will have loved*, seem to him well-nigh barbarous; he looks down with a kind of pitying contempt upon the wealth of Greek conjugation and declension; and he extols to the skies his native language as "the grammarless tongue." All this, again, is the merest prejudice; we cannot call it precisely discreditable to Mr. White, because, by his own estimate, he is no scholar; it would be so if he were one. We have not noticed that he objects to any of the abundant remains of synthetic formation which still constitute the nucleus and the strength of English grammar; that he proposes, for example, to say *he come* instead of *he comes* and *he came;* his "taste and reason" approve just what English possesses, no more and no less; he professes the comfortable philosophy "whatever is, is right"—wherein he seems to us to trench dangerously near upon the doctrine he so stoutly opposes, that usage makes propriety in speech. How carelessly he can think and write about English grammar is shown by the fact that he ignores the form *thou lovest* as a part of English verbal inflection, and actually, in more than one place, declares it to have been lost from use by the same process of simplification which has rid our language of the Anglo-Saxon inflections in general. We had looked to find that palpable blunder corrected in the second edition; but it still stands in black and white on the pages where it stood before, although we have seen the author's attention called to it in criticisms of the volume.

Mr. White, however, is not absolutely inaccessible to instruction from his critics: Dr. Hall's elaborate refutation of his argument against *is being*, published in *Scribner's Monthly* a year ago (the subject is therefore only alluded to, not reargued, in the present brochure), has been so far taken to heart by him that he now (p. 337) declares the phrase to have begun "about seventy or eighty years ago," instead of, as in the first edition, "about fifty years ago, as I infer," to distress and torture every tasteful and reasonable friend of correct English. He might well, we think, have given Dr. Hall credit for suggesting this alteration of date, particularly as he does not draw an additional particle of profit from the counter-argument. This whole matter is thoroughly characteristic of Mr. White. His "taste" is offended by the phrase *is being done* and its like, and he denounces it without stint. So far, no one can object; a well-known rule forbids us to take up the cudgels against him upon that ground; perhaps we ourselves go a certain way in agreement with him, only that we are a little ashamed of our repugnance, knowing that it is in part artificial, the result of reflection, and fearing that it is no better than squeamishness. The average educated and cultivated English speaker, we believe, uses the phrase without suspecting that there is anything wrong about it, unless some purist has been spoiling his simplicity. Take as an example Mr. Earle, author of a stout volume on 'The Philology of the English Tongue': upon his mind (see the *Nation* for March 7, 1872) has never dawned a sense of the enormity of *is being*. And when it has come to that, the fight might as well be given up; the new locution has won its place in the language. But, not content with pronouncing against it from the *cathedra* of taste, Mr. White, according to his usage, cannot resist the inclination to prove that he has "reason" also on his side, and so argues the question through a whole chapter of thirty-three mortal pages: and this is his mistake; it is all merely a long tirade, a reiteration of "I don't like it," disguised under a variety of forms; sound learning and judgment and reasoning are alike wanting in the discussion. The author has recently professed in our pages that he found nothing in Dr. Hall's arguments which he had not already fully considered and rejected; but to our less prejudiced eyes (as we think them to be) his adversary is in the right throughout. Mr. White stigmatizes the locution in question as the fabrication of a pedant, adopted and propagated by pretentious fools; far from this being the case, it is as natural and legitimate a step forward in the development of English expression as any that ever was taken: it is simply the supplying of a corresponding passive to our continuous active tenses. *I do* a thing, and *it is done;* but the thing that *I am doing* seems to require that I describe it as *being done*, and I say that *it is being done*. This is distinctly pointed out by Dr. Hall, as it had been by others: if Mr. White cannot see the point, his perspicacity is not to be envied. Further, Dr. Hall shows that *is being* is no more a senseless repetition, like *exists existing*, than *has had* is a senseless repetition, like *possesses possessed;* and if *ens edificatus est* is bad Latin, so is also *edificans est*—and so on. We cannot deny a certain kind of "reason" to Mr. White in that in his second edition he buries these adverse arguments under the profoundest silence.

If, then, Dr. Hall imagined that his criticisms would have any real effect on his antagonist, he has probably by this time seen his error. With the reading and judging public, the case will doubtless be different. Which of the two shows the keener mind, and the wider and deeper knowledge, no one who reads both volumes will for a moment question. Without claiming the title, or putting forward any pretensions either to "scholarship" or to absolute "reason" and infallible "taste," Dr. Hall is really a scholar, and a profound one, known as such in three continents; for his contributions to Sanskrit and other Oriental learning have been a credit both to America, the land of his birth, and England, the country of his adoption, in India, the scene of the larger share of his life's labor. Not deeming Mr. White a foeman altogether worthy of his steel, we welcome his present production especially as an earnest of the greater work on "Modern English" which he announces as in preparation, and which we hope to receive from him within no long time, sure that it will be a valuable contribution to the knowledge of our native tongue.

THE HYGIENE OF BOAT-RACING.*

ON the 10th of June, 1829, the first English University boat-race was rowed over the "Henley" course. From that time to 1869 (inclusive) twenty-five races were rowed, and it is on statistics with regard to the health of the men who composed the crews in these twenty-five races that Dr. Morgan's conclusions are based. The total number of oars Dr. Morgan found to be 294, of whom 255 were alive at the end of the year 1869. Some idea of the care with which he has conducted his enquiries may be gathered from the fact that, out of these 255, scattered over all parts of the globe, he

* 'University Oars: Being a Critical Enquiry into the After-health of the Men who Rowed in the Oxford and Cambridge Boat-Race from the year 1829 to 1869, based on the Personal Experience of the Rowers themselves. By John Ed. Morgan, M.D., M. A. Oxon., F.R.C.P., late Captain of the *John* + (Coll. Univ.), Physician to the Manchester Royal Infirmary, author of the 'Deterioration of Race,' etc.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

has succeeded in obtaining letters from 251; and, in the case of the four men who have not answered the letters addressed to them, the necessary information has been supplied by their fellow-oarsmen. Dr. Morgan has also succeeded in getting detailed information as to the causes of death in the cases of the thirty-nine men who were not living at the end of the year 1869. It will be gratifying to all rowing men, as well as the public, to know that the results of these enquiries show, as conclusively as the nature of the subject permits, that college boat-racing, far from being a dangerous, is, when pursued under the proper conditions, a healthy sport. Dr. Morgan's statistics show, indeed, what any one might have anticipated, that racing may in certain cases be dangerous to men who are in delicate health; but this is not a peculiarity of racing: it is equally true of boxing, fencing, and gymnastic exercise. It would be interesting, by the way, to obtain statistics as good as Dr. Morgan's as to the effects of this last kind of exercise on the health.

To consider the deaths first: we find that, of the 39 men who had died before the end of the year 1869, fever had carried off 11; consumption, 7; other forms of chest disease, 2; accidental causes, 6; heart affections, 3; disease of the brain, 2; inflammatory attacks, 2; general paralysis, 1; calculus, 1; erysipelas, 1; Bright's disease, 1; cancer, 1; lupus, 1. Of all these, the only deaths which can in any possible way be traced to the effects of rowing are the 12 caused by diseases of the lungs and heart. For the purpose of determining whether this number is larger in proportion to the total number of deaths than the ordinary ratio in civil life, Dr. Morgan turns to the tables of the Registrar-General, and finds that in the seven years from 1848–1854, which afford fair average data for purposes of comparison, 40 per cent. of the deaths of males between the ages of 20 and 60 are ascribed to diseases of the lungs, 28·9 per cent. being due to consumption, 11·2 to other forms of chest disease; among the University oars, on the other hand, 17 is the percentage for consumption and 5 for other forms. With regard to heart diseases, the percentage among the University oars is 7·4. There is some difficulty in comparing this with the percentage furnished by the reports of the Registrar-General, because in the last fourteen or fifteen years there has been a marked increase in the general percentage of heart disease in England and Wales, 5·2 per cent. being the average for 1848–1854, and 8 per cent. for 1859-1869. With the conclusion derived from these statistics by Dr. Morgan no one, we imagine, will be inclined to quarrel:

"The reports, then, from which I have just quoted, sufficiently show that, as regards heart complaint, there is little appreciable difference in the mortality observed among University oars and that which prevails amongst other classes of men at a corresponding period of life. It may be urged that the deaths among the rowers are not sufficiently numerous to afford any very conclusive standard of comparison. Nevertheless they are, I am disposed to think, amply sufficient, when taken in connection with what has been said regarding the longevity of the rowers, to show that those hecatombs of young Englishmen who, we are told, sacrifice themselves annually on the altars of our popular pastimes, exist rather in the timid brains of alarmists than in the stern tables of statistical investigation."

"What has been said regarding the longevity of the rowers" is this: Dr. Morgan makes a calculation for the purpose of discovering how many years each crew, and each individual member of each crew, are likely to survive the race, assuming that each man was, at the time he rowed, 20 years of age, and comparing their "expectation of life" (derived from Dr. Farr's English life-tables) with the number of years actually lived by those oars who are now dead, and the number of years actually lived by the oars now living plus the number of years which, according to the tables, they may still expect to live. For example, of the eight men who pulled in the Oxford 1829 crew, one died in 1856, one in 1863, and one in 1868, their average age being 53. According to Dr. Farr's tables, the life-expectation of a healthy man at 20 is 40 years; *i.e.*, he may expect to live to the age of 60. These three men, therefore, fell short of their calculated expectation. Against this deficiency, however, we must offset the years which the five healthy survivors at the end of the year 1869 were *likely* to live. Assuming their ages to be 60 years in 1869, each one would be entitled to 14 years more, the value of the five lives together being 70 years. The result of this calculation is that "the life of the crew may be set down at 370 years; but the calculated value of the eight lives" (at 20) "would not exceed 320 years, hence this crew may be considered likely to live 50 years longer than eight ordinarily healthy men, each man, in fact, living on an average for about 46 years instead of 40 years after the race." It will be noticed that these calculations are based on the supposition of health; but this gives Dr. Morgan no trouble, because in cases where there is ground for believing that any of the survivors of a crew are in an unsound condition, he makes a deduction from the life-expectation—and as he knows, as well as such a thing can be known without medical examination, the physical state of all the survivors, he is able to ask his readers to place a good deal of reliance on the calculation. The general result is that each individual who rows is likely to survive, instead of the 40 years allowed him by Dr. Farr, 42 years, and the "balance" is still in favor of rowing if, instead of taking Dr. Farr's tables, we take the tables of insurance offices "which profess to accept none but select lives," and even "when, in addition to requiring this high rate of years, we become still more exacting, on the ground that nearly half the rowers are clergymen (whose lives are somewhat better than those of less favored mortals)."

Out of the 294 survivors, the minute enquiries of Dr. Morgan show that 115 were benefited by rowing; 162 were in no way injured; while 17 refer to themselves or are spoken of by their friends as having suffered. When we consider that in some of these 17 cases the connection between their injury and rowing is very difficult to trace, and indeed is in almost every case rather a concession to those who believe in the evil effects of the exercise than a legitimate inference; and that, in some of the clearest cases, it is just as likely or more likely indeed that the men injured themselves by getting into a boat when they were not in a fit condition to row, it is fair enough to say that the general result is strongly in favor of the sport. As an instance of the difficulty of obtaining reliable evidence of injury, Dr. Morgan mentions the case of one of the "injured men," who, according to the statements of a near relative, fainted after the University Race, and could not be restored for two hours. Strange to say, the other members of the crew have not the slightest recollection of the accident. Eleven years after this remarkable fainting-fit he was taken suddenly ill and died in a few days.

It will be noticed that these statistics of Dr. Morgan's are confined to a narrow field, for college boat-racing is not an old enough sport to admit of very extended enquiries. It cannot, although the first race was rowed in 1829, be said to have really begun before 1836, when the second race was rowed; but this much may be said to be proved, that the sensational articles which four or five years ago appeared on the subject in the newspapers, no less than the sensational descriptions of the dissolute but supernaturally athletic Stroke with which we have been made so familiar, are utter nonsense, and that any ordinarily healthy man may take to rowing as an exercise with a great probability of benefiting his constitution by it, increasing the capacity of his lungs, enlarging and toughening his muscles, and invigorating his whole system. At the same time, Dr. Morgan calls attention to the fact that there are certain kinds of constitutions which cannot stand the strain, and gives some advice on the subject which, as he is an experienced physician as well an old oar, may well be considered invaluable. The reader will find, besides the conclusions reached by the author, all the facts on which these conclusions are based.

THE DEPTHS OF THE SEA.*

THE 'Depths of the Sea' lays before the general public an account of the proceedings and results of the several expeditions undertaken by the English Government, from 1868 to 1870, as their share of similar explorations directed by the American and European governments during the last thirty years, having for their special object a careful examination of the bottom of the ocean. It is indeed most gratifying to scientific men to trace the development of the interest which has gradually grown up regarding the ocean, starting with the great surveying and exploring expeditions of the last century, accompanied, it is true, with a staff of scientific men, but in reality all having some ultimate political object, and culminating with the expeditions of the present time like those of the *Hassler* and of the *Challenger*, where the supreme direction is left to the scientific staff, and which were fitted out without having any practical result in view. Governments have only begun to learn how dependent they are for their welfare and daily material existence upon the work of dreamers and enthusiasts, so generally denounced by their more practical brethren. It is one of the most cheering signs of the times to have great scientific expeditions fostered by governments so long as private individuals have not yet been educated to take that out of their hands, as we trust they ultimately will do.

The task of reporter of what the English have accomplished could not have fallen into better hands. Professor Thomson is not only an able zoölogist, he is also an excellent botanist and geologist, and his discussion of the physical phenomena bearing upon the general questions of physical geography shows a good acquaintance with the theoretical side of its problems. He has, so far as the Gulf Stream is concerned, adopted the view of oceanic circulation held by the great American authorities, who have done so much

* 'The Depths of the Sea: an Account of the General Results of the Dredging Cruises of H.M.SS. *Porcupine* and *Lightning* during the Summers of 1868, 1869, and 1870, under the Scientific Direction of Dr. Carpenter, F.R.S., J. Gwyn Jeffreys, F.R.S., and Dr. Wyville Thomson, F.R.S. By C. Wyville Thomson, Regius Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh, and Director of the Civilian Scientific Staff of the *Challenger* Expedition.' With numerous illustrations and maps. New York and London: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

to elucidate the nature of this most extraordinary "physical phenomenon of the northern hemisphere," in opposition to the views of his colleague, Dr. Carpenter, who, himself not a physicist, has been led to adopt and advocate again the antiquated and theoretical views of Maury. In an excellent introduction, Prof. Thomson discusses a few of the more interesting points in biology affected by the exploration of the ocean—the bathymetrical limits of life, the geographical distribution, the question of specific centres, Forbes's investigations and theories, the bearing of a theory of evolution upon the idea of species and the laws of their distribution, and the circumstances most likely to affect life at great depths. All this is done with the utmost impartiality and fairness; we cannot accuse him of imitating the example of the more enthusiastic German supporters of the doctrine of evolution, of stating so frequently as they do their theories as well-recognized facts.

In successive chapters, we are carried through a most charming narrative of the cruise of the *Lightning* and the two cruises of the *Porcupine*, and it is no fault of the narrator if the reader does not share his enthusiasm as the dredge is emptied of its interesting contents upon the deck. We join the dredgers in their delight at first seeing the wonderful Holtenia, a remarkable siliceous sponge; the interesting Calveria, a representative of mailed sea-urchins of former times; the gigantic Nymphons and Arcturus, first known from the abyss of the Spitzbergen Seas; the countless little worms and starfishes; and, last and not least, the ooze of the Atlantic filled with its coccolithes and coccospheres. It seems uninviting enough, yet its microscopical examination has furnished the means of explaining the possibility of existence of so many highly organized animals at such immense depths, and has even formed the basis of many a fanciful and more or less poetic theory of the origin of life. And when the dredge brought up the few fixed crinoids which are among the most cherished treasures of the expedition, we can almost imagine the dredgers back in geological times, and to have brought up a bit of the Jurassic period, when stone-lilies without number must have filled the seas of Great Britain.

The narrative is followed by an account of the appliances in use for sounding, dredging, and observing the temperature at great depths. We see the gradual growth of the dredge as first used by the old Danish naturalist, O. F. Müller, till it is adapted to its present form and can be used successfully to a depth of over two thousand four hundred fathoms, or three English miles! It is a sufficiently simple apparatus, yet to the biologist it promises as extraordinary results as those obtained for the physical sciences by the spectroscope. Standing as we do now on the mere threshold of this line of investigation, there seems no limit which we may not attain. It is not too much to say that when the depth of the ocean has been as carefully surveyed as the surface of the earth, and its secrets have been revealed to us, not from a few square yards only, as at present, we may glance back at the early history of life upon our planet as easily as the spectroscope analyzes for us at the present day the materials of the other suns outside of our own system.

Although from time immemorial certain species of fish and crustacea have been caught from a depth of over three hundred fathoms on the northern coasts of Europe and America, we go back as far as 1819 to the Arctic explorations of Sir John Ross for a few isolated facts, which have little by little led to our present knowledge of the existence of a most varied and wonderful fauna at great depths. Sir John Ross, and subsequently Sir James Ross, brought up on sounding-lines animals from depths of over eight hundred fathoms. As early as 1846, the Swedes sent several expeditions to Spitzbergen, and brought home extensive collections from a depth of over fourteen hundred fathoms, and it is the discussion of the results of these collections which enabled Lovén to lay the foundation of the theory that beyond a certain depth the bottom of the ocean is peopled by a fauna extending from pole to pole—a theory which each additional fact seems to corroborate, and which is strikingly illustrated by the existence of identical species in the deep waters of Norway, Florida, and the east coast of Brazil. The Swedes have kept up their explorations to the present time, and it is their example, that of Edward Forbes, Wallich, and of the elder and younger Sars, which started the great interest we now witness in such explorations. To the United States Coast Survey we owe the only systematic attempt made thus far to map out satisfactorily a large tract of the bottom of the sea, and the explorations of the Gulf Stream undertaken by the Coast Survey years ago, and now carried on by Professor Peirce, will remain a monument to the former Superintendent of the Survey, Professor A. D. Bache. The little we know thus far from these few explorations has revolutionized many of our former biological conceptions; and the readers of the chapter on the continuity of the chalk—that is, the biological connection of the cretaceous period with the present time, as maintained by Thomson—can form from it an idea of the vista which has been opened to naturalists by explorations of the depths of the sea.

It is a pleasure to read a book printed in such large type upon excellent paper and so well illustrated. The only fault we are inclined to find with the 'Depths of the Sea' is the increase of the bulk by the numerous appendices, "pièces justificatives," which have materially heightened the cost, and might have been omitted for the same reasons which cut off the more technical lists of the inhabitants of the deep. Too great stress is laid upon the results obtained by the English expeditions; the chronological sequence of the earlier explorations which have definitively settled the existence of animal life at immense depths is not sufficiently dwelt upon, and an ordinary reader would be apt to conclude, after reading the narrative of the part the English have taken in this investigation, that previously to the cruises of the *Lightning* and *Porcupine* the question of the existence of animal life beyond a certain depth remained much as it was in the days of Edward Forbes. This is of course unintentional, for no one knows better than Dr. Thomson what others have done, and it was perhaps unavoidable that such an impression should be left in a narrative distinctly intended to give to the English public an account of the cruises of the *Lightning* and *Porcupine*, and written in the midst of duties entailed upon the chief of the *Challenger* expedition, preparatory to sailing on a three years' cruise.

The Romance of the Harem. By Mrs. Anna H. Leonowens. Illustrated. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—Mrs. Leonowens's tales from the City of the Nang Harm or Veiled Women indeed deserve the name of romances, so wild and strange are they in incident and atmosphere. She, however, avouches their truth in every instance and in all details, except that the names of some of the persons figuring in them she has changed or suppressed. Ascending the great river Meinan, perhaps at the period of its annual Nile-like overflow, the traveller approaching Bangkok sees on his right a circular island inclosed within two parallel walls. In the space between the outer of these and the inner are the Royal Exchange, the Mint, the High Courts of Justice, the principal temples, the prisons, and the places of public entertainment, interspersed with fantastic gardens and pleasure grounds. It is the court quarter of "the Venice of the East." The inner wall which we have mentioned encloses the City of the Nang Harm—the harem of the Siamese King, with its royal palaces, its barracks full of Amazons, its female judges and officers of government, its thousands of female slaves plying the various mechanical trades, its hundreds and thousands of the wives and mistresses of the king—a city of women into which no man is suffered to enter except the king himself and the Buddhist priests who are every morning admitted under guard, in order that the inhabitants may have an opportunity to perform the sacred duty of alms-giving. Of this strange town the permanent population is estimated at about 9,000; and it is of the life inside its walls that Mrs. Leonowens, who was for a time the English teacher of the young prince, undertakes to treat in this volume.

She has succeeded in collecting from the lips of the actors in them half a dozen or so of Oriental tales, concerning most of which it is not too much to say that they are interesting, and that one or two of them, in poetical and tragical interest, are hardly surpassed by the most admired love-stories in the literature of the world. Mrs. Leonowens is not a Boccaccio, but the story of the voluntary slave girl, Boon, and her mistress, Choy, need not much fear a comparison with the story of the falcon, or of the pot of basil, or of Tancred and Sigismunda, or of Griselda. It is something as follows, and as we make but a brief and misrepresenting abstract of it we may remark, *apropos* of Mrs. Leonowens's claim to be considered a Boccaccio in literary grace and skill, that in this case she took down the language itself of the only survivor of the lamentable transaction she describes, and that the words have in some places very much of the force of deep and real feeling: Waiting one day in her school-room, the Englishwoman is approached by a young girl of twenty years, who presents her with a flower, and whose character is thus touched upon: "It was a common wild flower that grew up everywhere in great profusion, making a lovely carpet, blossoming as it did in every nook and crevice of the stone pavements within the palace. It was just like her to snatch up the first thing that attracted her, and then to give it away the next moment." This wayward pupil, by name Choy (surfeit), whose face wears a careless and almost wicked expression, abruptly makes known her intention of leaving off all her studies. She will learn nothing more; for that matter, she wishes rather to die, to kill herself, than live any longer. The teacher attempts to soothe her, but without success, until the girl determines suddenly to tell her friend the story of her disgrace and misery. She was the younger sister of the "first wife," Thieng, and from the age of ten had been set apart for the service of the king. She received the usual education of such girls, being taught music, dancing, poetry, and acting, and by-and-by was very expert, especially in her theatrical duties.

She had but one defect; her face was slightly marked by the small-pox, but this blemish was not noticed when she was fully arrayed for the stage, where one day she completely captivated the king. This, however, she had been able to do, chiefly because the impassioned ardor with which she portrayed the love of the heroine, Queen Théwâder, and which inspired the king with a like ardor, she owed to her having but an hour before and at first sight fallen violently in love with a young nobleman of the royal suite. He, with another, had been ordered to honor the actress by leading her chariot, and she had found opportunity of speaking to him. Becoming at once the favorite of the king, she is, nevertheless, restless with the tumult of her passion for the young nobleman, and detests her master, who is more infatuated than ever. By-and-by, from a new slave-girl, Boon, who has recently entered her service, she learns the name of the nobleman. She embroiders the letters of it upon a silken amulet, which she wears about her neck, although she knows that she lives in the lion's den, and she is never weary of devising schemes to communicate with him. The slave-girl is dutiful and enterprising, and soon Choy is able to send a letter with the words, "I remember." She receives another with the words, "I love much." A third and a longer letter goes in charge of Boon; but one of the many rough drafts of it is captured by the chief judge, and Choy and Boon find themselves in chains, and in the hands of the "Mother of Death," or female executioner, awaiting trial. It is here that the serious interest of the tale begins. As the women lie together in the same dungeon, Choy discovers by the fervor of Boon's reply, when asked if she has betrayed the name of the lover, and afterwards by the girl's own acknowledgment, that she is none other than this lover's wife. Seeing her husband pining and discovering the cause, she resolves to make the sacrifice, which he is too weak and too infatuated to decline.

"I was so sorry for Boon," said Choy to Mrs. Leonowens, "that I had not the heart to reproach her. I crept closer, and, laying my hand upon her bosom, we mingled our prayers and tears together. And I marvelled at the greatness of the woman before me."

Torture is the Siamese method of dealing with refractory witnesses or suspected criminals, and on the following day, Boon being obstinate in denying all knowledge of any guilt, was bastinadoed cruelly. Still refusing to accuse any one as the person for whom the letter was meant, she was publicly whipped, and finally was submitted to the infliction of the thumbscrew. At night the two women were carried back to the dungeon, Boon on a litter, and covered with blood: "She hardly needed comfort, her joy being great that she had not betrayed her husband." On the next morning the order of proceedings was the same as on the day before, the bastinado, the whip, and the thumbscrew being applied, and with the same result. It now was Choy's turn. "Boon's eyes fixed themselves upon me," she said, "with an intensity that made me shiver." Choy, frightened, hesitated and prevaricated, but the evidence of her sister, who had no opportunity to confer with the accused, exposed her falsehoods. She was then tied up and lashed. But though she was covered with blood, she held firm, and kept her secret. The bastinado, also, failed to subdue her, for she felt the eyes of her slave-girl upon her; but the torture of the thumbscrew broke her down, and calling on the wretched Boon to forgive her, she betrayed the name of her lover.

Boon and Choy were sentenced to be quartered; her husband, whom Boon made one last effort to save, was sentenced to be cut to pieces, and the bodies of all were to be given to the dogs. This sentence was carried into effect in the case of Boon and her husband, but the king was induced by the British Consul, Sir R. H. J. Schembergk, to spare the life of Choy, who lived on neglected, or remembered only to be despised—cursed with the memory of her own weakness, and the courage and self-sacrifice of the unhappy Boon, of whom neither her owner nor her husband was worthy.

Several other stories are given, which are of a similar character, as, for instance, that of Tuptim and the young Brahmin, and their barbarous murder; of the Rajpoot and his daughter; of the Laotian slave-girl; of the wife of Naikodah—all revealing the dark places of the earth, full of the habitations of cruelty, but revealing also some of the greatest and brightest qualities of human nature.

The more commonplace side of life in the palace Mrs. Leonowens's former book gave to the public; and, apart from these romances, there is not much in the present volume. Here, however, is one bit of school experience. Hidden Perfume's comparison is very true to the life:

"One day the steamer *Chow P'haya* brought his majesty a box of ice from Singapore, and I obtained some for an object-lesson. The women and children found no difficulty in believing that it was water frozen; but when I went on to tell them about snow, the whole school became indignant at what they considered an evident stretch of my imagination, and my dear simple friend, Hidden-Perfume, laid her hand gently upon my arm, and said, 'Please do not say that again. I believe you like my own heart in everything you have taught to me, but this sounds like the story of a little child who wishes to say something more wonderful than anything that was ever said before.' So my lesson of the snow proved a stumbling-block to me for several days; my pupils' imaginations had taken alarm, and they could not be brought to believe the simplest statements.

"I informed his majesty of my dilemma; he came to my aid, and assured the royal children that it was just possible that there was such a thing as snow, for English books of travel spoke frequently of some phenomenon which they designated as 'snow.'"

Betsy Lee, a Fo'c's'le Yarn. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.)—This little poem first appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine*, where it attracted the favorable notice which it very well deserves. It is a "dialect poem," and we suppose we are not mistaken in pronouncing the dialect to be the seafaring variety of the Manx-English. The poem certainly deals with localities in the Isle of Man; and as certainly, the only land variety of Manx-English with which we have ever had any acquaintance differed somewhat from the speech here given. We confess, however, in justice and in deference to our author, that our solitary Manxman labored under a vehement suspicion of being in reality a son of another and larger island, neighboring to the Isle of Man and lying to the westward of it—Erin, in short—who for reasons of his own had determined on denying the sod of his nativity and on giving himself out as of a land and lineage not truly his own.

The spokesman in 'Betsy Lee' is an elderly sailor who has promised his younger shipmates a yarn:

> "I said I would? Well, I hardly know,
> But a yarn's a yarn; so here we go.
> It's along of me and a Lawyer's Clerk,
> You've seen mayhap that sort of spark!"

The story-teller had in his youth been in love with a girl whom he had known since childhood and who loved him in return. He followed the sea as a common sailor, yet as her father was but a poor gardener, the young man's suit prospered very well until the old man, falling heir to a small property, has some dealings with a lawyer, whose clerk falls in love with Betsy. The sailor, naturally despising this landsman—

> "With a mossel of hair on the tip of his chin"—

commits upon him an assault of a somewhat technical character, but still an assault, and highly insulting. Bad blood is thus bred between the two men, and evil results follow, greatly to the detriment of poor Jack. Of these we will say no more, the interest of the poem being partly in the story, we dare say, as well as partly in the bits of poetry and the pictures of manners. Of the poetry, a good specimen is the passage following, in which the old man looks back to the days when he and Betsy paddled and played abo the beach:

> "Now the beauty of the thing when childher plays is
> The terrible wonderful length the days is.
> Up you jumps, and out in the sun,
> And you fancy the day will never be done:
> And you're chasin the bumbees hummin so cross
> In the hot sweet air among the goss,
> Or gath'rin blue-bells, or lookin for eggs,
> Or peltin the ducks with their yalla legs,
> Or a climbin, and nearly breakin your skulls,
> Or a shoutin for divilment after the gulls,
> Or a thinkin of nothin, but down at the tide,
> Singin out for the happy you feel inside.
> That's the way with the kids, you know,
> And the years do come and the years do go,
> And when you look back it's all like a puff,
> Happy and over and short enough.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> Now, Bob! are you at it again? all right!
> Just somebody give the fellow a light!"

The last two lines relate to the more or less frequent interruptions caused by irreverent laughter and nudging from the young fellows when the story-teller now and again becomes "soft." Of the common run of the work, as distinguished from its more poetical parts, and of the narrator's manner, the following lines may serve as an example;

> "Well, Divil or no, the *Hector* come home;
> We raced that trip with the *Flying Foam*,
> And up the river the very same tide,
> And the two of them berthed there side by side;
> A tight run that, and the whole of it stuck
> In the paper—logs and all—good luck!
> And the captain as proud, and me like a fool
> Spreein away in Liverpool—
> And lodgins of coorse, for I never could stand
> Them Sailors' Homes, for a man is a man,
> And a bell for dinner and a bell for tay,
> And a bell to sing and a bell to pray,
> And a bell for this and a bell for that,
> And "Wipe your feet upon the mat!"
> And the rules hung up; and fined if you're late,
> And a chap like a bobby shuttin the gate—
> It isn raisonable, it isn:
> They calls it a Home, I calls it a Prison.
> Let a man go wherever he chooses!
> Ould mawther Higgins' the house that I uses—
>
> . . . . . .
>
> There's some comfort there, for you just goes in,
> And down with the watch and down with the tin,

And sleepin and wakin, and eatin and drinkin—
And out and in, and never thinkin—
And carryin on till all is blue,
And your jacket is gone and your waistcoat too.
Then of coorse you mu-t cut your stick,
For the woman must live, however thick
You may be with her: and I'm tould there's houses
Where the people'll let ye drink your trousis;
But Higginses! never! and it isn right!
Shirt and trousis! honor bright!"

As we say, we must leave others to speak of the accuracy with which the peculiar dialectis employed, and also of the accuracy of the portraiture, though this latter commends itself to credence by internal evidence, as it is called. We take both to be praiseworthy, for there is a very convincing appearance of naturalness and simpleness about almost every one of the lines; very few of them have the least look of having been imported into the "yarn" by a more literate or literary person than the supposed narrator. Anybody who likes poetry may spend a pleasant half-hour over 'Betsy Lee' and make the acquaintance of a fresh local flavor.

The Sixth Great Oriental Monarchy; or, The Geography, History, and Antiquities of Parthia, collected and illustrated from ancient and modern sources. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. (London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873. 8vo, pp. 458.)—Professor Rawlinson has done a good work in directing the attention of English scholars to the part taken by the Parthian monarchy in the history of the world. A separate treatise, however brief, impresses the imagination more forcibly than an equally elaborate treatment in connection with general history, and here the main thing was to impress the imagination. Everybody knows that Parthia was the great rival of Rome, that Crassus was defeated by the Parthians with great slaughter, and that Phraates IV. put to death his twenty-nine brothers, but very few persons have an adequate sense of the real greatness and power of Parthia and its true relations to Rome. Mr. Rawlinson says in his preface:

"Writers of Roman history have been too much in the habit of representing the later Republic and early Empire as, practically, a universal monarchy, a power unchecked, unbalanced, having no other limits than those of the civilized world, engrossing consequently the whole attention of all thinking men, and free to act exactly as it pleased without any regard to opinion beyond its own borders. . . . To the present writer, the truth seems to be that Rome never was in the position supposed—that from first to last, from the time of Pompey's Eastern Conquests to the fall of the empire, there was always in the world a second power, civilized or semi-civilized, which in a true sense balanced Rome, acted as a counterpoise and a check, had to be consulted or considered, held a place in all men's thoughts, and finally furnished a not intolerable refuge to such as had provoked Rome's master beyond forgiveness. This power for nearly three centuries (B.C. 64—A.D. 225) was Parthia, after which it was Persia under the Sassanian kings."

As we have already remarked, the principal service of the book is to impress the imagination with this important fact of general history; for the annals of Parthia, taken by themselves, are in the highest degree barren and uninstructive. Mr. Rawlinson finds it hard to point out in the religion or institutions of the Parthians—in regard to which very little is known at any rate—anything from which instruction can be derived for us. Great as the Parthian empire was, and important as it was, as a counterpoise of Rome and a place of refuge for Roman exiles, it is only in its relation to Rome that it has any interest for us. In relation to Rome, the central point of interest is of course the disastrous expedition of Crassus, which is narrated by Mr. Rawlinson in a clear and interesting manner. The most important point that he makes is in correcting the common view, followed by Mommsen, but questioned by Merivale, that the Romans were enticed into the sandy desert. This is Plutarch's account; but Dio, a far more trustworthy authority, says expressly that the field of the battle was irregular and wooded. This is in fact the character of the country in the neighborhood of Carrhæ. The defeat of Crassus was therefore an ordinary case of ambuscade, like Braddock's defeat, aggravated, to be sure, by the treachery of Abgarus; but the Roman general, incompetent as he showed himself, was not quite so devoid of common sense as has been usually assumed.

The book is well illustrated with maps, coins, and works of art, and has a good index.

The Indian Travels of Apollonius of Tyana; and the Indian Embassies to Rome, from the reign of Augustus to the death of Justinian. By Osmond de Beauvoir Priaulx. (London: Quaritch.)—The pieces which compose this volume, we are told in the preface, have appeared in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, and have been put into a corrected and more permanent shape "for the satisfaction of the author." He tells us in the same preface that they were written previously to the publication of Reinaud's 'Relations Politiques et Commerciales de l'Empire Romain avec l'Asie Orientale,' with which in general tendency of view they differ radically, Reinaud making of the Roman Empire the *point de départ* of all consideration of the subject, while our author, in a very fair and often notably subtle analysis of all the historical testimony on this question, seems to bring into strong relief the terminal weaknesses of that Empire by working at it from the relations it held with the remoter world.

The analysis of the narrative of the visit of Apollonius is exhaustive and ingenious. It was at best a second-hand affair, being written by Philostratus from the note-book of the Boswellian period of the traveller Damis, and while it probably gives a correct general view of the journey, a certain class of incidents are occasionally magnified on one side by the veneration of the friend, and on the other by the consequentiality of the companion. It is full of the indications of an actual diary—little points of *vraisemblance*, details of travel, which make by far the most valuable portions of the narration; but when we get to the region of religious phenomena we pass at once into the wild and imaginary. Damis saw the Sophoi (Brahmans) walk the air, draw fire down from the sun, and hold it in mid-air, etc., etc. Yet, Apollonius, when Damis asks him if he could believe in the immortality-giving powers of the cup made from the horn of the unicorn, replies shrewdly, "Yes, when I see any Indian king immortal"; and in what is said of Apollonius himself he seems better to deserve the encomiums the Sophoi pronounced on him than the narration of Damis as a whole.

This contradictoriness of the narration itself with itself may otherwise be explained by the analysis the author gives of the evidence of its authenticity:

"Damis wrote a journal, and, though no scholar, was, according to Philostratus, as capable as any man of correctly noting down what he saw and heard. But Damis died, and his journal lay buried with him for upwards of a century, till one of his family presented it to the Empress, Julia Domna, the wife of Severus, curious in such matters. Again, the Empress did not order this journal to be published, but gave it to Philostratus, a sophist and rhetorician, with instructions to rewrite and edit it, and so re-written and edited he at length published it, but not till after the death of his patroness, the Empress."

Of course the sophist and rhetorician could not leave the curious fragment without sophistication and rhetorizing, and as often happens nowadays, all the trustworthiness disappeared under the coloring of the editor. Priaulx very effectually demolishes the pretensions of the later histories and so-called embassies, whose embassadorial plumes he plucks almost without exception. The net result of the study is to demonstrate that the knowledge of the great East possessed by the Romans at any time during the Empire was almost nothing.

The book has been very carelessly edited and corrected for the press, being full of passages obscure from bad construction and want of punctuation; but these faults do not diminish its value as a résumé of the knowledge we now possess on this interesting subject.

New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Edited by Horace Howard Furness. Vol. II.: 'Macbeth.' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—In reviewing 'Romeo and Juliet,' the first volume of this edition (see the *Nation*, No. 305, May 4, 1871), we spoke of the "conscientious and unwearied fidelity" with which Mr. Furness had executed his laborious task; and, after an interval of two years, with the second volume before us, we do not know how more fitly to express the praise which is due him. As regards text and commentary, 'Macbeth' is treated in precisely the same manner as was 'Romeo and Juliet.' The appendix in the present volume of course has a character of its own. It embraces Davenant's version of the play "as it's now [1674] acted at the Duke's Theatre," in regard to which the editor remarks in his preface that "to this hour it retains a certain hold upon the stage, and influences disastrously the acting of 'Macbeth.'" This is followed by particulars as to the source of the plot of Shakespeare's tragedy, in which we are favored with liberal extracts from Holinshed especially, and from sundry old books and MSS. "The Date of the Play"; "The Witch" (with the witch scenes from Middleton's play of the same name); "The Text"; "Costume"; "Was Shakespeare ever in Scotland?" are other topics fully discussed in the sequel, which concludes with specimens of the best English and Continental criticism of the whole play, of the principal characters, and of single remarkable features. The account of the various German translations includes, as a sort of literary curiosity, a score of versions of

"Double, double toil and trouble,
Fire burn and cauldron bubble."

Mr. Furness remarks on these: "Is it not noteworthy that for one most common word 'cauldron' the German language, with all its wealth, appears to have no equivalent?" *Kessel* or *Kesselchen* is the word to which every one of the translators is shut up.

New Life in New Lands. Notes of Travel. By Grace Greenwood. (New York; J. B. Ford & Co. 1873.)—This book is made up of letters written to the New York *Times* during a journey to California, which included the usual excursions and visits on the way. The track is now well worn, and the author has seen and learned nothing more than all intelligent tourists will who start with good letters of introduction. It is amusing to notice how the little communities beyond the Missouri River, in their hospitable zeal to show strangers everything in the country, come finally to repeat the old round and say over the same story almost after the manner of vergers in foreign cathedrals. The author notes down in orthodox fashion all that is pointed out, and the book gives those who have not made the trip a fair idea of what they may see and experience. That it is, on the other hand, superficial, flippant in tone, and commonplace in sentiment, might perhaps be expected. But it was not necessary that the author should feel bound to repay the attentions of all her hosts, entertainers, and acquaintances with little personal puffs for each by name. In some cases, the sins against good-taste in this respect are very glaring, while, from senators down to inn-keepers, none are allowed to escape without at least being dubbed "genial." There are other "surface indications" which reveal the subtle influence of free passes and the courtesies of railroad officials wise in their generation. We do not get, to be sure, such a history of the Central Pacific Railroad as appeared lately in *Harper's Magazine*, but there is sometimes an unfortunate flavor of advertising. Moreover, in the far West, there are many things which "deadheads" do not see.

On the whole, we think it would have been as well if the author had suffered these letters to sleep in their original resting-place. When the sight of the Pacific Ocean prompts one to say that Balboa "did the correct thing in refraining from wrenching himself in attempts to express the inexpressible," we can forgive the bosh more easily in a newspaper than in a book.

Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. Edition for 1873. (New York: Hurd & Houghton.)—The vacation tourist is not a person to be envied, on the well-known ground that he must crowd a great deal of sight-seeing into his scanty leisure, and that he must constantly keep moving from place to place. Against wasting his time from indecision or ignorance, and against fatiguing his brain with cramming, he needs especially to be guarded; and generally also economy is something which he has to consider seriously. The 'Satchel Guide' appears well adapted to quiet his anxiety on all these points. It rules Spain, Greece, Turkey, Russia, and Scandinavia out of his possibilities, and arranges that after visiting Ireland, England, and Scotland, he shall cross to Belgium and Holland, ascend the Rhine into Germany, take Switzerland next in course, and from there make excursions into France, Austria, or Italy. This is the general sequence of the route described in the 'Guide,' though many variations from it are provided for. If the vacation tourist's object is to cover much ground, of course he must stick to the main lines of travel. The information here furnished him is judiciously condensed without being made dry reading either. The commonplaces of the grand tour are either omitted or just alluded to with references to the larger guide-books. There is in the present edition, which has otherwise been greatly enlarged in matter, a special chapter in the Appendix devoted to the Vienna Exposition. For the next edition we suggest a substitution in the comparative table of currencies of the new *silver* coinage of the United States in place of the gold standard (two silver half-dollars=the five-franc piece). Is there any reason, too, why maps of the various routes should not be inserted? As the compiler professes to have been a pedestrian in Europe, he ought to be able to prepare a pocket guide to the out-of-the-way and unfrequented places of interest on the Continent. If this were done thoroughly for a single country, say for France, the vacation tourist would perhaps choose it as the better part.

Siam; The Land of the White Elephant, as It Was and s. Compiled and arranged by Rev. Geo. B. Bacon. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.)—This work belongs to the 'Illustrated Library of Travel, Exploration, and Adventure,' prepared under the general supervision of Mr. Bayard Taylor. The series already embraces works on Japan, Arabia, South and Central Africa, the Yellowstone, etc. Mr. Bacon has visited the country of which he writes, and possesses, therefore, the first qualification for his task. Some of the chapters are records of his own experiences of Siam, already published in the magazines, and they are not the least agreeable reading in the book. The scenery along the Meinan; the Venetian and the purely Oriental aspect of Bangkok; the manners and character of the people; the personal presence and conversation of the late first king—all these were matters of observation for Mr. Bacon, in regard to which he may be relied on to give a truthful impression. Royalty in Siam—as everywhere among barbarous or semi-civilized peoples—has its comic side, which Mr. Bacon shows off with a pleasant humor. To one who makes us laugh much can be forgiven, and perhaps our editor could hardly be expected of choice to dwell on the rude and cruel phases of Siamese government and society. Slavery has, we believe, not been so effectively abolished as is generally supposed; and Mrs. Leonowens's account of the royal harem we imagine to have a basis of truth. A rather inadequate map accompanies the entertaining narrative.

The Life, Character, and Writings of Francis Lieber. A discourse delivered before the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, January 13, 1873, by Hon. M. Russell Thayer. (Philadelphia: Collins. 1873. Pp. 50.)—The credit belongs to Philadelphia of having put in this permanent and beautiful form a lasting memorial of Dr. Lieber, whose life and services were so largely part of the best literary history of New York for the last twenty years. Well as he was known here by his useful connection with Columbia College, and by his larger field of usefulness as a publicist and a recognized authority on questions of international law, few persons knew much of his private and individual life, or of the checkered career by which he passed through the curious phases of a soldier in the German war of liberation, a political prisoner and refugee from the reactionary movement of Prussia, and a secretary and student of Niebuhr and Bunsen; a professor in a South Carolina College, a professor at our own metropolitan College, an adviser to the Government in the delicate questions of the legal aspects of the War of the Rebellion, and its representative and arbitrator in the Mexican Claims Commission. Along with all this there was a constant and almost too productive industry in authorship, of which only a few of the results are well known or known at all to us. Judge Thayer speaks in terms of the strongest praise of Dr. Lieber's private life, and he gives by quotation striking proofs of his success in anticipating and influencing public opinion in many matters of national and international importance, as well as the esteem in which he was deservedly held both at home and abroad by most competent authority.

Important Modifications of English Law in Pennsylvania. Address of T. Bradford Dwight before the Law Academy of Philadelphia, Dec. 5, 1872. (Philadelphia: Kay. 1873. Pp. 49.)—This well-printed pamphlet "treats discursively of some of the particulars in which our jurisprudence varies from the law of England, and traces, though not very minutely, the channels through which the currents of change have been flowing." The abolition of the feudal system, of entail and primogeniture, and of the English rules of testamentary dispositions of personal property, may well be recommended to students and to practitioners of law both in and out of Pennsylvania. The address shows diligent and conscientious study, and the broadening field over which our American jurisprudence is extending itself. Not only are the elementary books and the reports of decisions used, and well used, but early English ballads and good English history are made to throw light on topics that belong to the real and exhaustive study of law, in its best and broadest sense. The sight of this pamphlet makes us regret that there is no good system yet introduced in our bookselling trade which enables us to secure at once, and without trouble, copies of all valuable pamphlets, no matter from what part of the country they may be sent forth.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*	
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Chapters on Intellectual Philosophy, swd	" "	
Commentary on the Old and New Testaments, Vol. V., Matthew-John	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
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Nicholson (N. A.) The Science of Exchanges	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	
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Sears (E. H.), Foregleams and Foreshadows of Immortality, 11th ed.; Regeneration, 9th ed	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	
Society of the Army of the Cumberland: Sixth Reunion, 1872	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	
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THE money market has returned to an easy condition, and no difficulty is experienced among borrowers in procuring money on call at or under the legal rates. The Street is taking a long breath, and calculating what it has cost to carry its load of stocks and other securities through the winter. Time loans were in good demand during the early part of the week at 7 per cent. and a commission of ½ to ¾ for 60 and 90 days; but as the week wore on, money was offered at the legal rate for that time, with ¼ commission added. The demand for commercial paper has enlarged, and the volume of transactions in it has greatly increased. The prevailing rates are 8 to 10 for first-class names, with a tendency to lower prices, actual business being on the basis of 7 to 9 per cent.

Considerable difference of opinion exists as to the future course of money. Many think that there will be a steady 6 to 7 per cent. market during the summer, with now and then an advance above legal rates. Others look for the glut of funds at this centre usually taking place at that season of the year. On Saturday the agitation arising out of the European news at first caused a fairly active market at 7 per cent., but the supply was at once shown to be greater than the demand, and the market softened until money was offered freely at 5 per cent., with some transactions as low as 4 per cent.

At a special meeting of the directors on Wednesday, the Bank of England rate of discount was advanced to 4½ per cent., and on Saturday the minimum rate was still further raised one-half per cent., or five per cent. On this news, foreign exchange became firmer, and the leading drawers of sterling advanced prices to 109⅞ for sight and 108¾ for sixty-day bills. Actually, the difference was a trifle more, from the greater concessions which drawers were willing to make upon sixty-day than upon sight drafts.

The Bank statement is exceedingly favorable, showing an increase of $3,966,800 in loans, $1,583,800 in specie, $1,892,600 in legal tenders, and $6,347,200 in deposits, with a decrease in circulation of $40,900. An analysis shows that the banks now hold $4,620,250 in excess of the reserve required by the law, a gain for the week of $1,399,325. The increase in deposits seems much less than it should be considering that the aggregate receipts of currency at this point for two weeks past have been about twenty millions of dollars. The following is the statement compared with that of the previous week:

	May 3.	May 10.	Differences.
Loans	$270,721,100	$274,687,900	Inc. $3,966,800
Specie	18,677,800	20,261,600	Inc. 1,583,800
Circulation	27,564,400	27,523,500	Dec. 40,900
Deposits	196,471,900	202,819,100	Inc. 6,347,200
Legal tenders	40,051,700	41,944,300	Inc. 1,892,600

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	May 3.	May 10.	Differences.
Specie	$18,677,800	$20,261,600	Inc. $1 583,800
Legal tenders	40,051,700	41,944,300	Inc. 1,892,600
Total reserve	$58,729,500	$62,205,900	Inc. $3,476,400
Circulation	27,564,400	27,523,500	Dec. 40,900
Deposits	196,471,900	202,819,100	Inc. 6,347,200
Total liabilities	$224,036,300	$230,342,600	Inc. $6,306,300
25 per cent. reserve	56,009,075	57,585,650	
Excess over legal reserve	2,720,425	4,620,250	Inc. 1,899,825

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$236,448,200	$38,239,700	$274,687,900
Specie	18,394,700	1,866,900	20,261,900
Legal tenders	36,727,900	5,216,400	41,944,300
Deposits	174,291,000	28,528,000	202,819,100
Circulation	27,480,500	43,000	27,523,500

The break in Pacific Mail of last week, carrying its shares down to 49¾, with simultaneous breaks in Union Pacific to 28⅝, and C. C. and I. C. to 32¾, occasioned heaviness and drooping prices through the entire list at the commencement of this week. A startling shock has been given to public confidence by the numerous failures and defalcations which have lately occurred, and particularly by the transactions known or suspected in Pacific Mail. Mr. Stockwell's "sewing-machine imbroglio" with that steamship Company, as it becomes better understood, is pretty severely commented on. It is reported that, in view of the late occurrences, prominent members of Congress assert that, on the reassembling of that body, immediate steps will be taken to rescind the mail contract. Mr. Stockwell has practically demonstrated his inability to carry it out according to its terms with American ships, and his company is believed to be "in extremities"; but even should it endure until the winter, he will then see his sewing-machine business more fully developed in it by a "lock-stitch." If there could be found a successor to Mr. Stockwell familiar with steamship business, possessing the confidence of the Government, disconnected from Wall Street stock-jobbing, and not occupied with other business, or participating with those foreign shipping interests which seek now to control every channel of American trade (and should, therefore, be the last to be indirectly benefited by a United States subsidy), it might yet be possible to revive this sole remaining maritime enterprise of a once proud commercial people. Otherwise, present appearances are that Pacific Mail will soon join such dead "fancies" as the Parker Vein, or C. K. Garrison's Atlantic Mail and Accessory Transit Companies, in the limbo of defunct American steam lines.

A recovery from the depression in stocks subsequently took place to a small extent, the market becoming stronger, but quite variable from day to day until Saturday, when the report of a panic on the Vienna market, with greater or less trepidation at Frankfort, Amsterdam, and Berlin, and the advance of Bank of England rates, again caused a decline, led off as usual by Pacific Mail, which dropped at once two per cent., and acted as if possessed by the personage named in all old indictments as an accessory before the fact. Erie fell to 63, and St. Paul sunk from 58 to 56⅝. New York Central dropped ⅜, because the Company has at last been wise enough to put an end to further locomotive seizures by announcing that on Tuesday next it will pay over to United States Collector Bailey the $400,000 tax claimed by the Government, under protest, and then institute proceedings to recover it. Thus ends, for the nonce, Commodore Vanderbilt's battle with the United States Treasury! The stock subsequently regained its fall. Stock of the Canton Company has fluctuated widely during the week on small transactions, the stock being owned by but few parties, and the fluctuations caused by a droll and successful attempt of the pious Drew to make certain "puts" he had sold profitable—to himself. New Jersey Central and Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western were also bid up several points on very small transactions. The agreement between these two roads has been mutually dissolved, and each returns to its individual status.

The annual report of the Lake Shore Road, just issued, shows earnings for 1872 amounting to $17,591,629, against $14,797,975 in 1871. The operating expenses, taxes, etc., for 1872 amounted to $11,839,525; the interest on funded debt and leases and dividends to $5,559,249 32, leaving surplus for the year $192,854 53.

The financial trouble in Germany has most likely put a stopper to investments there for the present in American railroad securities, but a very important movement has been started in England by organizing a corporation for enlarging the facilities for investment in American securities. This new institution is to be known as the "American Investment Trust." Its investments are limited to bonds of the Government, States, cities, countries, railroads, and other public works, or shares in such enterprises as are actually earning incomes. The certificates of the Association bear interest at 6 per cent., and are issued at 95, and redeemable by a sinking fund at 105. Any surplus after redemption is to be equally divided amongst the holders of certificates; these final divisions and the legal ownerships thereof being secured by what are called Reversion Certificates, one of which is issued to each ordinary certificate. The bankers of the Trust are Messrs. Glyn & Co., and the trustees are the same as those of the Foreign and Colonial Trust, which is reported to be doing a lucrative business. It is hoped that through this Company the better class of American securities will be popularized among the numerous small investors in England who have heretofore had no means for obtaining accurate knowledge, and have been so frequently duped by pretentious railroad frauds.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending May 10, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100¾ 101⅜	101¼ 102⅛	101⅜ 102¼	101⅜ 101⅜	101⅜ 101⅛	100⅝ 101½	66,900
Lake Shore	91⅝ 92⅜	92⅜ 93	92⅜ 93	92½	91⅜ 92½	91⅛ 91⅝	76,100
Erie	64⅜ 65⅜	65⅜ 65⅜	64⅝ 65	64½ 64⅜	64¼ 64½	63 63⅝	24,000
Do. pfd	72 73	73¾ 74½	.... 74½	74	74	....	....
Union Pacific	30⅝ 31½	31⅜ 32⅜	32¼ 32¾	32¼ 32⅜	32⅜ 32⅜	31⅜ 32⅜	93,600
Chi. & N. W.	 82	80 82	80 82	 82	81	....	100
Do. pfd	86 86½	86⅜	87⅜ 87½	 90	87½	....	500
N. J. Central	102 102	102¼ 102⅜	102¾	103	102 106¼	 106	1,000
Rock Island	108¼ 104⅜	108⅜ 110⅜	110¼ 111½	109¾ 110¼	109⅜ 110¼	108⅜ 109½	37,300
Mil. & St. Paul	57 58	57⅜ 57⅜	57⅜ 58⅜	57⅛ 58⅜	58⅜ 58½	56⅜ 58	37,900
Do. pfd.	72⅜ 72¾	72¼	73½	73¾ 74	73½ 73⅝	....	1,700
Wabash	69½ 69⅞	69½ 70⅜	69⅜ 70¼	69¾ 69⅜	70 70⅜	69¼ 69⅜	12,900
D. L. & Western	101	101¼ 102	101⅜ 102¼	102 102⅜	102 104½	103 103¼	8,600
B. H. & Erie	3⅛	3⅛	3⅛	3 3⅛	3 3⅛	....	2,900
O. & M.	42⅜ 43⅜	43 43¾	43¼ 44½	43⅜ 44	43⅝ 44½	43 43⅜	66,100
C. C. & I. C.	34½ 35⅜	34⅜ 35½	35⅜ 36⅜	34⅜ 35⅜	35⅝ 35⅝	33 34⅜	37,000
W. U. Tel.	86⅜ 87½	86⅜ 88⅜	87⅛ 88	86½ 87¼	86⅝ 87¼	85⅜ 86⅜	186,300
Pacific Mail	50⅜ 54¼	51⅜ 54	53 53⅜	52⅜ 54	53⅜ 56	53 55	269,200

The Treasury purchased during the week $500,000 bonds. Offerings having been of $1,351,400, at prices from 115 49 to 116 49, and the awards made on a basis of 115 49 to 115 92, the Secretary sold $1,500,000 at 117 27½ to 117 39.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 22, 1873.

The Week.

THE State Department has published the letters it has received from General Van Buren with reference to the Viennese scandal. They contain what the lawyers call a general denial, expressed in very vehement and, indeed, violent language, and ascribe all the trouble to "the accursed malignity, unhallowed ambition, and vanity of John Jay," whom the General depicts as a monster of perfidy, and insinuates that part of his hostility to him (the General) is due to his not wearing a white overcoat. In fact, the letters are wretched stuff. The Department has probably printed them by way of showing General Van Buren's unfitness for his place, and they do show it; but then they do nothing to justify either his appointment or his removal. Whatever defects of temper or judgment they reveal were known or ascertainable before he was put at the head of the Commission, and, having been put there, the public will hardly conclude that he has been fairly dealt with until it has seen the proofs of his malfeasance in office. He has written to the Viennese papers asking in the usual form for a "suspension of judgment," but the editor of the *Neue Freie Presse*, in a note, plainly intimates his belief in the truth of the charges. In the meantime, the latest telegrams report that the enquiry instituted at Vienna has resulted in a finding that the accusation of corruption has been fully proved, and even with aggravations.

It was at first said that the chief-justiceship would not be filled by the President without grave consideration and much consultation, and we still hope that this is true. Nobody ought to have the place who does not add popular confidence and respect to well-earned fame as a lawyer. It is now reported, however, that it is at the disposal of Mr. Roscoe Conkling, one of the senators from this State; and this, if true, falls in very well with the general expectation for a good while past. Moreover, Mr. Conkling is the kind of man that General Grant's recent appointments would lead us to think he would select in the present instance—as he has for some time ceased to disregard political considerations in filling offices, and there are a great many "political considerations" hanging around Mr. Conkling. Indeed, he is much better known as a politician than a lawyer. He is, however, an able man, and we have no doubt would forget on the bench the sinful games of the Senate and make a good judge. But then, in the cold atmosphere of the Supreme Court, what would become of his imagery, to the extraordinary wealth of which we have often called attention? Ossian, Homer, the Arabian Nights, rolled into one, can produce nothing that can be compared to some of his flights; in mixed metaphor, in particular, he is without a rival on either continent. The President has, during the week, made a very creditable attempt to fill the Russian Mission by offering it to Mr. Edwards Pierrepont, of this city, who, we regret to say, has refused it. It has also been offered to Governor Jewell, of Connecticut.

The latest story about the farmers' movement is that the gentleman named Craig, who was nominated by the Princeton Convention in the agricultural interest, is in reality pledged to the railroads, being attorney of one of the principal lines, and that the convention was, in fact, packed by the railroad people. This strengthens the hands of Judge Lawrence, who is running for the vacant judgeship as the candidate of the bar and independent opinion. It is a curious illustration of the existing condition of society that the principal difficulties of reform conventions should be in finding thrust upon them as candidates men who are in reality necessarily opposed to all their plans. Indeed, these reform commotions, both in the prodigious heat and energy displayed at first, and the extreme ignorance and gullibility exhibited in the later stages, have rather an Asiatic than an American look, and sometimes make one think that the world may be slowly working its way back "down the ringing grooves" of Progress to that condition of society in which reform movements consist of alternate advances, devastations, and retreats of vast hordes of semi-barbarous men under the leadership of powerful chieftains who live partly on the plunder of the enemy and partly on that of their subjects. A horde, headed by an Illinois Tamerlane in the disguise of an American chief-justice, armed with the power of *quo warranto*, *mandamus*, *injunction*, and *ne exeat*, would be formidable enough to make it almost a necessity to buy them off.

The *Tribune* of the 20th inst. contains a very amusing and at the same time interesting account of the proceedings of the so-called "Congressional Convention" which has recently been held in St. Louis. According to this correspondent, "no gathering having about it less of 'council' was ever witnessed on this green earth, and a 'Congress' at which not a member of Congress spoke became ludicrous at last, even to the actors in the farce." The Convention when it came together was organized by an Executive Committee, and had not a voice even in the selection of its speaker. The Executive Committee assigned the chair to Mayor Brown, and "no vote was taken on this or any other subject." Mayor Brown "welcomed" the guests, promised them "a plain, practical exhibit of the needs of the West and South for improved water-lines to the ocean," and called upon the Convention to discover a means of removing the existing obstacles to true prosperity. Then Governor Woodson welcomed the Convention again, and made a speech about "the great water element." Then there was more speech-making, and the chairman, who by the way was not a member of the Convention, resigned the chair to Governor Walker of Virginia, who occupied the rest of the time in an address upon the Kanawha Canal. The assemblage took a trip to Shaw's Gardens, visited some iron-works, "consumed much of Cook's imperial whiskey," passed resolutions of thanks to St. Louis and the West, recommended the subject of internal improvement to the serious consideration of everybody, and then adjourned. Certainly, the convention system is on its last legs.

The condition of politics in Arkansas since the end of the war has not at any time been very peaceful, and there was a time when the impeachment proceedings instituted against Governor, now Senator, Clayton seemed likely to result in civil war. The Governor, however, being a man of some ingenuity, "boarded himself in," according to the account then published, and keeping himself out of the reach of process for some time, in this way finally triumphed over his enemies. The commotion now seems to be of a nature too serious to be quieted by any such simple means. There are two factions in the Republican party in Arkansas, of which one seems to be headed by the present Governor, Baxter, while the other is led by a couple of judges (one of them the Chief-Justice) and by Senator Clayton. These last are the "Radicals," and correspond to the Kellogg faction in Louisiana. Finding that Governor Baxter cannot be used as they desire to use him, they have resorted to a device which has been for the past seven or eight years very popular in the South, that is, of getting him removed by judicial process (in this case *quo warranto*), and installing the Lieutenant-Governor in his stead. Baxter, however, "understands the people" thoroughly, and he has accordingly organized the State militia, put guards over the State House, has gained secure possession of the arms in Little Rock, has reofficered the militia, has

brought a battery to bear on the State arsenal, goes about, when he goes at all, under an armed escort, and eats and sleeps in the Executive office. There is reported to be a great deal of excitement in Arkansas, and it only needs the appearance of United States troops on the scene to cause a good deal of bloodshed. There is no Custom-house, however, in Arkansas.

Mr. Jeremiah McGuire, member of the New York Assembly for Schuyler County, has been making some curious "charges" against Mr. Cornell, the founder of the Cornell University. In 1862, Congress gave the State of New York 999,000 acres of land, the "scrip" for which was to be sold, and the proceeds invested as a permanent fund for the endowment of at least one college for the promotion of a half-industrial, half-liberal education. The Legislature afterwards appropriated the residue of the fund to Cornell University, first requiring proof to be made to the State Comptroller that the University possessed a fund of $500,000. Then began a series of acts which we have not space to go into in detail, the upshot of all which is, says Mr. McGuire, that provisions intended to make the fund safe have been grossly violated, and that Mr. Cornell has made a ring for the purpose of selling the most valuable part of the land-grant, which his "home organ," the Ithaca *Journal*, has declared to be worth $60 an acre, at nominal prices, the difference going into the pockets of the ring. Indeed, Mr. McGuire says that Mr. Cornell "conceded in a communication to the Rochester *Union*, in October, 1868, that it was his intention to put this timbered land into" a certain company "at $5 per acre, and settle with the State at that price," admitting in the same communication that the land was worth many times as much. The scandal is to be investigated at the request of Mr. Cornell, who denies everything.

The Mayor has been making his appointments under the new charter, and they have been on the whole, it is said by those who know the appointees, very good, except in the case of the Police Commissioners, and remarkably free from any trace of partisanship; what is more wonderful, they have been confirmed with unanimity, or almost unanimity. There was one slight delay on the part of the Aldermen, which the newspapers said was due to an attempt to form a ring, or to an attempt on the part of a ring already formed to force the Mayor into a compromise or "bargain." Some Aldermen did, we believe, complain that the Mayor had not consulted them in selecting his men, and this was severely rebuked by the press as an indication of a desire to usurp power and weaken the responsibility of the Executive. It was, however, the most natural thing in the world that the Aldermen should feel wronged that they were not consulted beforehand about the appointments. During the discussions on the charter, the defenders of the present division of the appointing power constantly cited the arrangement made by the Federal Constitution as the proper model to follow in municipal government also, and, as everybody knows, the senators are and have to be consulted beforehand by the President about all appointments, except perhaps members of the cabinet or judges. Indeed, the Senate may be said both to appoint and confirm. Under these circumstances, the Aldermen were justified in desiring to be "seen" by the Mayor before the nominations were made.

The *Times* has given its readers to understand several times within the past year that the editor of the *World* would shortly die, and made no secret of its belief that when he did he would be damned. It also solemnly declared on divers occasions that the *Tribune* was going straight to pecuniary ruin under the guidance of a parcel of foolish and wicked young men. The editor of the *World* has, however, declared within a few days, with the most disgusting cheerfulness, that he never felt better in his life, and the *Tribune* now announces that it is beginning the erection of a new building, partly on the site of the old one, and of colossal proportions. The description is, in fact, of the most exasperating character. The building is to have a front of ninety feet on Printing-House Square, and on Spruce Street of one hundred feet; is to be nine stories high, and, worse than all, to be surmounted by "a lofty tower." Moreover, the heartless projectors, as if to destroy hope in "the concern over the way," declare that it is to be absolutely fire-proof and "to be built to last for ever." They say, too, they are going to publish more details in a few days. In view of these facts, we fear we shall have to withdraw the prediction we made a few days ago of a quiet "journalistic" summer. Strife, we fear, will be renewed, and as the building rises the air of the Square will be again darkened with curses, "charges," and vituperation. We would remind the *Times*, under this afflicting combination of circumstances, of the lady who, returning from an unprofitable visit to church, declared that "when she saw the shawls of those Smiths, and then thought of the things her own poor girls had to wear, if it wasn't for the consolations of religion she did not know what she should do." We would ask the *Tribune*, in the interest of good feeling, whether it is absolutely necessary to put up the "lofty tower"?—whether it is kind and considerate, we need not ask.

Mr. Marvin H. Bovee has published another of his amusing letters on capital punishment in the *Tribune*. He still withholds the statistics for which we asked him, touching the effect of the abolition of the death penalty in those States in which it has been tried, in the proportion of homicides to population. Instead of this, he indulges in some reflections of his own on the thesis that men do not fear death. Look, he says, at soldiers, how they face death, and see what Lord Bacon says on this subject. Indeed, nothing is more entertaining than the air of authority with which the opponents of capital punishment descant upon men's indifference to death, as if the fear of death was a matter about which ordinary people had to get their information out of the encyclopædia or the classics. The fact is that if Mr. Bovee thought he was going to be hanged he would be dreadfully frightened, as we should ourselves if a similar misfortune impended over us. Upon the point whether the death penalty acts as a restraint, he gives us his own opinion that it does not, and produces a letter of Henry Ward Beecher's, dated May 22, 1868, expressing Mr. Beecher's opinion that it does not. He even concludes, from the fact that suicides are more numerous than homicides, that even a dislike of life widely prevails. But this is not all. He shows that 600 murderers have been pardoned, and set at full liberty, in the United States within the last fifty years, and he triumphantly asks the *Nation* to show that one of these persons has ever committed a second murder, from which he concludes that society has not suffered by their liberation. We think that if he proves anything by this, he proves that every murderer ought to be let off scot-free on his promising not to do it again. From the account he gave of the murderers in prison, of their general moral superiority to other men, in his last letter, it is plain that he considers them a valuable and ill-used class of society. He says it is "historically true that the large majority of those convicted of murder have been known as good citizens prior to the commission of that offence," though he does not mention in what "history" he found this remarkable tale; and so we suppose that the prevalent dislike of murderers, and indeed the dislike of being murdered, is an unreasonable prejudice.

At the meeting of the American Social Science Association, held at Boston on the 14th inst., the higher education of women was discussed by several speakers, including Col. T. W. Higginson, Professor Agassiz, President Raymond of Vassar College, President Eliot of Harvard, Mr. Wendell Phillips, Mrs. Howe, Mrs. Cheney, and Mrs. Livermore (whose daughter was excluded from Harvard College on account of her sex the other day). "It was a cheering and significant fact," the *Woman's Journal* says, "that President Eliot alone opposed the coeducation of the sexes," and we must say that, considering the character of most of the other speeches, this is true. Col. Higginson, for instance, said that "some argue that men and women being different, different mental diet is necessary;

but if this is true, why is not the physical diet made different as well?"—a question which was very well answered by Mr. Agassiz, who observed that men and women, at least when at table, did not eat the same food. Col. Higginson also maintained that "the desire for education proved that the one desiring it is able to bear it," while Mrs. Howe used arguments of a different and more conclusive kind, saying that she did think the very "Satan of human society" had taken possession of President Eliot. Mr. Wendell Phillips said that if he had a daughter who was refused admission to Harvard, "he would carry it to the Supreme Court of the State, if he supposed there was an honest one in the State," and, also, that if a young woman, "ardent for education," was told by President Eliot, "Your sex bars you," she might justly answer, "Hang it" (we don't see why she should be limited to such a feeble and feminine expression as this), "I don't care for that."

President Eliot said, and it ought to be observed that with the exception of the President of Vassar College, where coeducation has not been tried any more than it has at Harvard, he was the only experienced *teacher* present, that coeducation was in America a new experiment, and for its introduction good and sufficient reasons must be given:

"After visiting some thirty Western colleges which admit girls, he had arrived at a conclusion diametrically opposed to that of Colonel Higginson. He believed the tide was ebbing in this matter. Oberlin College began with the same course for men and girls, but now they were obliged to have separate courses. Girls even took separate degrees from the men, and followed literary courses instead of classical. The matron of the institution told the speaker she would not wish her daughter to take an Oberlin College course. In most of the Western colleges the lady pupils were residents of the towns where they were taught, and used the college as a sort of day-school, living at home with their parents. He believed that the minds of women were as different from those of men as were their bodies. The fact that the physique of American women was to the last degree unsatisfactory was too well-known to need argument. Women could not bear the mental stress which came from too hard study. Not only male but female physicians were agreed upon this point. The speaker would not be willing to take such a responsibility in reference to Harvard as to admit women, with his present convictions. It is common for girls, where the elective system is practised, to take a lower stand than men. In one school in Boston where the study of Latin was elective, only six out of several hundred took the study."

According to President Raymond, the health of the girls in Vassar College is very good. He "challenges the United States to produce 400 girls as healthy." Of course this does not contradict the statements of Mr. Eliot.

The foreign news of the week, except that from France, is of little importance. Over a "hundred fresh failures" are reported from Vienna, but as they produce very little effect elsewhere, it is to be presumed that they are those of small operators. The effect on American securities is apparently very slight, speculative German holders of them having mostly got rid of them within the past year. There has been another report of the capture of Khiva, and it has again been contradicted, but there is nothing improbable about such a report, and if not true now it will be before long. In France there are signs that the Conservatives are really "preparing for the worst," and mean to force another "issue" on Thiers. The resignation of M. Goulard, the Minister of the Interior, and of M. Jules Simon, the Minister of Public Instruction, led to the appointment of Casimir Périer in Goulard's place, and M. Waddington in Jules Simon's, and thereupon there arose a crisis. Casimir Périer is a conservative but a frank Republican, and highly objectionable to the Right, which is now preparing for open war against the Ministry, feeling, doubtless, the necessity of giving a definite turn to affairs before the German evacuation on the 5th of September. Arrangements were accordingly made to force the Government into an explanation of its policy; and on Monday last a motion to dissolve the Assembly was voted down by a large majority, and an "interpellation" was addressed to the Government, demanding a Conservative Ministry and a general declaration of intentions. Thiers will now probably try once more the effect of his parliamentary skill, but with much less success than formerly, as the defeat of his candidate at the Paris election has greatly weakened him.

The French Government, it is said, is making, or intending to make, an application to our Government for the delivery of General Fremont, under his recent conviction for swindling by the French court, and it is announced that the General hopes to have the land-grant of his bogus railway assigned to the French brokers for the satisfaction of the unfortunate bondholders, and thus have the sentence now hanging over him annulled. We do not profess to know whether the extradition treaty would cover his case, but we think there is no difficulty in concluding that he cannot satisfy French justice by a pecuniary compromise. He has been condemned for a crime, and he cannot atone for a crime as he would satisfy a debt, by restoring the money. If he cannot be got at under the treaty, however, the only inconvenience he will suffer will arise out of the necessity of keeping out of France. Apropos of this, we may quote the following from a private letter received recently from a highly respectable German, lately a citizen of this country (not Mr. Kapp, let us say):

"At no time has the American name been held so low in this country as at present. Independent of Crédit Mobilier, the escape of Tweed, the compounding of the Erie robberies, the message of Grant, the after-performance to the settlement of the *Alabama* difficulties, and other disgraces, which have given an all but fatal shock to the sympathies of the reading and thinking classes with the country and its institutions,—the fact that default in the payment of interest on about forty millions of American railroad and State bonds has been made in this country within a year and a half, has developed an all but morbid sense of the want of honesty in Americans generally among the public at large, by bringing loss and often ruin to thousands of families throughout Germany. The feeling against Americans is really so intense that all of that nationality not personally known are set down as rascals in these parts until they have proved the contrary.

"Of course I know that this opinion is by no means justified, and that the body of the American people are morally as sound as any other nationality; but I cannot help concluding from the facts before me that the more complicate the problem of government becomes in the States, from the thickening of population and the other causes that render the governing of older countries difficult, the less ability is shown by the people and its leaders in their attempts to solve it; which fact is no doubt due to the scarcity of thoroughly educated men."

Some very interesting facts connected not only with the coal and iron question, but with the labor question, were brought out at a meeting of the Iron and Steel Institute, in England, the other day. The president, in his address, acknowledged that the industrial supremacy of England depended largely on her supply of coal, but did not think it was likely to be endangered by Continental competition, owing to the scarcity of coal all over Europe. The really dangerous rivalry he thought was to come from the United States, "whose resources in ores of the finest description are unlimited, while as regards coal their [our] own wealth is in comparison but poverty." In the matter of coal, England is just now laboring under great difficulties. Not only is the working of the mines growing more difficult, but labor is growing more unmanageable and less productive, while the demands of the iron industry are daily growing greater. In 1869, 30,000,000 tons of coal were consumed in the manufacture of pig and malleable iron. At the rate of increase now going on, it is calculated that the iron manufacture will, in 1882, require 65,000,000 tons. But in the meantime the production of coal is actually diminishing; it fell off 14 per cent. per man last year, all owing to the idleness produced by the advance in wages. In October, 1871, coal miners received about $1 75 a day; in October, 1872, they received over $2; they now receive $3, which, considering the difference in the value of money, is about equal to five dollars in this country. The cost of subsistence is, on this scale, soon earned, and the rest of the time is spent in sheer idleness and guzzling. The "self-culture" which results from increased leisure is in fact nil, and the consumption of beer and spirits, as the revenue returns show, is very great. Eleven nominal days in the fortnight is about as much as they work, as the Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday after pay-day are always lost. It is only by great improvements in the processes leading to greater economy of fuel that the manufacturers are able to make head against this state of things.

THE POLITICAL BEARINGS OF THE ERIE INVESTIGATION.

THE report of the Erie Investigating Committee to the Legislature so fully confirms the statements we have often made in the columns of the *Nation* as to the rise and progress of Erie Reform, that it is unnecessary to go over the ground again. There are two or three points in the report, however, which deserve attention, not on account of their relation to Erie but to the general political condition of the country. The first of these is the case of General Sickles.

General Sickles was, at the time when the Erie Reform movement began, Minister of the United States to Spain. He had no more to do with the Erie Railway than the Shah of Persia or the Great Mogul. He did not own a single share of stock, nor was he a trustee for bondholders. He was not even what is known to modern times as a receiver. The Erie Railway was a corporation incorporated under the laws of the State of New York, and not under those of the United States. The President of the United States was entitled to no voice in its management. Yet, notwithstanding these self-evident facts, the President of the United States gave General Sickles leave of absence from his post at Madrid to come home and engage in an effort to gain control of this road. Not only did he give General Sickles a leave of absence to come home, but on his arrival issued a preposterous order authorizing an inspection of the books of the Erie Railway—an order so absurd that it was afterwards revoked by the Secretary of the Treasury. If this leave of absence had been really granted in the interest of a true reform, perhaps the extraordinary lawlessness of the act might be pardoned for the sake of the good effected, but we all know what "Erie Reform" was. In reality, it was a movement, and this is especially stated and explained in the committee's report, to gain control of the Erie stock for the purpose of bolstering up a connecting road—the Atlantic and Great Western—and enabling the latter bankrupt corporation to batten upon the receipts of the former. This is so well understood on all hands now that the committee have even gone to the length of recommending the passage of a bill by the Legislature to prevent a lease of the Atlantic and Great Western by Erie. Again, not only was the reform itself a mere pretence, but General Sickles's only object in taking part in it was private gain; and he is now back in Spain, after actually having bled the treasury of the road which he came over to reform to the amount of $100,000. The services which he rendered, too, were no legal services, no services in the ordinary course of business, no services directed to securing the repeal of partial and corrupt legislation; they consisted simply in bribing a number of directors to resign their trusts, on promises of payment in ready money; and the evidence is so clear on this point that the committee are able to report the sums paid to each of them. Under these circumstances, it is certainly very mild language when the committee report that

> "The spectacle of a United States Minister to a foreign court leaving his duties there, and lending himself to the execution of a scheme of this kind, is not calculated to heighten our respect for or to inspire confidence in the integrity of the public service under our Government."

We may add that General Sickles, having succeeded in making a small fortune out of the Erie Railway, employed the rest of his time while in this country in stumping against the Greeleyites (it ought not to be forgotten how important for the Republicans during the past three or four years has been the intimate connection between Erie and Tammany)—so that the whole transaction may be summed up by saying that it consisted in a leave of absence given by the President to a Minister at a foreign court, that he might come home and help the former re-elect himself President, he being allowed as *quid pro quo* to plunder the treasury of a New York corporation.

In the second place, the attack upon General Barlow deserves attention, because it shows the extraordinary difficulties under which any one labors who undertakes in these days to fill a public office. General Barlow has been made the object of three distinct and very grave charges—first, of having received money in the campaign against Fisk and Gould of which he rendered no account; second, of attempting to corrupt the Legislature; third, of receiving sums of money from Fisk and Gould while he was ostensibly attempting, in the interests of public economy and morality, to get Fisk and Gould removed from the direction of the road. As to the first charge, there was no evidence at all; he accounted satisfactorily for every dollar he had received; as to the second, the only evidence was that he retained among a number of lawyers one who happened at the time to be a candidate for the speakership of the Assembly, and who was in fact elected speaker, but who was not shown to have helped, either by the appointment of committees or by biased rulings, or in any other illegitimate way, the party which was attacking the existing direction; as to the third, there was absolutely no evidence of any sort, except some monstrous stories, concocted by a number of gentlemen who had very good reason for feeling hostile to General Barlow, and whose inventions have been very severely animadverted upon by the Committee:

> "The testimony of Mr. T. G. Shearman, to the effect that, in the matter named, Gen. Barlow was acting a double part; that while professedly carrying on a suit in the interest of the English stockholders, he was secretly receiving a large sum from Fisk and Gould, with the understanding that no harm was to result to them from the proposed suits, was flatly contradicted by several witnesses. In the absence of any proof whatever, your committee cannot resist the conclusion that the whole story was a fabrication, and that the parties giving currency to the tale had probably been grossly deceiving one another. The effort of Mr. Shearman, by inuendo and false charges, to blacken the character of the Attorney-General, is deserving of the severest censure."

Besides this, General Barlow is shown to have been even what would be called by some persons fastidiously honest in refusing to receive a retainer from the parties employing General Sickles, not because he was not fairly entitled to it for work honestly done, but because there might be in the eyes of the very critical a question as to his right to do so. If he had taken it, no one could have blamed him; it would have been a sensible addition to the paltry pittance allowed him by the State; yet he refused it. The question will suggest itself to most people's minds how many men are likely to feel strongly tempted to remain honest in public office if those who do remain firm are to be subjected to the insult and calumny which have been poured upon General Barlow. Of course slanders such as those which have been circulated against him gain a certain weight from mere repetition, though they are disproved over and over again.

The third point to which we wish to call attention is the extraordinary frankness of this committee's report with regard to the corruption existing in the body of which they are themselves members—the Legislature. One of the subjects which was referred to them was the reported use of money to "influence legislation." Most legislative committees to whom such matters have been referred have evinced some delicacy in revealing the rottenness of the system of which they were a part. The Crédit Mobilier Committee, for instance, at Washington, last winter, though it was willing enough to recommend individual members for censure, was very chary of any general sweeping condemnation of Congress. But this investigation has been characterized by the most complete *naïveté*, or, as it should more properly be called, shamelessness, on the part of every one concerned. They almost make a joke of the whole thing. Gould testified that he had been for a long time in the habit of managing elections and nominations by money in four States; that on the whole it was easier to buy up a member in this way, by controlling the election, than it was to manage him after he became a member; and that he could no more remember the number of times he had done this, or the names of the members so purchased, than he could the number of freight-cars that passed over the Erie road from day to day. In the year 1868, more than $1,000,000 was disbursed for "extra and legal services." Gould testified, as to other expenditures of the same kind, that they had been charged to the "india-rubber account." It was proved, with-

out much difficulty, that at a meeting of the "Reform" directors, held July 8, 1872, the following resolution was passed:

Resolved, That the treasurer be authorized to pay $30,000 as this Company's proportion of the legal expenses of the New York Central Company at Albany last Winter to prevent legislation affecting prejudicially the interests of this Company.

And the committee says that "this resolution was passed upon a statement before the Board that the Central Company had expended a large sum at Albany to defeat the pro-rata freight bill and other bills in which there was a common interest. A voucher was drawn and approved by the auditing committee and secretary. When this came to the treasurer, he referred it to Mr. Watson, the president, who directed him not to pay it at the time, as he wished to satisfy himself more fully as to the nature of the claim. There is no evidence showing that the amount has actually been paid. Yet it appears conclusive that a large amount, reported by one witness at $100,000, was appropriated for legislative purposes by the railroad interest in 1872, and this was the Erie's proportion."

Six senators had been paid $5,000 each for their votes on the "pro rata" bill; a sum was paid in the House to defeat the "milk transportation" bill. Mr. A. D. Barber admitted receiving about $50,000 from one Dutcher in 1872, "to be employed about the Legislature." The committee have also examined, as so many committees have before them, into the question of the "existence of the lobby," and they gravely report that, "from the testimony of several witnesses, it appears that men outside the Legislature spend their time about the Capitol, from year to year, during the sessions, with no visible occupation, except to serve certain interests by their influence with members," etc., etc., etc., and that persons of this description are "popularly termed the lobby." We are glad that this matter is set at rest. There have been at various times doubts expressed as to the exact amount of corruption in New York. The astonishing rottenness of the existing régime will hardly be questioned by anybody who will take the trouble to look at the evidence taken by this committee. Nobody will look at it, however, because the subject is so stale that it has no longer any interest for the public. All being corrupt together, what is the use in our "investigating" each other?

THE "COEDUCATION" QUESTION.

THE debate on the question of the "coeducation of the sexes" which took place under the misleading title of the "Higher Education of Women," at the late meeting of the Social Science Association in Boston, did not throw any fresh light on the subject, but it threw light on some other things of hardly less interest. We call the title of Colonel Higginson's paper, which brought on the discussion, misleading, because its real object was not so much to prove the expediency of providing women with a better education as to prove the expediency of admitting them to Harvard College. In fact, the agitation about the matter in Boston, where women are really better off both at present and prospectively in educational matters than in any other part of the country, has largely taken the shape of an assault on that institution, and views with indifference the spectacle of male monopoly in New Haven, New York, and Philadelphia. Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's comparison of President Eliot to Satan, the great enemy of souls, therefore, furnished a somewhat appropriate close to the debate, which was further and rather fitly ornamented by a legal suggestion from Mr. Wendell Phillips, that women were entitled to admission to Harvard as of right under the common law. He seemed himself so well satisfied of the soundness of this view that he expressed great astonishment that President Eliot should have maintained a contrary opinion before any assemblage of Massachusetts citizens, from which one might naturally conclude that he had studied the question carefully and was willing to stake his great legal reputation on the correctness of his opinion. Unhappily, however, we shall never know whether he or President Eliot is right, because the only way in which the real state of the law can be got at is by obtaining a legal decision on it, and in Massachusetts this course is not open to reformers, inasmuch as the Supreme Court of the State is, according to Mr. Phillips, too dishonest to make its finding of any value. Under these circumstances, nobody's view of the law is of much practical use, and Mr. Phillips must not be hard on Mr. Eliot if he holds on to his own debased rendering of it.

In so far as Colonel Higginson's paper was an argument in favor of better means of education for women, we presume he will find few persons to disagree with him. Most thinking men and women are agreed that girls who want to go beyond what the primary schools can give them ought to have the means of doing so. But when he tries to persuade us that, in providing these means, we ought to treat difference of sex as a mere physical accident, drawing after it no difference in nervous force or mental or moral constitution, he undertakes a great deal more work than can be done in any essay. It did not augur well for the enterprise, either, that he should have put a false analogy of a somewhat obvious kind in the forefront of his battle. It was so obvious, indeed, that we feel sure that if we had a full report of the discussion we should find that some of his acute hearers called attention to it. His fallacy consisted in the use of what Bentham calls a "question-begging appellative," that is, he applied the name "food" to the knowledge which young persons acquire at schools and colleges, and the process of storing it away for future use he called "digestion," and then went on ridiculing the notion that women require different "food," or digest in a different manner from men. Did any one, he asked triumphantly, ever see a different kind of diet provided for women at dinner-tables from that prepared for men?—why, then, this silly talk about the necessity for a different kind of mental diet at colleges?

Professor Agassiz was, as far as we can judge from the *Tribune's* report, the only person who attempted directly to gainsay this statement of the case, and yet not directly either, for he simply suggested that there is a difference between the male and female taste about food, leaving the falsity of the analogy untouched; yet a better illustration of the mode in which the public is misled, even by able and honest men, has not been pointed out even in the 'Book of Fallacies.' The fact is that knowledge is not "food," and the process of acquiring it is not "digestion." The use of these terms in loose popular talk about educational matters is unobjectionable enough, but it will not do to base an argument on it for so sweeping a change as the introduction of coeducation into every college in the country. The acquisition of knowledge is not a process of nutriment or refreshment; it is, if properly pursued, *labor*, accompanied by physical waste. Any young man or woman who studies conscientiously and profitably is engaged in hard *work*, attended by destruction of tissue and loss of nervous force. It does not, therefore, make a fig's difference whether the learning of the higher mathematics is as good for a girl's mind as for a boy's or not. Neither the girl nor the boy when learning it is doing anything analogous to eating a good dinner. The physical process to which the mental process is analogous is not eating, but training such as an oarsman or pugilist undergoes. He gains strength by hard work, but he has to have great natural vigor to start with, and what he does is to stimulate reparation by waste of tissue. When, therefore, President Eliot or any other head of a college is asked to put boys and girls under the same course of training, he naturally and properly asks, Are they equally able to stand the strain on their physical powers which all "training," whether physical or mental, involves? And it is no answer to his question, or only a very trifling one, to say that the girls can eat just what the boys eat. Even if they can, we know that though a girl has all the muscles a boy has, not one girl in ten thousand can exert her muscles to the same extent that the average boy can. She can neither lift as much, nor walk, nor swim, nor ride as far; and this though her muscles are made of beef, potatoes, bread, and butter. In other words, no kind or amount of food produces the same results on a woman's frame that it produces on a man's. The women who work in the

field are not as strong or as enduring as the men who work in the field. The difference between Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's muscles and Colonel Higginson's is found rigidly preserved between those of Jeanette and Jeanot in the French vineyards. Moreover, if we may be allowed so gross an illustration, a woman cannot bear as much alcohol as a man can. An ordinary "moderate drinker" can take a pint of claret without feeling any effect from it whatever; almost any woman who consumed this quantity at one sitting would find herself in a sad state. Even the "thoughtful teetotaler" must admit that this is a test of the comparative strength of the male and female nerves which there is no mistaking or eluding. Now anybody who says that study, such as young men and women at college ought to perform, is not an exhausting process, that it does not produce many of the effects of severe physical toil—such as a sense of weariness, a loss of flesh, and hunger—either has never performed severe mental labor, or is a person of exceptional powers. That physical and mental toil produce ultimately the same effects on the individual's vitality is indeed a well-established conclusion of physiology, and it makes sad work of all proposals to make great scholars out of field laborers and mechanics. A man who works hard with his hands, and also works hard with his head, is apt to be burning the candle at both ends. A weak man, therefore, is not likely to become a great student without seriously impairing his stock of vitality, and nearly every woman in Massachusetts is a weak man. We would not for this reason shut women out from taking as much higher education as they feel equal to, but we should for this reason consider physical condition a fair ground for doubting the propriety of putting them into boys' classes, and we should consider that any girl who, in answer to questions on this point, offered to eat a beefsteak and an apple-dumpling in the presence of the faculty, was guilty of a very sorry joke.

The truth is that the coeducation of the sexes, as advocated by a certain class of thinkers and politicians, is simply part and parcel of the female-suffrage movement, and the success of that movement, in this country at least, largely depends on the possibility of satisfying people of the soundness of John Stuart Mill's belief that woman, as we know her, is simply a serf weakened in mental powers by man's tyranny; or, in other words, that sex is simply a physical accident and not a moral division of the human race. As they maintain that no disorders would result from the mingling of men and women in political contests, on juries, and the like, they are bound also to maintain that throwing them together at the most inflammable period of their lives would simply result in an increase of purity. In fact, they have covertly revived the old theory of the Golden Age in the far past. The common notion is that the first great step in civilization was the separation of the sexes, and the allotment to them of different duties and spheres, and the creation of a set of conventions for the preservation of female modesty and the protection of the family. But the new school insist upon it that the perfect state existed before that time, when every woman did man's work, and went her own way, and was only known from the men, as the lioness, or tigress, or cow from the male of her species, by difference of size, or the absence of a mane. This may be so; but it is not reasonable to ask us to accept it all on the assertion of a handful of ladies and gentlemen who certainly have no monopoly of human experience and have not run through the whole gamut of human passion. We by no means assert that it is conclusively proved that the sexes ought not to be educated together. We have nothing to add to what we have said on this point already (*Nation*, May 3, 1870); but we say that the subject is surrounded with difficulties, which are much more serious in an old and luxurious community than in new and simple ones like those of the West; and that President Eliot's attitude towards it is the rational, human, Anglo-Saxon attitude, the preservation of which with regard to all social and political questions is, we firmly believe, the condition on which the preservation of our government, and we might add of our civilization, depends.

JOHN STUART MILL.

MR. MILL was, in many respects, one of the most singular men ever produced by English society. His father was a prominent member of the small sect or coterie of Benthamites, whose attempts to reform the world, during the whole of the earlier part of the present century, furnished abundant matter for ridicule to the common run of politicians and social philosophers; and this ridicule was heightened, as the years rolled on, by the extraordinary jargon which their master adopted for the communication of his discoveries to the world. The author of the 'Defence of Usury,' of the 'Fragment on Government,' and of the 'Book of Fallacies,' had, however, secured a reputation very early in his career which his subsequent eccentricities could not shake, but the first attempts of his disciples to catch the public ear were not fortunate. Macaulay's smart review of James Mill's book on 'Government' gives a very fair expression to the common feeling about them in English literary and political circles during John Stuart's boyhood. About the value of the father's labors as a mental philosopher there are of course a variety of opinions, but he gave two proofs of capacity for the practical work of life which there was no gainsaying. He came to London an obscure man of humble origin, but managed, without ever having been in India, and at a period when authors were held in much less esteem by politicians than they were at a later period, to produce such an impression of his knowledge of Indian affairs, by his elaborate history of that country, on the minds of the Directors of the Company, that they gave him an important office in the India House, and this, too, in spite of the fact that he lived in a circle generally considered visionary—answering, in fact, in some degree to what we call the "long-haired people." Besides this, he himself personally gave his son an education which made him, perhaps, all things considered, the most accomplished man of his age, and without help from the universities or any other institution of learning. The son grew up with a profound reverence for his father as a scholar and thinker, and rarely lost an opportunity of expressing it, though, curiously enough, he began very early to look on Bentham, the head of the school, with a critical eye. The young man's course was, however, still more remarkable than the father's. Although brought up in a narrow coterie holding peculiar and somewhat unpopular opinions, and displaying, from his first entrance in life, as intense hostility as it was in his nature to feel against anything, against the English universities as then organized and conducted, though they were the centre of English culture and indeed one might say of intellectual activity, he saw himself, before he reached middle life, the most potent influence known to educated Englishmen, and perhaps that which has most contributed to the late grave changes in English public opinion on several of the leading social and political problems. Indeed, it is not too much to say that his writings produced a veritable *débâcle* in the English mind. The younger generation were a good deal stirred by Carlyle; but Carlyle, after all, only woke people up, and made them look out of the window to see what was the matter, after which most of them went to bed again and slept comfortably. His cries were rather too inarticulate to furnish anything like a new gospel, and he never took hold of the intellectual class. But Mill did. The 'Logic' and 'Political Economy,' as reinforced and expounded by his earlier essays, were generally accepted by the younger men as the teachings of a real master, and even those who fully accepted neither his mental philosophy nor his social economy, acknowledged that the day of old things was passing away under his preaching. His method, however, as applied to politics, was not original—in fact, it was Bentham's.

Bentham, who was perhaps, in the field of jurisprudence, the most destructive critic that ever appeared, had the merit which in his day was somewhat novel among reformers, and marked him out as something very different from Continental radicals, of being also highly constructive. Indeed, his labors in providing substitutes for what he sought to overthrow are amongst the most curious and, we might add, valuable monuments of human industry and ingenuity. His proposed reforms were based, too, on a theory of human nature which differed from that in use among a large number of radicals in our day in being perfectly sound, that is, in perfect accordance with observed facts, as far as it went. But it did not go nearly far enough. It did not embrace the whole of human nature, or even the greater part of it, and for the simple reason, which Mr. Mill himself has pointed out in his analysis of Bentham's character, that its author was almost entirely wanting in sympathy and imagination. A very large proportion of the springs of human action were unknown or incomprehensible to him. The result was that, although he exerted a powerful influence on English law reform by his exposure of specific abuses, he made little impression on English sociology, properly so called. This was in part due to his narrowness of view, and in part to the absence of an interpreter, none of his followers having attempted to put his wisdom into readable shape, except

Dumont, and he only partially and in French. The application of his method to the work of general reform was indeed left to Mr. Mill, who brought to the task an amount of culture to which Bentham could make no claim, and a large share of the sympathy of which there was also so little in Bentham's composition, and a style which, for expository and didactic purposes, has perhaps never been surpassed. Moreover, Mr. Mill lost no time, as most men do, in maturing. He was a full-blown philosopher at twenty-five, and discourses in his earliest essays with almost the same measure, circumspection, and gravity exhibited in the latest of his works, and with all the Benthamite precision and attention to limitations. He was however wanting, as his master was, in imagination, and wanting too in what we may call, though not in any bad sense, the animal side of man's nature. He suffered in his treatment of all the questions of the day from excess of culture and deficiency of blood. He understood and allowed for men's errors of judgment and for their ignorance, and for their sloth and indifference; but of appreciation of the force of their passions, his speculations contain little sign. For instance, he was the first to point out the fact that the principle of competition, the eager desire to sell, which furnishes the motive power of the English and American social organization, is almost unknown and unfelt among the greater part of mankind, but his remedy for redundancy of population, and his lamentations over "the subjection of women," are those of a recluse or valetudinarian.

His influence as a political philosopher may be said to have stood highest after the appearance of the 'Political Economy.' He had then perhaps the most remarkable following of hard-headed men which any English philosopher was ever able to show. But the reverence of his disciples waned somewhat rapidly after he began to take a more active part in the treatment of the questions of the day. His 'Representative Government,' valuable as it was as a philosophical discussion, offered no solution of the problem then pressing on the public mind in England which bitter Radicals or Conservatives could consider comforting. The plan of having the number of a man's votes regulated by his calling and intelligence was thoroughly Benthamite. It was as complete and logical as a proposition in Euclid, and in 1825 would have looked attractive; but in 1855 the power of doing this nice work had completely passed out of everybody's hands—indeed, the desire of political perfection had greatly abated. His lofty and eloquent plaints on the decline of social freedom helped to strengthen the charge of want of practicalness which in our day is so injurious to a man's political influence, and when he entered Parliament, although he disappointed none of those who best understood him, the outside multitude, who had begun to look on him as a prophet, were somewhat chagrined that he was not readier in parrying the thrusts of the trained gladiators of the House of Commons. It was the book on the 'Subjection of Women,' however, which most shook the allegiance of his more educated followers, because it was marked by the widest departures from his own rules of thinking. It would be impossible to find any justification in his other works for the doctrine that women are inferior to men for the same reason that male serfs are inferior to their masters. His refusal to consider difference of sex as even one probable cause of women's inferiority to men in mental and moral characteristics, was something for which few of his disciples were prepared, or which they ever got over; and indeed his whole treatment of the question of sex showed, in the opinion of many, a constitutional incapacity to deal with the gravest problems of social economy.

The standing of Mr. Mill as a mental philosopher appears to be very differently estimated by late critics and opponents and by himself, whether we consider the extent of his influence, or the relations of his doctrines to his nation and times; and there is a most singular inversion in these estimates of what we should naturally expect from friend and foe—an estimate of Mill's position and influence by his opponents which, compared to his own, seems greatly exaggerated. For example, Dr. McCosh, a thoroughgoing opponent, regards Mill's influence as the most active and effective philosophical force now alive in Great Britain, the strongest current of philosophic thought even at Oxford; and M. Taine, who some years ago discovered at Oxford that the British nation was not wanting in "general ideas" or principles in its modes of thought above the requirements of the accountant and assayer, found these principles in a really living English philosophy of which the head and founder was Stuart Mill—a philosophy which has brought forth one of M. Taine's most elaborate critical studies in his work on 'Intelligence.' In contrast with these estimates we have from Mr. Mill himself the opinion, in a letter to M. Taine, that his views are not especially English, and that they have not been so since the philosophical reaction in Scotland, Germany, and later in England, against Hume; that when his 'System of Logic' was written he "stood almost alone in his opinions; and though they have met with a degree of sympathy which he by no means expected, we may still count in England twenty *à priori* and spiritualist philosophers for every partisan of the doctrine of Experience."

This estimate of his own influence and of the importance to metaphysical discussion at the present time of the philosophy he "adopted," is entitled to much more consideration than ought in general to be allowed for an opinion inspired by the ambition, the enthusiasm, the disappointments, or even the modesty of a philosophical thinker. Nevertheless, the far different opinion of his standing as a metaphysician which his critics entertain is undoubtedly more correct, though in a sense which was not so clearly apparent to him. They see clearly that a philosophy of which he was not the founder, and never pretended to be, has gained through his writings a hold not only on English speculation, but on that of the civilized world, which it did not acquire even in England when it was an especially English philosophy, as it was "in the first half of the eighteenth century, from the time of Locke to that of the reaction against Hume."

What, then, is it in Mill's philosophical writings that has given him this eminence as a thinker? Two qualities, we think, very rarely combined: a philosophical style which for clearness and cogency has, perhaps, never been surpassed, and a conscientious painstaking, with a seriousness of conviction and an earnestness of purpose which did not in general characterize the thinkers whose views he adopted. It was by bringing to the support of doctrines previously regarded as irreligious a truly religious spirit, that Mill acquired in part the influence and respect which have given him his eminence as a thinker. He thus redeemed the word "utility" and the utilitarian doctrine of morals from the ill repute they had, for "the greatest happiness principle" was with him a religious principle. An equally important part of his influence is doubtless due to the thoroughness of his early training—the education received from his father's instruction—which, as we have said, has made him truly regarded as the most accomplished of modern dialecticians.

To these grounds of influence may be added, so far as his influence on English thought is concerned, the fact that he was not a metaphysician in a positive fashion, though he dealt largely with metaphysical topics. He represented the almost instinctive aversion to metaphysics, as such, which has characterized the English since the time of Newton and Locke, we might almost say since the time of Bacon. Metaphysics, to pass current in England, has now to be baptized and become part of authoritative religious instruction, else it is foreign and barbarous to the English matter-of-fact ways of thinking. Mill's 'System of Logic' was not intended as a system of *philosophy* in the German, French, or even Scotch sense of the term. It is not through the *à priori* establishment or refutation of highest principles that experiential, inductive, fact-proven principles of science are regarded or tested by the unmetaphysical English mind. Metaphysical doctrines prevail, it is true, in England to the extent probably that Mr. Mill estimates —twenty to one of its thinkers holding to some such views. Yet it would be a misconception to suppose these to be products of modern English *thought*. They are rather preserves, tabooed, interdicted to discussion, not the representatives of its living thought.

Mr. Mill estimated the worth of contemporary thinkers in accordance with this almost instinctive distrust of rational "illumination"; setting Archbishop Whately, for example, as a thinker above Sir W. Hamilton, for his services to philosophy, on account of "the number of true and valuable thoughts" which he originated and put into circulation, not as parts of a system, but as independent truths of sagacious or painstaking observation and reflection. It is by such a standard that Mr. Mill would doubtless wish to be judged, and by it he would be justly placed above all or nearly all of his contemporaries. Nevertheless, as a conscientious student of metaphysics, he held in far higher esteem than is shown in general by English thinkers the powers peculiar to the metaphysician—the ability and disposition to follow out into their consequences, and to concatenate in a system, the assumptions of *à priori* principles. Descartes, Leibnitz, Comte, and, as an exceptional English thinker, even Mr. Spencer, receive commendation from him on this account. It is clear, however, that his respect for this talent was of the sort which does not aspire to imitate what is admired.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, May 3, 1873.

A DEBATE which took place the other night in the House of Commons, though tiresome and futile enough in itself, has brought up some interesting questions. Mr. W. H. Smith, the very excellent and sensible Conservative gentleman who has replaced Mr. Mill as member for Westminster, brought forward a motion intended to embarrass the Government. He proposed, in substance, that the budget should not be adopted until

ministers had declared their future financial policy Amongst the measures which were promised in the Queen's speech was a readjustment of our present system of local taxation. Although Mr. Disraeli made one of his brilliant onslaughts upon the Government policy, the opposition did not venture, when the time came, to challenge a division. We therefore remain for the present uncertain as to what efforts will be made to relieve rate-payers by readjusting the burdens which they bear, or by shifting part of them to the shoulders of the nation at large. All that can be said is that the question is a very large and a very difficult one. Even when touched thus indirectly, it rouses some awkward passions. Who is to get the benefit of any readjustment? Are the burdens to be shifted from land to labor, or from the poor to the rich? Mr. Lowe, speaking in defence of his budget, laid down a very fertile principle. As it is decided that we are only to pay half of the American indemnity out of this year's revenue, a considerable surplus is available for the reduction of taxation. Mr. Lowe has decided to distribute this relief equally between the rich and the poor, by diminishing at once the income tax and the sugar duties. This description, indeed, is not very accurate, for the classes upon whom the income tax presses most heavily are those who are in the lower strata of the middle classes, and only one degree above the laboring classes. The doctrine, however, seems to be that for the future any relief from direct taxation is to be accompanied by a parallel diminution of indirect taxation; and the doctrine is defended by appealing to the jealousies of the working-classes. Let us educate our masters, was a phrase contributed by Mr. Lowe to the commonplace of political discussion, when, in spite of his vehement remonstrances, the working-classes had received, if not an actual, yet a potential supremacy in politics. He is now educating them to look carefully after their own pockets, and some more energetic Radicals than Mr. Lowe are beginning to be a little anxious about the result. They fear lest the working-classes should learn the lesson only too well, and discover that the possession of political power may enable them to throw off the burden of taxation upon their neighbors. The rich, indeed, may be able to take care of themselves, for money shows no signs of losing influence, whatever may be the case with rank. It is the luckless middle classes who find it daily harder work to make both ends meet, and Mr. Lowe is indicating to the laboring classes the means of giving an additional twist to the screw.

There is certainly one aspect of our modern finance in which this tendency appears rather unpleasantly. We have all been congratulating ourselves on the amazing buoyancy of our revenues, which has enabled us, amongst other things, to meet the American Claims with so much ease. Assuming, however, that peace is preserved, and that this rapid expansion of our income still continues, we shall probably be able to go on cutting off taxes year by year. But what is the revenue the growth of which has given so jubilant a tone to the budget speeches of recent years? That part of the revenue which, as Mr. Gladstone puts it, advances by leaps and bounds, is chiefly the revenue from drink. We have drunk ourselves out of the American difficulty. We have consumed such ever-growing rivers of beer and gin, and raised so prodigal an incense of tobacco-smoke, that the customs and excise have been more than ever productive. In that sense, the working-classes have contributed more than ever to the national revenue, and have hardly felt the burden. But this is a result which we can hardly regard with unqualified satisfaction. However, it is a commonplace of employers to say that higher wages only means more intoxication. It is very pleasant to justify one's unwillingness to give by tender consideration for the morals of the recipient. Still it must be confessed that some recent facts tend to justify the view that the immediate operation, at least, of the great increase of wages of the mining population has been rather to encourage idleness. The colliers, for example, have taken advantage of their strong position to diminish the hours of labor, as well as to earn a larger income. A good deal of evidence has been given upon this head before the committee at present sitting upon the coal question; wages in one district have increased, between October, 1871, and October, 1872, from 7s. 3d. to 12s. 11d. a day; and, in spite of these high wages, and an increase in the number of men employed, the amount produced continues to fall off. From such statements, put forward by the coal-owners, it is probable enough that very much has to be deducted; but the general fact is undeniable, and not perhaps very surprising, that a rapid increase in the rate of wages has led to a corresponding increase of expenditure in drink, which, in its turn, has been the main cause of the buoyancy of the revenues. Is there not something dangerous, it is asked, about a prosperity resting on such foundations? As long as everything goes on swimmingly, and we drive year by year a more roaring trade, Chancellors of the Exchequer will proclaim that people who get so drunk must be happy, and fill their coffers complacently from so convenient a source. But if trade is checked, if there is another commercial panic, or if our commerce suffers from the increased price of our coals, the wasteful laborers will be forced to give up drinking. It is much more difficult to resuscitate a tax than to get rid of it, and we shall have an awkward problem before us. The more taxes we have given up in our boundless reliance upon the drinking capacities of the British public, the harder it will be to find any new resources. The question between taxing the poor and the rich will arise when we are all in a bad temper, and Mr. Lowe's successors will regret that the old machinery has been allowed to fall into disuse. In short, the tendency of late years has been to rest our whole fiscal system more and more exclusively upon drink and upon direct taxes; and the plan is open to many objections, both from the advocates of temperance and from those who dread a collision of interests between classes.

I do not presume to say whether the picture is not drawn in too gloomy colors by the persons whose opinions I have tried to represent. The most prominent fact which comes out—the extraordinary rise in the wages of certain classes—can hardly be considered as altogether melancholy, though it were to be wished that they generally made a better use of their advantages; and, though the consequent rise in the price of coal and other necessaries is anything but agreeable for consumers, the tendency to raise the rate of wages is contagious. The agitation of the agricultural laborers, so long the most stagnant class in the community, continues to increase. Mr. Arch, their leader, is a man of mark. A very ill-judged attempt was recently made to put him down in a small country town in Berkshire. He was holding a peaceable meeting in the market-place, and the usual amount of speechmaking was being done from wagons drawn up to provide a temporary platform. Hereupon some zealous official charged Mr. Arch with obstructing the highway. The statute which afforded the pretext for this charge had obviously an entirely different intention. It was directed, not against agitations, but against obstructions caused by boys playing games in wrong places and similar petty nuisances. The magistrate before whom he was brought had, therefore, the sense to dismiss the charge as frivolous, and Mr. Arch was allowed to continue his career. He is a man of more ability for speechmaking than is at all common in the class from which he springs. He can talk fluently, with very few grammatical solecisms, and with a rather larger allowance than might be wished of those platitudes in which ordinary stump-orators delight. He has studied, in fact, in the only school in which the English agricultural laborer has much chance of acquiring oratorical facility. He has been a Dissenting preacher, and a little of the peculiar style of that profession still sticks to him. However, he is to all appearance a man of genuine ability and sincerity, and one can only hope that he will not be spoilt by the attentions which he receives from demagogues of a superior class. It is hard indeed for a man to retain his simplicity when suddenly elevated into the region of political agitation. But whatever his personal career may be, there can be no doubt that he has initiated a very remarkable movement. Agricultural laborers, indeed, are made of stuff not easily moved, and, after all that has been done, not speedily accessible to agitation. Yet they have shown capacities in which few people believed a year or two ago, and it is difficult to prophesy what may be the end of the movement once begun.

Correspondence.

THE PHELPS-DODGE CASE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I infer from articles in the *Nation*, I think No. 409, that there was neither legal nor moral offence proved against Phelps, Dodge & Co. Do I not? But other sources of information tell me that the younger members of the firm *intended* to defraud the revenue. What is the truth in this case? We value your authority in these matters, and would know what is the truth.—I am, yours truly, H. E. Croley.

Littleton, Mass., May 14, 1873.

[The facts of the case, as we understand it, were that Phelps, Dodge & Co., received consignments of goods, of one of which (for example) the following was the formal invoice, on which duties were paid:

INVOICE.

Liverpool, June 1, 1871.

Messrs. Phelps, Dodge & Co.,
To Phelps, James & Co., Dr.

Per City of Paris:	
2,700 boxes I C plates, 28s.	£3,780
40 boxes XXXX. 40s.	80
20 boxes XXX, 35s.	35
Paintemester:	
125 boxes I C, 28s.	175
Total	£4,070

By a subsequent mail there came, for example, the following memorandum from the Liverpool house:

MEMO.
Per City of Paris, June 1, 1871:
40 boxes XXXX.....40s. 9d.
125 boxes I C.....28s. 6d.

The explanation of this memorandum is, that the prices marked in it were the prices at which a balance of goods deliverable under a former contract had been adjusted. In some cases, the prices in the memorandum were less than the prices in the invoice, so that, as Judge Davis pointed out in his letter, the firm had really overpaid the Government a larger sum in duties on the total invoices, amounting in value to $1,200,000, than they withheld from it if the memorandum prices were the true ones. Now, these memoranda were not concealed. They were pinned to the invoices, and kept on the invoice-book, and the rascally clerk, when he gave information, carefully took with him the ones in which the prices marked exceeded those of the invoice, but left behind those in which they fell below them. It is doubtless true that the firm were mistaken in supposing that they ought not to have paid duty on the memorandum price, which was "the cost price," but as they lost by the mistake, on the most favorable supposition, and on the most unfavorable only made $1,600, we should presume, as would anybody but a detective seeking blackmail, that it was not a fraudulent mistake, even if they had no character at their back. To believe "the younger members of the firm" intended to defraud the revenue of a sum like this, would be, considering the profits of their business, to believe them arrant fools as well as great knaves.—Ed. Nation.]

SIR A. COCKBURN'S EMBARRASSMENTS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Although no one, not even Englishmen, can now doubt that the choice of Sir Alexander Cockburn as arbitrator for Great Britain was not happy, yet, so far as I am aware, no attempt has been made to explain how it came to pass that a man holding the great office of Chief-Justice of England, and enjoying the highest reputation as a judge, won by long years of service—a man, moreover, who is generally considered by those who know him as remarkably brilliant in conversation, and agreeable as a companion—came to draw on himself such a torrent of abuse as is poured forth by Mr. Cushing in his book. And though many years of undisputed sway as head of his Court, together with advancing age, may have increased the infirmities of a temper naturally inclined to arrogance, it must have required an extraordinary complication of annoyances to have produced such a result as has been described by the learned counsel. It is also somewhat remarkable that, though the tribunal met in December under more than ordinarily trying circumstances, no complaint whatsoever is made of the conduct of the Chief-Justice on that occasion.

On a calm review of all the events of the entire period, it seems hardly to be going too far to say that this and every other difficulty which surrounded the final deliberations of the Court during the summer, may be traced more or less directly to the wretched struggle which took place over the "indirect claims" during the winter and spring—a struggle all the more deplorable as, on Mr. Cushing's own showing, it might so easily have been avoided.

Mr. Cushing says that for six weeks the British Ministry took no notice of the insertion of these claims, and that it was only finally driven into action by popular clamor. It was, indeed, quite evident at the time that the Government was hanging back, and ministers were not a little abused on that account. It seems pretty clear that if Mr. Gladstone and Lord Granville had been left to themselves, they would have allowed that, like other disputed points, to be passed on by the arbitrators at the proper time, in perfect confidence that the decision would be such a one as was actually given. If, therefore, only the necessary number of copies of the "Case" had been quietly sent to the Foreign Office, and the rest securely locked up, instead of being scattered broadcast over Europe and America, no one outside of official circles would have known that any such question had been raised, no conflict would have arisen between the two Governments, no one would have suggested the possibility of a rupture between the two countries, the Chief-Justice would not have been placed in the false and distressing position in which he afterward found himself, and last, but not least, Mr. Cushing would never have written his book.

No such good fortune, however, was in store. During the winter, Sir Alexander, together with most other Englishmen, apparently became convinced that the treaty would be set aside, or that, even if it were saved, a long adjournment of the arbitration would be inevitable in order to give time for the negotiation of a new article. It is probable, too, that he viewed such a result without much regret, for he is supposed never to have regarded the "three rules" with favor. These feelings, combined with a constitutional dislike of hard work, caused him to neglect to study the documents as they were placed before him, so that, according to Mr. Cushing, he was absolutely ignorant of the whole of the great mass of evidence and argument when the day of the final meeting arrived. How little idea he had that anything could be done at that time may be inferred from the fact that he is said to have left London in June with hardly a sufficient supply of clothing for an absence of a week. The sudden pacification, therefore, fell on him like a thunderbolt, and found him totally unprepared, but surrounded by men who were thoroughly familiar with all that had been published, and who had in consequence, for the most part, arrived at their conclusions. The effect this state of affairs produced on Sir Alexander was perhaps natural, if not altogether reasonable; he could never fully realize that his colleagues were not in the same unenlightened condition as himself; and as he, having read nothing, waited to be convinced, and keenly felt the need of more argument before giving his decisions, it seemed to him as if the reluctance of the other judges to hear repeated over again that which had already been said was the result of partiality and prejudice.

After the famous declaration in June, the Court adjourned for a few days. This interval was seized on by the Chief-Justice for a trip to London, in order, as it was supposed, to fetch back his trunks. The reading of provisional opinions then began at once, so that absolutely the only preparation he could have had before delivering his judgment on the great case of the *Florida* must have been the little he could glean from a sack full of books which he took with him on the train. Thenceforward, in order not to lag behind, he was obliged to undergo the severest and most unremitting labor during the hottest months of summer, and, unfortunately, the frame of mind in which he addressed himself to the task was not judicial. Being behindhand, he was naturally led to meet the American arguments first; then, without knowing at all accurately what Sir Roundell Palmer had said in reply, he went to the evidence, not to draw from thence the materials for an impartial decision, but to find matter with which to answer propositions which were new to him, and which struck him as false, but all of which had been before elaborately discussed by counsel; he thus, insensibly to himself, drifted from the position of a judge into that of an advocate. His situation, as described by Mr. Cushing, must now have been most painful. Worn out by fatigue; oppressed by the idea that he was in a hostile atmosphere; exasperated by the opinions of Mr. Staempfli, who, to judge by the record of the proceedings, seems to have been much inclined to place international duties on land and at sea exactly on the same footing—a principle calculated to disturb the equanimity of any English lawyer; yet more irritated by the 'Plaidoyer' of Mr. Cushing (a pamphlet which it is impossible to read without suspecting that it was written with the express intent to annoy), he exhausted himself in vain protests, and grew bitter under defeat. That, tired and harassed, he should have given way under the pressure, and so acted as to offend, is a subject for regret, but hardly for surprise. It is curious to observe how completely his whole tone changes when he suddenly escapes from the mesh-work of wretched perplexities in which he had fallen, and for a moment stands on firm ground. In the case of the *Alabama*, where he felt himself thoroughly at home, he gave an opinion worthy of the occasion and of his own great reputation. Neither is it worth while to make the Chief-Justice out to have been worse than he really was, and in one trifling fact Mr. Cushing's memory is at fault: it was not Sir Alexander for whom the tribunal was obliged to wait on the day of the public reading of the award. He was, it is true, a few moments late, but Lord Tenterden was the person who really caused the delay.

The embarrassments of one man may seem of but little consequence, but they sometimes produce results of vast importance. Mr. Cushing's book is the best evidence that the course of Sir Alexander Cockburn acted strongly on the other members of the Court. Under more favorable circumstances, it is possible that the judgments given might have assumed a somewhat different form from the one they took, and it is highly probable that some plan might have been matured for receiving a unanimous signature of the award. The law as actually laid down must abide the verdict of future years; but if it is condemned, its fall will be largely due to the folly which first inserted the "indirect claims," and the wild recklessness of consequences which afterward scattered state secrets through the streets as lightly as if they had been electioneering documents. It may well be that the Chief-Justice of England was not a man well suited to fill the delicate position to which he was called; but had it not been for the unreasoning storm which was

fanned into fury by the newspapers, it is safe to assert that the extraordinary irritability of mind would never have gained possession of the British arbitrator, which rendered him worse than useless in the labor of conducting to a successful issue the great task which devolved on the tribunal at Geneva. K.

Notes.

WHILE the dispute is going on as to the propriety of publishing examination papers in college catalogues, and indeed of giving any currency whatever to them, Mr. R. F. Leighton, Master of the Melrose High School, offers a complete collection of the papers used for admission to Harvard College since 1860, and gives notice that each year's papers will be added to succeeding editions. (Boston: Ginn Bros.)——Shepard & Gill, Boston, announce for immediate publication 'Life in Danbury,' by J. M. Bailey. Mr. Bailey's views of life in this little Connecticut village are so like the ordinary experience of life, particularly housekeeping life, in all parts of the country, that his humorous delineations have long since ceased to be enjoyed solely by the readers of his paper, the *News*. He has been fairly successful in keeping up the level of his humor, but the collection to which the above title will be given will preserve only the best of his pieces, while including sketches never before published.——'Half-Hours with Insects,' and 'Our Common Insects,' by Dr. A. S. Packard, jr., are announced by Estes & Lauriat, Boston, and may safely be recommended in advance to students of entomology as well as for popular reading.——Roberts Bros. have in press 'Thoreau, the Poet Naturalist,' with memorial verse, by William Ellery Channing.——The Boston Public Library has just acquired by purchase about 12,000 volumes of the private library of the late Thomas P. Barton, of this city. It is in all respects a highly valuable collection, but is most to be prized on account of its Shakespereana, amounting to some 2,000 volumes, and including a very perfect copy of the first folio. No other library in the country, it is said, whether public or private, can in this department now compare with the Boston Library.

—The indulgent reader, duly mindful of editorial conditions of time and space, has doubtless excused our distorted perspective in passing over Baron Liebig's death to write the obituary of James Brooks, and in otherwise taking note of the distinguished mortality of the past few weeks. True fame, in fact, can as little contend (except in the long run) against the notoriety of the hour as the gods against stupidity. We wish here, however, to make amends for omitting mention of the death on May 6, in this city, of the veteran General José Antonio Paez, one of the most remarkable Americans of our time, and one of the purest characters in the turbulent history of the South American republics. In reviewing his autobiography, of which the first volume was published in 1867, we gave (see *Nation* of April 9, 1868) an outline of his eventful career, which we have not room to reproduce. We may, however, quote from that review what Gervinus said of him in his 'Nineteenth Century':

"His clinging to ancient habits and customs, as well as to his unschooled simplicity of condition, his mode of companionship in arms, and his fatalistic daring, remind one of the early conquerors, the Pizarros and Almagros, who, however high they rose in external honors, remained plain and simple, agreeably to their descent. Like them, Paez struggled up to the highest merits and dignities, by far the most conspicuous of the many self-made men of color who, from overseers of cattle-farms like him, worked themselves up to be generals; who, descending from the formerly down-trodden zambo, mulatto, or mestizo races, but now lifted up by the exalting nature of the events of time, rose to views and aims, knowledge and actions, such as we look for only among the most advanced classes of mankind."

"Free from selfishness and greediness, uncorrupted by false ambition, untouched by ill-will or envy," and never hesitating "publicly to acknowledge his faults in frank repentance," continues his eulogist, who draws a parallel between him and Bolivar. The ex-president and ex-dictator of Venezuela, who as late as 1861 was recalled from exile to be the saviour of his country, died at the advanced age of eighty-three.

—How M. Thiers passes his time from day to day in domestic and official routine, is described by a correspondent of the *Indépendance Belge*. The President, who is now in his 77th year, preserves exactly the same habits and the same simplicity which characterized him in private life. His two familiars are his valet Louis and his friend M. Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire. He rings for the former at 5 o'clock in the morning, and puts on a buttoned-up frock-coat, cravat, and easy shoes. His stiff thick hair enables him to dispense with a cap of any sort. At six, refreshment is served, and with it arrives M. Saint-Hilaire, who went to bed after reading the evening papers, and now comes to indicate the most noteworthy articles contained in them. He is followed by the general secretary, who receives instructions as to the President's correspondence. At seven the receptions begin. Various chief officers of the Departments precede the Prefect of the Seine, the Prefect of Police, and the Chief of the City Police, who are due at half-past seven; and they are followed by more cabinet officers until nine o'clock. Then for two hours M. Thiers receives the Ministers themselves, Deputies, functionaries *en passage*, and private persons who have obtained letters of audience. Newspaper editors bent on "interviewing" the President generally make their appearance before ten o'clock. From eleven to twelve, cabinet meeting; from twelve to one, breakfast, sometimes with invited guests, chosen at random from the morning's callers, M. Thiers displaying a good appetite: "il prend généralement trois plats." Conversation and sometimes more visitors occupy the time till two o'clock, when the President retires for his second toilet, and, as is his invariable custom, shaves himself in his shirt-sleeves. Audiences again, but brief ones, the President standing; at three a ride out, either for pleasure or to the Chamber, returning at half-past five. Letters, cards, and despatches which have arrived in his absence are then looked over in the office of M. Saint-Hilaire, when, after inspecting the work of his secretaries, M. Thiers takes a nap on a chair or sofa for an hour or so, and rises to his third toilet—frock-coat for friends, dress-coat for company. After dinner, he remains in his salon till midnight, his last visitor being M. Calmon, Prefect of the Seine.

—The German Rhine, at its source near the head-waters of the Ticino, marks the northern limit of a belt of border-Alpine dialects known as *dialetti ladini*, which agree with the other Romance languages in having Latin for a common base, but still form a family distinct from all the other dialects of the Italian peninsula. The localities in which they are spoken, beginning in the Swiss canton Ticino, hug more or less closely the chain of the Alps till in a broad belt they touch the sea between Venice and Trieste. They have been made the subject of an exhaustive study by G. I. Ascoli, who has begun the publication of an *Archivio Glottologico Italiano*, with a number or volume of 700 pages, containing only one of his seven chapters on the dialects named. It is said to give promise that the whole work will rank with those of Grimm, Diez, and Bopp. A map of the district studied is given, and in a long preface the author discusses the question of the unity of language, incidentally ventilating his belief that the future literary style of Italy will not be Tuscan, but a new outgrowth of all the dialects. A 'History of Italian Travellers,' by the late Prof. Gaetano Branca, gives a brief summary of the most notable travels performed by his countrymen during the Middle Ages—a period distinguished by many other if lesser worthies than Marco Polo, whose fame has eclipsed them all; the results of modern research in regard to Cabot, Columbus, and Vespucius; and, in the last two chapters, a valuable account of Italian travellers from the sixteenth century to the present day—the fruit of original research. The author was Secretary of the Italian Geographical Society. Here we may properly mention the appearance of a new geographical periodical called *Cosmos*, published at Turin, and edited by Guido Cora. It satisfies a want which the Bulletins of the Geographical Society did not, and the first number has received the very high praise of Dr. Petermann. It is elegantly printed, and is accompanied by maps of a fine quality. Still more remarkable for its typography is the volume of 'Inedited Writings of Muratori,' published at Bologna last autumn on occasion of the centenary of the great historian. The first part contains a full *catalogue raisonné* of the manuscripts preserved among the Muratorian archives in the possession of his descendants, which are very rich in important original documents.

—The Florentines seem as far off as ever from finishing the façade of their Cathedral, and the latest failure to secure a satisfactory design has elicited a work from L. Setticelli, mainly historical ('Sguardo storico sulla facciata del Duomo di Firenze'), but partly theoretical, and in this latter aspect provoking a lively architectural controversy. The vicissitudes of the façade are well-known—one design being partially constructed, then suspended, then wholly demolished to make room for another; Arnolfo's thus giving way (1334) to Giotto's, and Giotto's (1558) to all sorts of experiments on the Cathedral's front, ending at last (1688) in plaster, decorated with a flat coloring in imitation of architectural forms. What Signor Setticelli brings out is the discouraging fact that since 1491 every century has witnessed one or more architectural competitions for the completion of the façade; while from 1860 to 1870 there were no less than three, embracing 127 projects. Of these, the one finally pronounced most worthy had already been offered at least twice before, and, after all, was rejected; leaving the façade just as it had been for the past two centuries. American architects who have learned the vanity of competitions, as

well as the younger members of the profession who have still to experience the lesson, may be advised to read this work, which it would be useless for us, writing under the shadow of the Post-office building in the Park, to recommend to Government officials, or to committees like that one which has to provide for the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia in 1876. Some instruction for American readers may also be found in a Report read to the Southern Union Association of Naples, on the subject of 'Obligatory and Free Primary Instruction in Italy.' This society holds firmly to the doctrine of compulsory education, but sees decided moral advantages in having the school-tax imposed directly on those whose children profit by the public schools. As Signor Sella has demonstrated, the greatest need of the Italians is to be made to *pay* for the privileges of good government; and it might easily be shown that the same need exists in the United States to an extent not commonly recognized. One of our most popular delusions is that we get for nothing what we are really paying dearly, and much too dearly, for. The United States, along with England, is used as a standard of comparison with Italy in the valuable work by Tomaso Arabia, called 'Studies on New Italy and her Constitution,' of which the first volume has appeared at Naples.

—The use of dogs as a draught-power is a noticeable feature of the local traffic of Berlin. Milk-carts, bakers' and grocers' wagons, locomotive fruit and mineral-water stalls, furniture-cars, and the lighter vehicles of all descriptions, may be seen drawn by two or three dogs harnessed like horses, or by a single dog harnessed by the side of a woman or a boy. Two thousand one hundred and eighty-six dog-carts are duly registered among the licensed conveyances of the city. The loads with which dogs, as well as horses, are tasked, and the treatment which both classes of animals receive on the streets, would keep Mr. Bergh and his staff in a very lively state of interference.

—Shakespeare still leads the classic stage of Germany. The report of the Royal Theatre of Berlin for 1872 shows that of 278 performances during the year, 77 were of the works of classic authors. Among these Goethe and Lessing were represented each 13 times, Schiller 18, and Shakespeare 25, nearly one-third of the whole. In the present season the historical plays of Shakespeare have been a prominent feature of the Berlin stage. "Tieck," said Goethe, "is fond of comparing himself to me, which is much as if I should compare myself to the great William." This homage of Goethe to Shakespeare is shared by many of the most ardent admirers of 'Faust' in the cultivated circles of Germany.

—Dr. G. Pertz, Librarian of the Royal Library of Berlin, has resigned his office on account of the infirmities of age (78). Under his long administration the library has greatly increased in size, and the system of cataloguing, of classification, and of distribution has been carried to a high degree of perfection. Strangers have always found Dr. Pertz courteous and accommodating in according to them the privileges of the library for special studies. As a member of the Royal Academy of Berlin, he has taken a prominent part in the advancement of literature and science, and he has created a worthy monument of his own learning and industry in his 'Monumenta Historica.' No successor has yet been named for this important post. There is talk of erecting a suitable library building, the present quarters in the King's Palace being narrow, inconvenient, and unsafe, but the enormous price of eligible building sites in Berlin may cause a longer delay of this necessary improvement.

FROUDE'S ENGLISH IN IRELAND.*

"EVERYTHING," writes Mr. Froude, "which England most valued for herself, her laws and liberties, her orderly and settled government, the most ample security for person and property, England's first desire was to give to Ireland in the fullest measure. The temper in which she was met exasperated her into harshness, and at times to cruelty, and so followed in succession alternations of revolt and punishment, severity provoked by rebellion, and breeding in turn fresh cause for mutiny, till it seemed at last as if no solution of the problem was possible save the expulsion or destruction of a race which appeared incurable."

These sentences announce the character of 'The English in Ireland.' It is not a history; it is not an essay on the causes of England's failure to conciliate Ireland. It is an historical apology for English rule, and a defence of the political and moral doctrines held by the school of which Mr. Carlyle is the founder and Mr. Froude a distinguished disciple. Now, such an apology cannot, from its nature, be a satisfactory production. It cannot be a good history, for the author is unconsciously driven to warp the narrative in support of a foregone conclusion. It cannot, on the other hand, constitute a valuable contribution to political science, for the writer is inevitably led to insinuate opinions under the guise of narrating facts, and is tempted to suggest conclusions which he himself could hardly maintain if compelled to argue them out at full length and in so many words. The inherent defects of this style of composition are heightened by Mr. Froude's idiosyncrasies.

He is a writer of considerable power, who has produced several novels which read like life, and a history which has many of the merits of a novel. But whether writing as a novelist or a historian, he has always in reality been a controversialist. He has, in common with his school, shown considerable controversial power, but his power has always been exhibited, not in downright argument, but in the adroitness with which he insinuates his views by an appeal to the imagination rather than to the understanding of his readers. We do not assert that this form of indirect argument is in all cases blameworthy. We do assert that it is open to grave objections. The habit of inuendo is at any rate almost fatal to honest dealing with the facts of history. Mr. Froude, for example, would never dream of maintaining that the true cure for Irish difficulties was to put all Irishmen to the sword. Yet the conclusion of the paragraph already quoted certainly hints at an inference which none can doubt Mr. Froude would indignantly repudiate. Here, indeed, we come across another characteristic which perpetually disfigures the writings both of Mr. Froude and of his school. Mr. Carlyle and his disciples all affect a kind of literary brutality which would excite more moral disgust were it not perceived to be a slightly ridiculous affectation. There is every reason to suppose that Mr. Froude is as humane as any other English gentleman. But when he takes pen in hand he obtrudes a delight in slaughter, and a desire for a recourse to a blood-and-iron policy, which would be revolting in a soldier who knew by experience what was meant by bloodshed. Mr. Froude's defects, as well as his merits, have been long known to the world. Unfortunately, his essay on Irish history, though it gives great opportunities, which he does not neglect, for the display of literary talent, and though it enables him to show a freedom from some prejudices which mislead ordinary writers, yet also sets all his faults, his utter want of impartiality, his recklessness in general assertion, his affectation of inhumanity, in the strongest light. He has attempted a task which no living Englishman or Irishman has the calmness of mind to perform with success. If an impartial history of Ireland is ever to be written, the world must either wait for that distant period when the controversy between England and Ireland shall have finally closed, or hope that some rare foreigner like De Tocqueville or Gneist may investigate a subject which no inhabitant of the United Kingdom can survey unblinded by the mist of political passion or religious prejudice. He has further attempted the task without possessing that judicial turn of mind which could alone make success possible, and has attempted it under conditions which make failure certain. He has chosen, of his own accord, to come forward as an advocate. His work must be judged as a piece of advocacy, and the true question to ask is, not whether it is an impartial history, but whether it, on the whole, supports the theories which our historical apologist has undertaken to maintain. Perhaps, after all, the best that can be said for his book (and this is no small praise) is that his facts constantly refute his theories. Indeed, persons who have observed the curious variation in Mr. Froude's estimate of the characters and the institutions which he has from time to time undertaken to defend, may suspect that he first forms his views and then hunts with very creditable assiduity for his facts. No one can forget the very different estimate of Elizabeth suggested by the earlier and later volumes of his 'History of England,' and indubitably it is at times difficult to understand the process by which his narrative is supposed to back up the theories expressed in the sentence quoted at the commencement of our review.

Mr. Froude's strength, as well as his weakness, is well seen in the pages which he has devoted to the government of Cromwell. The Protector is in his eyes, as might be predicted, a faultless hero. During Cromwell's rule the Irish people were, he considers, "governed wisely and firmly, under a rule impartially just, by the laws, as far as intellect can discern them, appointed by the Maker of the world." The general features of this perfectly just policy are then fairly enough summed up. "The owners of the soil had forfeited their rights and were deprived of them. The religion out of which the worst of their crimes had originated was proscribed. These two things accomplished, Ireland was identified with England, and made a full participator in every advantage which England possessed. The separate Parliament, fruitful mother of so much mischief, was swept away. Irish representatives came to Westminster, and the two countries were made one under Cromwell's administration. For the first and last time, the sole object of the English Government was to further to the utmost possible

* 'The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century. By James Anthony Froude, M.A. In two volumes. Vol. I.' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1872. New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong.

degree the advancement and prosperity of Irish industry." Now, Mr. Froude's admiration for Cromwell's system is from one point of view perfectly just, and may be shared by liberals, whether Englishmen or Irishmen, who would repudiate most of the doctrines on which this admiration is grounded. Writers like Mr. Lecky, justly filled with indignation at parts of Cromwell's policy, may think that they dispose of it altogether by the assertion that "his name is still powerful in dividing the two nations, and that as early as the reign of Anne it was equally execrated in Ireland by Catholics and Protestants, by Dissenters and by Churchmen." But such an assertion goes but a very little way towards helping us to estimate the Cromwellian system. Oliver's policy is simply misrepresented by talk about its conformity with "the laws appointed by the Maker of the world," and so forth.

It was the policy, not of a God-sent hero, but of a great English statesman, who recked little or nothing of the fate of the native Irish, but who was determined to promote the interests of the English colony. Cromwell's great merit, and unfortunately it is amongst the English rulers of Ireland an unparalleled merit, is that, if he oppressed the Irish Catholics of whatever descent, he was rigorously just to English Protestant settlers of every denomination. He treated Englishmen in Ireland exactly in the same way as Englishmen settled in Middlesex. Under his rule, every privilege which an Englishman possessed on one side St. George's Channel he retained when he crossed to the other as a colonist. Under the Protector the English in Ireland became for the first and last time a body of equals living under just and equal laws. Anglican supremacy expanded into genuine Protestant supremacy. Irish trade was released from all fetters, and the English in Ireland had representatives in the Parliament of England, Ireland, and Scotland. In his policy towards the colonists, Cromwell, in short, anticipated the policy which modern liberals have, after infinite labor, been able slowly and imperfectly to carry out. He had, it must be admitted, advantages which no other English ruler has ever possessed. He could carry out religious equality in Ireland because it existed in his time in England. He had the command of an immense military force, and, paradoxical though the assertion appears, could the more easily do justice to the English in Ireland, because he was not hampered by respect for the liberties of Englishmen. England's free constitution has been an immense blessing to herself, yet, for reasons which are obvious enough, but which we cannot here work out, it is pretty clear that a free English Parliament would find more difficulty in governing a colony justly than would an English dictator. Still, the credit which is due to Cromwell for having used his power to establish a just system of government amongst the English colonists is immense, and if Mr. Froude had contented himself with eulogizing the Cromwellian policy as a system of justice to the English settlers, we should scarcely have objected to the terms, inflated though they are, in which this eulogy is expressed.

Unfortunately, Mr. Froude makes no distinction between the good and bad sides of the system. The slaughter at Drogheda, the deportations to Connaught, the relentless persecution of the Catholic religion, are apparently, in his eyes, worthy of as much praise as the equity which gave Ireland freedom of trade or the foresight which anticipated the provisions of the Union. Indeed, Mr. Froude, in his anxiety to do honor to his hero, shows a zeal for slaughter and persecution which seems scarcely to have been shared by Cromwell, who knew from experience the horrors of war, and who, if not a humanitarian, meant to be guided by the precepts of the Bible. Our historian, for example, alludes to the massacre of Drogheda without showing any feeling that a transaction which will always be a deep stain on Cromwell's reputation needs an apology. Oliver himself thought differently. In a despatch (quoted, we should in fairness add, by Mr. Froude) he justifies the massacre in the following terms: "I am persuaded that this is a righteous judgment of God upon those barbarous wretches who have imbued their hands in so much innocent blood, and that it will tend to prevent the effusion of blood for the future, which are satisfactory grounds to such actions which otherwise could not but awake remorse and regret." Whether the grounds were in reality satisfactory may be doubtful. It is at any rate a relief to know that Cromwell felt, though his eulogist cannot understand the sentiment, that the massacre of 3,000 men ought naturally to "work remorse and regret." On one occasion, indeed, Mr. Froude ventures to criticise Oliver's conduct. The Puritan leader could make up his mind to expel the Catholics to Connaught, but he recoiled from the proposal to put every Catholic to the sword. Some of his officers were prepared to proceed to extremities, and presented a petition which alluded pointedly to the "order to the Israelites to root out the heathen lest they should cause them to forsake the Lord their God." Mr. Froude's comment is remarkable. "The argument," he says, "was apposite, and, as the event proved, not ill-grounded." Fairness forbids the supposition that he means all which his comment implies, but the sentence quoted is a fearful instance of the result which follows from hinting at extreme opinions in the form of reckless inuendo.

An author who can deliberately allude to the policy represented by the penal laws as a policy which "merits no blame and needs no apology," cannot be expected to feel anything but admiration for Cromwell's mode of dealing with Roman Catholicism. To refute Mr. Froude's arguments in favor of persecution would not be a matter of great difficulty, but it would be impossible even to discuss them in the space remaining at our command. It is more to the purpose to point out, as can be done shortly, that Mr. Froude's eulogies of Cromwell are, even where they are just, really inconsistent with the thesis he apparently at any rate maintains. The Protector's theory is that he ruled the English in Ireland on the same principles on which he governed other Englishmen, but that this should be his glory is the bitterest of satires on the nature of the English rule in Ireland at all periods, except during the ten or twelve years of Puritan ascendancy. On this point Mr. Froude and Mr. Froude's critics are entirely agreed. The Protector fostered Irish trade. The government which succeeded him destroyed it. The Protector attempted to unite all Protestants. The systematic policy of every succeeding English ruler was to make one sect of Protestants supreme over every other denomination. Oliver may be reproached with severity, but no man can charge him with inconsistency. After his time English rule was marked by laws of unjust severity, carried out with capricious uncertainty. The Puritan leader gave the English in Ireland all the benefits of the Union. Subsequent rulers rejected the prayer for union when union would have been hailed by Irishmen as a blessing, and imposed the Union by intrigue when it was detested by every Irishman who had not been brought to assent to it by bribery. Every eulogy which can justly be bestowed upon the Protector involves the deepest condemnation of the whole system of English government from the accession of Charles II. to the death of George III. Mr. Froude, in short, turns out in this, as in other cases, a fatal apologist. He intended to eulogize Henry VIII., and the result of his history is to show that the Anglican Church which Henry established has been from first to last politically, at any rate, a curse to England. Froude's design again was, no doubt, to exalt the character of Elizabeth. His labors have resulted in placing her before the world as a narrow-minded skinflint, whose false economy all but ruined the great designs of her statesmen. His defence of the English in Ireland leaves on the reader's mind the impression that every principle on which the English rule depended was, if you except the enactment of the penal laws, even in Mr. Froude's judgment, a mistake. The apology becomes an indictment which any Fenian leader would be glad to endorse. The main principle, again, which Mr. Froude labors to establish is, that among the nations might makes right, and that success is the only criterion by which right can be discerned. Grant, for a moment, that his doctrine is true, and it becomes the severest condemnation of the men he intends to defend, for no one can doubt that the English Government in Ireland has, on the whole, been a failure. The truth is that the history of that Government, even as given by Mr. Froude, is of itself almost enough to confute the doctrine that might is right. There has at no time been any want of power on the part of England. Ireland has been conquered and reconquered, and conquered again, and has even under the most favorable circumstances found resistance impossible. But in spite of all this England has, on Mr. Froude's own showing, never, except possibly for ten or twelve years, been able to confer on Ireland the blessing of a good government. The history would to our minds be in some respects far less depressing, if we could follow Mr. Froude's example, and treat England and Ireland like two persons, one of whom was constantly in the right and the other constantly in the wrong. But the slightest acquaintance with history shows that such simple solutions of lengthy historical transactions can never be satisfactory.

Look at the matter calmly, and you will see that the action of the English and Irish alike was, at any given moment, not the result of exceptional wickedness or folly on either side, but flowed naturally enough from the state of civilization and the general circumstances of each country. Mr. Froude's great fault is, that instead of tracing calmly the causes of England's failure to effect a real union with Ireland, he has devoted his powers to the maintenance of a hopeless paradox. He has missed a great opportunity. Some truths, as for example the impossibility of any permanent alliance between English liberals and the Roman Catholic priesthood, or the injury inflicted on Ireland by the fluctuations of English sentiment, he perceives with great clearness. If he would have set forth with calm impartiality the errors which had been committed in the government of Ireland during past times, some of which it is highly probable are being at this moment repeated, he would have rendered a great service to England and Ireland alike.

He has preferred to write a book of which the only practical effect can be to rekindle every feeling of animosity between the two countries, which Mr. Froude himself would, we doubt not, wish to allay, and if possible to extinguish.

DARWIN ON EXPRESSION.*

IF the theory that all the races of men are descendants from one common stock be true, it might be reasonably expected that in forms structurally related to each other the emotions would be manifested in an essentially similar way; that the expression under similar conditions would be alike; and that the concomitant physiological phenomena exhibited by them would be nearly identical. If, further, there should be found to exist a noticeable analogy in the character of the manifestations of the feelings between those races and the inferior animals, the cumulative evidence in favor of their derivation in common from more or less remote progenitors would be increased. And if it became apparent that such manifestations were either themselves serviceable to the animals exhibiting them, or that they might, in all probability, be a heritage from forms known to exist in a former epoch, and to which they were obviously serviceable, the hypothesis of "natural selection" would be strengthened by corroborative evidence; for it must be remembered that while there is always a tendency to deviation, and that deviation may be quite abrupt, the opposite and conservative tendency of atavism often operates for an indefinitely long period in the perpetuation of characters (and sometimes apparently very insignificant ones) which have become once developed. And the significance of community of characteristic features must be somewhat in ratio to the independence of such traits of individual peculiarities of structure; or, in other words, the more they are removed from direct connection with the necessities of the animals, the greater will be their classificatory values. We should simply have here an exemplification of the well-known principle that morphology is a better exponent of relationship than teleology or functional adaptation.

Such were the considerations which doubtless led Mr. Darwin into an almost untrodden path of study, and which have resulted in adding to the series of works published by him on "natural selection" and its applications the one before us, 'The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals.' In order to obtain details respecting such phenomena, the author, in 1867, circulated quite widely a form of printed questions, numbering sixteen, respecting the expressions of the various emotions, and soliciting observations on the various races of men; the answers to these, as well as the results of his own studies of animals and investigations into the literature of the subject, are embodied in the new work. This work is nearly uniform in typography with the later editions of some of Darwin's other works, but is distinguished by the presence of a number of photographs (in addition to woodcuts) illustrating the face in various phases, and exemplifying the dif ferent expressions. Some of these are excellent (though not very well printed in our copy), and form a study of themselves; but it becomes evident, on submitting them to a number of persons, that while some of the expressions illustrated are at once recognized, others are ambiguous, or at least different shades of passion are not discriminated.

In the first three chapters the author discusses the "general principles of expression," the chief principles being three in number. Under the first, (1) *the principle of serviceable associated habits*, are discussed those cases in which the action manifested was of obvious utility to the animal under certain conditions; and when analogous conditions arise, even though the action may be unnecessary, it is instinctively and involuntarily repeated. An instance of this is a subject of almost daily observation: in case of impending danger to the eyes, the eyelids close for their protection, and even when a person is forewarned and fully convinced that no disaster will result, he is rarely able to stand the test of keeping his eyes open when an object is flourished near them. Almost equally is that same sympathetic action observable in the theatre, when a pistol is fired, by the involuntary shrinking of more than the feminine portion of the audience.

There are other actions which have no assignable direct cause, and the only plausible explanation that has been offered to account for them is the hypothesis that they are the result, as it were, of a revulsion from an opposite state of mind—(2) *the principle of antithesis* of Mr. Darwin. If, for example, a savage but affectionate dog sees a man approaching at a distance, he is apt to put himself in an attitude that would be at once recognized as a hostile one—the body stretched upwards, the legs stiff, the head slightly extended, the eyes glaring, the tail erect and stiff, and the hair bristling; if finally, on nearer approach, the man is found to be a beloved master, the attitude becomes at once reversed—the body becomes depressed and sinuous, the legs flexed, the head is directed humbly upwards, the eyes glisten, the tail wags, the hair at once lies smooth; the animal *fawns*, and exhibits the strongest contrast to the attitude just dropped, and the only explanation discoverable for the new actions is the revulsion from the one stage to the other. If, too, a dog with hostile intent prepares to meet another, he assumes an attitude like that first described; if, however, a man brandishing a whip comes to the rescue of the threatened beast, he is apt to reverse his position at once, and, half crouching, and with tail bent under, to run slinking away. But the last attitude is perhaps more complicated than the fawning one, inasmuch as the first principle is exemplified and the instinct of defence manifested (according to Mr. Darwin in another part of the volume) in the carriage of the tail and otherwise. A strong contrast to the several attitudes of the dog is exhibited by those of the cat, which, when about to meet an enemy, crouches, and, snarling and with depressed ears, prepares to spring; but, on the contrary, when pleased, erects its body, curves its back, and stretches upwards its tail, and, in fact, manifests its emotions in a manner almost opposite to that which the dog exhibits, while the contrast between its own attitudes when enraged and pleased becomes most significant when the inverse contrast in the dog is recalled.

Still another set of actions is accounted for by Mr. Darwin by a third principle; (3) *the principle of actions due to the constitution of the nervous system, independently, from the first, of the will, and independently, to a certain extent, of habit.* The most striking exemplifications of this principle, according to him, are the blanching of the hair which sometimes occurs, in abnormal cases, after extreme terror or grief, and (in a less degree) the trembling of the muscles common to man and other animals.

These several principles, independently or conjointly, are believed to furnish an explanation of almost all the phenomena of expression exhibited by man and the other members of the animal kingdom; for it must not be forgotten (and Mr. Darwin is thus circumspect) that there are expressions which it is not possible to relegate with certainty to the operation of any single one of the causes in question, and, as will doubtless recur to the reader, the last principle is a quasi-negative agency and a sort of "refuge for the destitute" to which it is convenient to refer any expression which comes not under the other more precise categories; and so ample is the room for diversity of opinion that the actions we have referred to as exemplifications of the first principle might be regarded by some as best explicable by the third.

But the three principles named, such they are, furnish the clues to the interpretation of all the actions manifested by the body, and these are treated of in chapters on the (4) means of expression in animals; (5) special expressions of animals; (6) special expressions of man: suffering and weeping; (7) low spirits, anxiety, grief, dejection, despair; (8) joy, high spirits, love, tender feelings, devotion; (9) reflection, meditation, ill-temper, sulkiness, determination; (10) hatred and anger; (11) disdain, contempt, disgust, guilt, pride, etc., helplessness, patience, affirmation, and negation; (12) surprise, astonishment, fear, horror; (13) self-attention, shame, shyness, modesty, blushing. And in the final chapter, (14) concluding remarks and a summary give a *résumé* of the deductions of the author.

The enumeration thus given will best show the scope of the work; as for each manifestation of the emotions, it is analyzed with masterly skill from an anatomical and physiological standpoint, and the way for appreciation of the descriptions is prepared by an introductory chapter on the muscles of the face. There is undoubtedly room for considerable diversity of opinion as to the aptitude of the explanations offered for the varied phenomena discussed, but that they are at least plausible few will deny, and that none better have been offered is equally or even more indisputable. There are, indeed, no alternatives between conflicting hypotheses for the explanation of the phenomena in question, and we have to choose simply between Darwin's explanations (or, in a few cases, similar ones by Spencer), or no explanation at all, unless we are prepared to offer those that will better stand the test of examination and confronting with the facts to be explained. We say that there are no alternatives, for statements of the older physiognomists and even physiologists are really simply tantamount to the assertion that the phenomena are because they exist, while the pretensions of Sir Charles Bell and the lesser advocates of the same views, that the varied expressions in man are a special endowment upon him for specific purposes, and are distinctive of humanity, preclude investigation into possible causes, if any exist, inasmuch as the premises in dispute are assumed. So long, indeed, as man was regarded as an isolated being, created in his completeness, with language and immediate aptitude for the highest civilization, investigations like Mr. Darwin's were impossible. However strong a similarity might be observed between man and his fellow-tenants of earth, they were grudgingly admitted, every difference magnified to the greatest possible

* 'The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals. By Charles Darwin, M.A., F.R.S., etc.' With photographic and other illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.

extent, every similarity kept as far as might be in the background, and any similarity which the reluctant mind could not but take cognizance of was regarded as the result of simple coincidence. Quite distinct, too, is the domain covered by Mr. Darwin and the mode of treatment of his subject from those of the physiognomists of the Lavater school; and the statement that physiognomy is statical and expression dynamical is an apt simile, and suggestive of the differences between the two.

There is no disguising that the tendency and even the aim of the work are to strengthen the evidence of the derivation of man from the lower animals. The attempted explanations of many of his expressions are based on the hypothesis of such origin, and it is evident that no concession is yielded to prevalent views like that granted by Mr. Mivart and many others; body and mind are alike considered to be derived from the brutes. Few if any expressions (except in degree) are conceded to be peculiar to man. While there are some of the exhibitions of the emotions which are directly traceable to good cause, and the connection of which with the impulse of preservation from injury is evident, they are not in the majority, and many are not thus explicable; and in the latter category, in the words of Mr. Darwin, are "such as the bristling of the hair under the influence of extreme terror, or the uncovering of the teeth under that of furious rage, which can hardly be understood except on the belief that man once existed in a much lower and animal-like condition." In the doctrine of atavism or retention of ancestral characteristics, and the concomitant admission of descent from a form which uses its teeth in battle (such as the gorilla), such attributes find a ready explanation; and when it is recalled how many characteristic expressions, such as the movement of the same muscles in laughter, in pain, in vexation, in disgust, and in anger, are common to man and the animals confessed by all to be his nearest associates, it must be difficult for even the most prejudiced to restrain the involuntary thought that the similarity is at least suspicious; and some will doubtless go so far as to admit that since a solution for this community of characteristics can be found in the admission of the derivation of man from an inferior type, a strong probability must attach to such a hypothesis. But in whatever light we may view the question, those observations guided by a dominant idea, if only such idea is kept in check, and not left to the control of the imagination, must be productive of much fruit in rich and suggestive details and inferences respecting the peculiarities and distinctive features of expression in man and kindred animals; and if only by pointing out this method of investigation, Mr. Darwin has deserved well of those who believe that "the noblest study of mankind is man." Whatever may be the ultimate verdict on the question of his origin, man will have no good reason for apprehension; and even confirmation that he has originated with the brutes from a common ancestry can only be derived from an increase of knowledge and a consequent exaltation of his condition; of reversion to a primitive stock there is no danger. If evolution be true, the prospect for the future, even on earth, with past progress as a meter, becomes almost unimaginable in its greatness, and the dream of the novelist respecting 'The Coming Race' may be realized in its noblest elements in the future of our own.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

UNDER the circumstances which make our national collection on each returning May a fortuitous collection of atoms, the spirit of disappointment is forestalled. What surprise is felt must be at the imposing general likeness to an organic arrangement and the almost deceptive hints of a final cause. Agreeable disappointment at the look of things has therefore become a habit. This year the display is spread with every sign of amplitude and decorum, and is in the greatest danger of being taken by the intelligent visitor for a measure of the national art; it is therefore of some importance that his attention should be called to the discrepancy between the list of members and the list of exhibitors, and that he should be told of the disposition—restricted to New York artists—toward the practice of absenteeism as a matter of professional magnificence. Causes various and sufficient doubtless account for our missing this year the desirable touch of Ward, Palmer, and Thompson in sculpture, and of Homer, Guy, La Farge, Church, Bierstadt, Henry, Bispham, the Beards, and others, with the brush. As it stands, the Academy explains its living meaning much better in the collateral exhibition formed of the pupils' work, where the display is at least as creditable in kind as could be made in any part of the world.

Portraits and scenes of character as usual are the successful lines of figure painting; for we can hardly rank as an exception the historical picture of Columbus which a Berlin artist has been at the pains to contribute, and which is pompous without distinction and large instead of grand. Mr. Page, however, contrives to give largeness of the right kind to a simple work of portraiture, and we think he has never made a better hit than in this expressive and admirable likeness of himself; his color and theory are here seen in their most agreeable air of quiet conviction, the grasp is calm and assured, the generalization quite masterly, and there is an easy freedom, which, preserving an agreeable individuality, avoids the look we have fancied or seen in some of Mr. Page's portraiture of preparation and taxidermy. Supposing this to be a recent painting, it goes to indicate that the veteran is nearing his zenith rather than his horizon. For genre-work, nothing can well be more simply right and beautiful than Mr. Eastman Johnson's picture of a lady in her garden catching a bee in the cup of a hollyhock; the purity of the sunshine, the spaciousness, breadth, atmosphere, and other mere landscape qualities of the little scene, are as happy as the ease of posture and delicate, highly-bred expression; the very bees of Plato were humming around his palette when he burst forth with this fortunate bit of self-expression. His more ambitious picture is also more formal: a young and a mature female figure lean toward each other on the ground, with more or less of the pose of Correggio's Magdalen; the leaves of the forest around them are set into the picture with well-behaved regularity, while the grace and caprice of Nature are justified in the fine painting of an infant whom the elder lady is about to bathe in the stream, and whom her arm supports as it hesitates to try the water. Notwithstanding the slight appearance of rigidity here and there, the picture is well and energetically brushed. His smallest contribution, showing a boy in the sulks, is a return to a somewhat earlier accent of Mr. Johnson's, and is of the manner sufficiently characterized as the Ecouen manner. So, by the bye, is Mr. Thom's scene of young peasants hiding their orchard booty in a barn, which recalls the style of Paul Soyer. M. Constant Meyer's "Village School in France" is another outcome of the same sort of study; and if it is not quite up to Balzac as a mere *scène de la vie de province*, it shows a strong talent for individualization in the urchins' heads and actions. These examples verge upon what we shall be comprehended in calling boudoir painting, a branch in which some careful examples are sent to the exhibition by American painters in Paris. These gentlemen seem generally to be figuring, with a marked attention to their own behavior, in garments that are new to them; the styles of Pécrus and Escosura are worn with an anxious irreproachability and a sense of tightness. Mr. Helmick, in this kind, offers a pair of savants, one of whom implacably reads the other fast asleep. The humor is well pronounced, the character satisfactory, the finish almost too nice, but somehow we smile laboriously. Mr. Daniel R. Knight, whose "Othello and Desdemona" attracted attention a couple of years ago at the Academy, and promised a future of great dramatic power, sends on three canvases, which, with a slight suspicion of the same uneasy correctness, are of a higher rank in cabinet painting. The best is an Italian scene, with a woman falling asleep over a fruit-stand whose sweets are devoured by children; the female figure is modelled up with the utmost precision and care, and the expression of rigid helplessness, as the knitting drops and the form falls over in one piece against the wall like a disniched madonna, is of excellent truth. The smaller works by Mr. Knight, the stiff old beau stooping for a lady's handkerchief, and the rusty virtuoso who examines a carving with his lens, are somewhat snappy with overcultivation, like "Morleena Kenwigs," but their subjects figure well in that sort of treatment, and Mr. Knight shows himself a man of tact in choosing situations where he can exaggerate as virtues the defects of his qualities. An artist of another stamp, M. R. Oakey, essays the dash and recklessness of a newer school; as we examine the "Weary of Waiting" from his brush, where a lady is flung all of a heap among the encircled stripes of her white bournous, we are tempted to fancy what capital Whistler would have made out of the situation. This Swinburne of the pencil essays to gather tea-roses which turn sulphurous in his hands, and draws with charcoal in a large and sweeping style; but, though talent is shown in everything he exhibits, the watchword for him is self-examination rather than brio. Mr. Magrath indulges us with liberalism of a different and older stamp—liberalism in subject rather than in handling; he displays plenty of jolly bottle-nosed humor in his comic monks, who reel through the monastery cellar with a won't-go-home-till-morning expression, or pause with quiet appreciation before Titian's Venus in a gallery. These Boccaccio satires, however, can be in America but attenuations of a line already exhausted with tenuity; and what chills the laugh so soon as humorous study that we know is calculated, not observed? For home character, we think there is a strong sign of vitality in such a work as that of Mr. Thayer, the "'Brown Tract' Guide."

A singular sculptural feeling, a sylvan mystery of light, and withal an Americanism as marked as ever belonged to Winslow Homer, are found in this portrait of a grave and stalwart young woodsman caressing a fine dog, while his foot is planted on a panther he has killed. Mr. Perry, out of a pair of purely homespun subjects, is best seen in the lesson from the Dutch tiles, wherein his youthful Knickerbocker, with blonde hair cut in the style of Vandyck, and grave suit of velvet, spells out the square blue pictures around the mantel of some old manor of Manhattan. Mr. Wilmarth, in a group where a bright lad brings up a caged squirrel to the presence of his mother and little sister, shows portraiture very pleasantly disguised under a slight pretence of incident-painting. Of academic studies by young hands there are not enough, but there are at least two of merit. Mr. Charles Bridgman paints with simplicity and vigor one of those stunted, old-womanish children who are seen in Brittany apparently masquerading in the adult dresses of their ancestors. A subtler piece of work is the representation, by Miss A. M. Lee, of a young girl. The model, whose face has character but no fascination, is posed in bright damask petticoat, streaming hair, and bare arms, in front of some tapestry, a large brass platter borne in one hand; the solidity and flesh-quality of this young lady's execution are truly remarkable in her school and, if we may say so inoffensively, her sex; for Miss Lee paints in London, where she seems to recur, by a single gesture of her mind, to the art of Reynolds and Gainsborough, rather than to any modern Royal Academician; and her position as a brilliant young American in the "set" to which Whistler, and the Rossettis, and Morris, and many more such mutual admirers belong, evidently is relieving her of none of her self-imposed artistic care and conscientiousness.

The above-mentioned, though by no means all the noticeable, figure-works are as many as we can afford to specify. The bulk of the exhibition now, as always, is given over to the landscapes. Of these we need only particularize the pair by Mr. McEntee, filled with that soul of lamentation and those entrails of feeling which he alone among our painters can confer upon the skeleton-Nature of November. One of his present contributions, a cloud-shadow drinking up the brightness of the shore and advancing to chill the belts of sea, is, even for him, a rare expression of sentiment. Then, we have such occurrences as Mr. De Haas coming forward with a reminiscence of Achenbach; and Mr. Dubois's brace of offerings, before whose Fontainebleau we say, with a flash of recognition, "It is a bit of Troyon," and before whose September scene we observe, not without approval, "It is Diaz, with some beech-trees in the corner out of Corot." Travelled art, certainly a useful craft, inasmuch as it brings our antipodes nearer, is represented by such painters as Mr. Gifford and Mr. Tiffany in Oriental subjects; the first gives us valuable notes of tone and quality; the latter is still flying, with vigorous activity, after the elusive secrets of Decamp's light and Delacroix's color.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MAY 19, 1873.

THE money market for the week has been remarkably easy, with rates ruling steadily at 6 per cent. to 7 per cent., and sometimes a drop to 4 per cent. or 5 per cent. On Monday there was a sharper demand up to 7 per cent. gold, which was the only appearance during the week of the least stringency. The business in commercial paper has greatly improved, dealers reporting quite a brisk demand for prime paper at 8 to 9, and sales of extra choice names are made as low as 7 per cent. These easy sales evince decided confidence in the financial soundness of borrowers, and must soon have an encouraging effect on railroad and commercial enterprises. On good railroad stocks as collateral money has been obtained during the week for 90 days as low as 7 per cent. with a commission of 1/8 to 1/4 added.

The efforts at Albany to repeal the Usury Law have been defeated, for this session at least, in the failure, by a vote of 45 to 74, of the Winslow Bill; and although this bill was but a makeshift and entitled to little respect, its loss is to be regretted, as it might have become the thin entering wedge of reform in a matter much needing redress. Why should not a capitalist be as much at liberty to sell his money without legal restrictions as the farmer his corn?

In our last we noticed the financial troubles in Vienna, which have continued, and towards the close of the week have involved numerous failures in that city, and much disturbed the financial centres of Europe. The irredeemable Austrian paper money has, as in the case of the French *assignats*, the contemporaneous English currency, and, later, the "legal tenders" of the United States, led its possessors into all sorts of wild speculations. The Vienna collapse seems very similar to that succeeding our "oil stock" inflation of a few years back; and although speculation in Germany and Austria has been quite general, yet the greatest losses appear to have fallen on professional operators; so that the better classes of securities will undoubtedly be benefited ultimately by the clearing out of worthless trash in the present panic.

The Bank of England rate on Saturday was again advanced, this time to 6 per cent., with the effect of advancing the price of gold here; people rightly judging that the purpose of increasing the Bank rate was to draw gold hence, the Bank having lost in one week £500,000 in bullion, and the Bank of France also showing a loss of 750,000 francs.

The City Bank statement is again favorable, promising continued easy working of the money market, and reflecting the movement of currency this way. The legal tenders and gold, as well as deposits, were increased, and accommodations were extended to borrowers, through the medium of an expansion of loans, to the extent of $3,386,000. The net gain in the reserve is $350,025, leaving the banks in excess of the legal requirement $4,970,275

The following is a comparison of the past with the preceding week:

	May 10.	May 17.	Differences.
Loans	$274,687,900	$278,074,400	Inc. $3,386 500
Specie	20,261,600	20,698,900	Inc. 437,300
Circulation	27,523,500	27 489,200	Dec. 34,300
Deposits	202,819,100	207,834,100	Inc. 5,015,000
Legal tenders	41,944,300	43,102,200	Inc. 1,157,900

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	May 10.	May 17.	Differences.
Specie	$20,261,600	$20,698,900	Inc. $437,300
Legal tenders	41,944,300	43,102,200	Inc. 1,157,900
Total reserve	$62,205,900	$63,801,100	Inc. $1,595,200
Circulation	27,523,500	27,489,200	Dec. 34,300
Deposits	202,819,100	207,834,100	Inc. 5,015,000
Total liabilities	$230,342,600	$235,323,300	Inc. $4,980,700
25 per cent. reserve	57,585,650	58,830,825	
Excess over legal reserve	4,620,250	4,970,275	Inc. 350,025

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$239,320,500	$38,747,900	$278,074,400
Specie	19.006.000	1,692,900	20,698,900
Legal tenders	37,784,400	5,317,800	43,102,200
Deposits	178,835,500	28,998,600	207,834,100
Circulation	27,446,200	43,000	27,489,200
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	27 53-100 p.c.	27 14-100 p.c.	27 12-100 p.c.

The stock market has been weak, and a decline has occurred in all speculative stocks on the list. The general "shrinkage" has been from 1 to 4 per cent., but in Pacific Mail the quotations have run up and down the whole gamut from 45 1/8 to 55. It has often been noticed in the history of the Stock Exchange that a serious depression takes place after the relaxation of a long-continued monetary stringency, and holders, then discouraged at no advance, finally dump their stocks at a loss on the market, after holding out during the siege. Something of this kind seems to be taking place now.

Much interest is felt in the election of officers of the Pacific Mail to take place on the 23th instant. The present management expects to be retained, but, judging from a year's experience of Mr. Stockwell's abilities as a steamship man, we sincerely hope that a more competent person may be chosen. Certainly, if there be any shareholders who look for dividends to legitimate earnings of the Company rather than to profits derived from stock fluctuations, they should make an effort to end the present infamous policy of combining railroads, sewing-machines, and steamships by selecting a president who knows the difference between a needle and a handspike.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending May 17, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100⅛ 101	100¼ 100⅜	100½ 100⅝	100⅜ 100⅝	99⅜ 100⅛	99⅝ 100⅛	65,600
Lake Shore	90 91⅛	99⅜ 90⅜	90⅜ 90⅞	90⅜ 90⅜	89⅜ 90⅜	89⅜ 90⅛	120,200
Erie	61⅜ 62⅝	59½ 62	5?⅛ 59⅞	59⅜ 60⅜	59½ 61⅛	60⅜ 61⅛	145,200
Do. pfd.	73	72 75	....	71½ 73	 73	....	....
Union Pacific	31⅛ 31⅞	31⅛ 31⅝	30¼ 31¼	30⅜ 31	30⅛ 31⅜	31⅛ 31⅛	68,300
Chi. & N. W.	80	 81	....	....	82 78	....	1,300
Do. pfd.	89 91	 88	85¾ 86	85⅛	84¾ 86	....	400
N. J. Central	105	104¾ 105¾	105½	105	105	....	400
Rock Island	108¼ 109¾	108⅜ 10 ⅜	07⅛ 103¾	107⅜ 108¼	107⅜ 108½	107¼ 108	80,600
Mil. & St. Paul	55½ 57¼	55½ 56⅜	54⅛ 55⅜	54½ 55⅜	53⅜ 55¼	53½ 54½	50,600
Do. pfd.	73⅜	73	72½ 73¾	71⅜ 73½	72½	71½ 72	1,900
Wabash	69½ 69¾	69 69¼	68¾ 69½	69 69¼	61½ 69	68¼ 68⅜	7,600
D. L. & Western	103¼ 103⅜	103 103⅜	103	103	102½ 103	102½ 102¾	1,700
B. H. & Erie	2⅞ 3	3 3	2⅞ 3	2⅞ 3	2½ 2½	2⅜ 2½	7,900
O. & M.	42⅜ 43⅛	42 42¾	41¼ 42⅜	41⅜ 42	41⅛ 42⅛	41¼ 42	88,300
C. C. & I. C.	31⅛ 33⅜	31⅝ 33	30½ 32	30 31⅜	29½ 31½	29 30½	56,200
W. U. Tel.	85⅝ 86⅜	85⅛ 86¼	85⅜ 86⅛	86 86⅜	84 86⅜	84½ 85⅜	213,500
Pacific Mail	52¼ 54⅛	52 53⅛	46½ 52	46⅜ 48⅜	45⅛ 48⅝	45⅛ 47⅜	292,000

Government bonds were quiet during the first half of the week, business being checked by the foreign troubles, but, with the advance in gold, prices became buoyant, closing on the basis of 120½ to 120⅝ for 1867's. Only $1,000,000 of the called bonds have thus far been received at the Department in Washington. As the gratifying intelligence came that United States bonds gave way but little abroad, purchases have had to be made here to cover what had been hastily sold "short" on the first panic, thus adding to the activity and firmness of the market, and illustrating the mistakes made by even experienced operators.

In Southern State bonds there has been slightly more business and some of the issues are firmer. A demand for Georgia bonds at 80 has commenced, part of which is traced to purchasers in that State, which would seem to argue a confidence in value. Railroad bonds have been active, principally those sold at the Board, though there has been an enquiry for some of the new issues now on the market. The monetary stringency of the past winter causes a lowering of the prices at which new loans are brought forward, and thus favors purchasers. The consolidated 7 per cent mortgage bonds of the New Jersey Southern Railroad, dated April 7, 1873, and maturing April 1, 1903, have been admitted to the free list on the Stock Exchange. The contest between the United States and the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad has ended by the payment to the former of $421,000, due as the balance of tax on the scrip dividend, together with a penalty of $230 36. The hero of the watering-pot has in this instance succumbed to circumstances represented by the Secretary of the Treasury. Union Pacific land-grants are rather higher lately; the Company's land sales in April amounted to 11,471 acres, at an average price of $4 92, amounting to $54,447; the total sales to May 1 have been 714,903 acres for $3,064,877, an average of $4 28 per acre. It is reported that Judge Pierrepont and Thos. A. Scott have made arrangements to place on this market the Texas Pacific Railroad 7 per cent. currency bonds at the rate of 93. Some apprehensions are felt as to the effect of the projected iron strikes on the various railroads engaged in iron and coal freightage. The works at Phœnixville have stopped all orders, and the suspension is proving disastrous not only to the companies, but to manufacturers in all parts of the country who use large quantities of iron. Eight leading works have now stopped, and it is expected some in Western New York will soon close.

The price of gold had received an impetus which had carried it up at the close of our last report to 118⅜. From this point it ranged down during the week to 117⅜, closing at 118⅛. The possibility that gold will be shipped at least to some extent next week revived the courage of the bulls, though there have been no new developments as to speculative movements. The rates for carrying were 6, 4, and 5 per cent. The exports of specie for the week ending May 17 were $881,723, making a total since January 1 of $19,119,820, against $18,094,482 for the same time in previous year. The exports, exclusive of specie, for the week have been $5,998,713; since Jan. 1, $100,640,538, against imports of $7,938,263 for the week, and $173,221,177 for the year. The Treasury disbursement has been $1,000,000 on account of the regular weekly gold sale, and $1,211,000 on account of coin interest, the bonds redeemed footing up $21,100. The custom receipts for the week have been $2,331,000. Foreign exchange has been strong, at the advance of 109¼ for sixty-day bills, and 110⅜ for short sight. Reports relative to a leading house drawing exchange have been much exaggerated, and the loss arising from the misconduct of a Mobile correspondent is not probably over $200,000, and will not be felt by the wealthy firm in question.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 29, 1873.

The Week.

THE President has at last formally come to the relief of the Kelloggites in Louisiana by issuing a proclamation calling on the McEneryites "to disperse and retire peacefully to their respective abodes within twenty days," which we presume they will have no difficulty in doing, as few, if any of them, have left their homes. Indeed, the resistance to Kellogg is mostly passive. The preamble to the proclamation asserts that Kellogg's election and that of his officers "has been duly certified by the proper local authorities, and judicially determined by the inferior and superior courts of the State," which is untrue, and that "Congress had at its late session tacitly recognized the said Executive and his assistants, then as now in office, by refusing to take any action with respect thereto," which is true, and we must confess leaves the President, after he had once taken charge of Kellogg's cause, no alternative but to get through with it. But General Dick Taylor asserts that the President read him a message in which he recognized McEnery, but which he (the President) was forbidden to send to Congress by Senator Morton, who directed the composition of the one recognizing Kellogg, which actually was sent in, on the ground that the recognition of the former would cause the "great party" the loss of 80,000 colored votes. This story, which we believe to be authentic, shows what a queer place "inside politics" is.

The best possible commentary on the preamble of the proclamation will be found in Senator Carpenter's two recent speeches in New Orleans, which were so excellent both in matter and manner, and contained so much good sense, good law, and healthy politics, as to make one sigh for more Congressional eloquence of the same sort. Senator Carpenter was a member of the committee of the Senate which examined this Louisiana matter, and he says that so far from the title of the Kellogg officers having been "duly certified by the local authority, and judicially determined by the inferior and superior courts of the State," "one election board had no returns, and one had returns which were declared frauds," so that the State courts could determine nothing about the matter. It was, therefore, carried into the United States Court, and a judgment on it was obtained from Judge Durell, on which the President acted when he first recognized the Kellogg government. But, says Senator Carpenter, "the trouble with Judge Durell's judgment is that he had no jurisdiction in the matter." His judgment was not only unauthorized by law, but it was not even clothed in the forms of law. He "seized the State House by an order made out of court, without due form of process, not sealed by the court, and not signed officially, and not directed in the name of the President, as it ought to be." And Mr. Carpenter sums the whole matter up by saying that even if these defects of form were cured, if what Judge Durell did could be done constitutionally, "a mere judge could at any time turn over a State." Senator Carpenter repeated and adhered to the decision of the Senate Committee, that Kellogg, whom General Grant is supporting, was not elected at all; that McEnery, if elected, was elected by fraud; and that the only remedy is a new election, which he thinks Congress will order when it meets. In the meantime, he advises the people of Louisiana, and especially the colored people, to attend to their business and let politics alone, and to beware of establishing oppressive precedents or using the courts for the illegal annoyance of their enemies; because, he says, if the Republican party should be driven from power, these precedents would assuredly be used against their inventors.

Colonel McKenzie, who is in command on the Mexican frontier, has solved the question of protecting the Texans against Indian raids from the Mexican side in a very rude fashion. He crossed the Rio Grande with 600 men of the Fourth Cavalry on the 17th instant, penetrated the Mexican territory to the distance of eighty miles, and attacked a camp of Kickapoo Indians near the Santa Rosa Mountains, killing nineteen warriors, wounding an equal number, capturing forty squaws, and recovering a considerable quantity of stolen property. Forty warriors of the tribe are supposed to be in the meantime operating in Texas, and will on their return find their "homes" desolated. This energetic measure was undertaken on Colonel McKenzie's own responsibility under pressure from the frontiersmen, who have for a long while past been harried in the most terrible manner by the Kickapoos, who come to the line in large bands, disperse to their bloody work in little parties, difficult either to follow or intercept, and then seek safety across the river with their booty under the Mexican flag. One of the difficulties in the way of repressing Indian forays nowadays, as was found in the case of the Apaches, whom General Crook has just been bringing to their senses, is the adoption by the savages, to a considerable extent at least, of that particular species of civilized costume known as the "simple dress of an American citizen"—viz., a swallow-tailed coat and pantaloons of black cloth, and a stovepipe hat. It was in this dress that the Apaches did most of their recent raiding, as it gave a band when seen at a distance on the prairie the appearance of a party of Methodist preachers on circuit, and consequently prevented the spread of alarm about cattle and horses. Whether the Kickapoos have clothed themselves in similar fashion we do not know, but it is a trick of some value to a cattle-lifter. The Mexicans are said to be greatly excited over Colonel McKenzie's performance, and it will be difficult for our Government to deal with it satisfactorily. It would be easy enough for General Grant to find justification for ordering it himself; but what is to be said in defence of such high-handed proceedings by a military officer on his own motion, and within telegraphing distance of Washington? Public opinion, however, in Texas will probably support him so strongly, and the Mexicans have been so faulty, that discipline will probably be allowed to suffer.

Further tidings from the rescued of the *Polaris* expedition have been published during the week. They repeat, in all the essential particulars, the story first telegraphed, but they leave undetermined the exact nature of Capt. Hall's illness, and they by no means clear up the mystery of the dispersion of the party. Two of the Esquimaux intimate, or are understood to do so, that Capt. Hall was poisoned by his sailing-master, Capt. Buddington. On this point Capt. Tyson and his white associates are silent, but they openly charge Buddington with abandoning them, both at the breaking up of the ice, when there was ample time to get all hands on board, and afterwards when the steamer was, on two separate occasions, in plain sight of the floe, with nothing to hinder her from bearing down to the rescue. We can hardly learn the truth about all this until the *Polaris* is heard from. Meantime, it will be safe to give the absent the benefit of our doubts.

The vetoing of the Local Option Bill in this State by Governor Dix, on grounds which we have enumerated elsewhere, reminds us that a similar measure, known as the Permissive Bill, has just suffered a decisive defeat, and by a largely increased majority, in the House of Commons. This result is mainly ascribed to the influence of the liquor-dealers, or "licensed victuallers," as they are called, which has been greatly increased by the extension of the suffrage, and which may be measured by the fact that the revenue received from them and the distilleries last year amounted to about $100,000,000 in gold. It has been found at recent elections that all borough candidates who had incurred the hostility of this body were doomed to defeat, and as a general election is generally un-

derstood to be near at hand, members of the House have been taking the lesson to heart. The majority against the bill was, however, increased, in the opinion of the *Economist*, by the astonishment and disgust excited among moderate men at finding that the fanatical teetotalers were really making converts among Liberal members of the House for "the dangerous principle that a majority—whether a bare majority or two-thirds, or any greater proportion—is justified in interfering with the free action of a citizen on the ground that he is acting contrary to his own interest," and they accordingly determined to give these backsliders a lesson by letting them know that the "teetotal party is very noisy, very active, but in reality very weak."

The charges brought in the Assembly against Mr. Cornell, in connection with the disposal of the State's land scrip, have been frankly met and very convincingly refuted by Mr. Andrew D. White, President of Cornell University. In a speech to the Faculty and students on the 16th instant, he shows that when the State Comptroller had, on account of the glut of State scrip forced upon the market, been able only to sell about one-twelfth of New York's portion (990,000 acres) at eighty-three to eighty-five cents per acre, and could get no further, Mr. Cornell stepped forward, and engaged to take the remainder of the scrip at fifty and sixty cents per acre, giving bonds to locate the lands, pay the taxes on them, sell them, and pay over all profits to the Cornell University, making no charge whatever for his services. This he did with great judgment for more than half a million of acres, so that the scrip still on hand rapidly appreciated, and he disposed of it at prices ranging, as would appear, from eighty-six cents to a dollar. Turning next to dispose of the land he had carefully located, he offered it in various ways at five dollars an acre without success, and when offered four dollars for a hundred thousand acres by Mr. John McGraw, another benefactor of the University, he refused to accept it unless requested to do so by the whole body of the trustees, including the Governor and other leading State officers. This request was readily procured to be made.

Of course some of the land thus sold was worth a much larger sum per acre, but Mr. Cornell rightly refused to destroy the market for the collective property by allowing small purchasers to single out the most eligible lots. The rejected offers of this class of buyers have furnished the ground of the accusation that land worth $60 an acre was parted with at nominal figures. As for the "settlement" which Mr. Cornell asks of the State, Mr. White says its object is "simply to enable him to transfer the mortgages and other proper securities received in payment for the lands to the custody of the State, and then, when a sale is consummated, to be relieved from further responsibility in the transaction." Mr. McGuire's motive in bringing these charges against Mr. Cornell and the University (which is falsely declared not to have complied with the requirements of the act of Congress of 1862 as to the studies pursued), Mr. White leaves us to infer from his account of the failure of the "People's College" at Havana, Schuyler County, to secure the whole Congressional endowment, when bestowed upon it on conditions which it neglected to fulfil, though they were much less onerous than those subsequently exacted of Cornell. A Mr. Cook was the founder of the People's College, and Mr. McGuire was at that time his attorney. At the request of the Legislature, Governor Dix has named as a committee to investigate the charges Horatio Seymour, William Wheeler, and John D. Van Buren.

Mayor Havemeyer, after winning a good deal of approbation by his earlier appointments, has made up his Police Commission in a way which it is no exaggeration to say has astounded all that is best among his supporters. The Police Commission is by far the most important of the City Departments; that on which people's comfort and safety are most dependent; and that, we need hardly say, through which most political influence can be exercised. We should naturally expect, therefore, that one of the first results of a reform movement would be to put it into the hands of a few of our very best citizens, and give it a superintendent of the highest standing as regards character and ability. But now mark what has happened. One of the worst men in the old Board was a person generally known as "Hank" Smith, a politician of the lowest order and disreputably connected with a savings-bank defalcation and all sorts of "operations" of a doubtful class. The *Times* described him day by day during the last Presidential canvass in terms only applicable to a convicted thief, but gave the credit of all his wickedness to the Greeleyites. Well, the very first act of the four Custom-house publicists—Murphy, Bliss, Gardner, and Davenport—who charged themselves with the duty of drafting a charter for the city and forcing it through the Legislature, was to provide that "Hank" should be retained in the Police Board, and he was so retained by statute. Now comes Mayor Havemeyer, and appoints to sit beside "Hank" Mr. Oliver Charlick, an unscrupulous railroad operator, and along with him Mr. Hugh Gardner, one of the four publicists aforesaid; and Gardner's first act after the Board organized was to move the appointment as Police Superintendent of an old man of sixty-seven, named Matsell. Now who is Matsell? He was Superintendent or "Captain" of police for many years prior to 1857, when the police was a band of unorganized and wholly undisciplined nondescripts, half politicians and half bailiffs. He served in this capacity under Fernando Wood, and supported that worthy in his armed resistance to the Metropolitan Police Act in 1857. After the decision of the Court of Appeals affirming the constitutionality of the act, he retired into private life; and how does the reader suppose he has passed his declining years ever since? Why, in editing and publishing a filthy paper, illustrated with indecent woodcuts, called the *Police Gazette*. He is now dug out of the mire in which he has passed sixteen years of dishonored old age, to take the command of our police, under a reform charter and by a reform Mayor.

Comment on all this is happily superfluous; but we commend it to the careful consideration of all decent people. The one redeeming feature about it is that we know who is responsible for "Hank," Charlick, and Matsell; and it is neither Democrats alone nor Republicans alone, but one of those combinations of both by which "the men inside politics" in our day make the public virtue and indignation and pride as much matters of barter as leather or cotton. For Mayor Havemeyer's share in the transaction, the only apology we can offer is that Murphy, Bliss, and Company showed him the shameful way on which he has entered. But we think the Committee of Seventy are certainly bound to declare to their constituency whether they think this is reform, and if not, what they do think it. The affair affords one more illustration how completely politics has become a trade, and how little weight public opinion or public standards of morality have among those who follow it, and how little politicians are divided by party lines. Murphy is a Republican and Charlick a Democrat, for much the same reason that one man goes into the shoe business and another into the buggy business; and one stands by "the Constitutional Amendments" and the other opposes them for much the same reason that they love oysters, champagne, and "poker."

The Boston *Advertiser* recently contained an article which caused us to doubt if we had not been making a mistake in looking on Mr. B. F. Butler's intentions about the Massachusetts Governorship as something too ridiculous for comment. That has been our opinion, our faith in the General's star, except when he has opportunity for a good deal of hidden wire-pulling, never having been great, and it being always our expectation to see him beaten when decent people get a fair chance to show their estimate of the gentleman. But the *Advertiser* apparently deemed it necessary, one day last week, to go into a long and particular account of Butler's back-pay proceedings in the end of last February and beginning of March. It is a good article for the editors of the Bay State to keep on file

for reference. We trust the *Advertiser* contemplated that use of it, and that it surveys the future as one having a well-grounded hope. We observe also that Pomeroy is reported as getting ready to offer himself as Caldwell's successor from Kansas, and "his friends say that if the election were to take place to-day there would be no doubt of his success." There ought not to be.

The Ohio Republicans held their State Convention on Wednesday of last week. The resolutions were brief and not wholly devoid of buncombe, but recent events gave them, taken as a whole, a rather new flavor. Further grants of the public lands to corporations were "pronounced against"; as were also the back-pay grab and "all Crédit Mobilier transactions, whatever be their form." Congress must promptly and unconditionally repeal the Salaries act; and punishment must be visited on unfaithful public servants, "who, having betrayed the confidence freely extended to them, shall not be shielded from the disgrace of their acts by any partisanship" of the Republicans of Ohio, whatever be the course of the Republicans of South Bend or North Easton. The seventh resolution concerns transportation, and declares that "all abuse in the management of railroads, excessive rates, oppressive discriminations against localities, persons, or interests, should be corrected by law, and the people should be protected from such wrongs and all improper and arbitrary use of the growing power of railroad and other corporations." The nominations were of a good character, from Governor Noyes downwards.

The *World* has anticipated us in calling attention to a report, made by the London correspondent of the *Tribune* in its issue of Thursday last, of a conversation with Mr. John Stuart Mill at Avignon in the summer of 1866. The correspondent makes Mr. Mill say that "he regarded free trade as not an absolute doctrine, but a question of circumstances" (as if any economist of standing had ever regarded it as anything else), and then that "he [Mr. Mill] did not presume to say that the United States might not find protection expedient in their present state of development; he did not even say that if he were an American he should not be a protectionist." Now it so happens that, three months before this interview took place, the opinions which the *Tribune* correspondent repeats were attributed to Mr. Mill by common rumor, on the strength of a well-known passage in his 'Principles of Political Economy.' That rumor drew from him a letter dated February 26, 1866, and published in the Chicago *Tribune*, in which he says:

> "The passage has been made use of to show the inapplicability of free trade to the United States, and for similar purpose in the Australian colonies, erroneously in my opinion, but certainly with more plausibility than can be the case in the United States; for Australia really is a new country whose capabilities for carrying on manufactures cannot yet be said to have been tested; but the manufacturing parts of the United States—New England and Pennsylvania—are no longer new countries; they have carried on manufactures on a large scale, and with the benefit of high protecting duties, for at least two generations; their operatives have had full time to acquire the manufacturing skill in which those of England had preceded them; there has been ample experience to prove that the alleged inability of their manufacturers to compete in the American market with those of Great Britain does not arise merely from the more recent date of their establishment, but from the fact that American labor and capital can, in the present circumstances of America, be employed with greater return and greater advantage to the national wealth in the production of other articles. I have never for a moment recommended or countenanced any protecting duty except for the purpose of enabling the protected branch of industry, in a very moderate time, to become independent of protection. That moderate time in the United States has been exceeded, and if the cotton and iron of America still need protection against those of the other hemisphere, it is in my eyes a complete proof that they ought not to have it, and that the longer it is continued, the greater the injustice and the waste of national resources will be."

The *Tribune* replies to this by quoting the passage from Mr. Mill's book in which he acknowledges that protection may be expedient in new countries; but his letter to Mr. Horace White is nevertheless in flat contradiction of the speech attributed to him by its London correspondent.

We have discussed elsewhere the change in the French Presidency. It was clearly foreshadowed by the defeat of M. de Rémusat by M. Barodet at the Paris election, which caused a heavy fall in the French rentes, and was precipitated by the election of Ranc, a leading member of the Paris Commune, at Lyons. This man, who had earned shooting fully as much as most of those who fell at Satory, has never run away, and, as our Paris correspondent remarked some time ago, has made no secret of his possessing a safe-conduct from M. Thiers. The Right succeeded in driving M. Jules Simon, who was their great bugbear, out of the Cabinet, but his successor, M. Casimir Périer, gave them fatal offence by publishing a letter in which he declared that the re-establishment of a monarchy was impossible, that a republic alone could furnish a basis for the union of the Conservative parties, and that the country longed for its definite foundation. This announcement from a new Minister, followed by Ranc's election, satisfied the Monarchists that they must strike quickly. Accordingly, M. Thiers addressed the Assembly on Saturday in reply to the "interpellation" demanding a declaration of policy from the Government, and warmly advocated the definitive establishment of the Republic. The "order of the day, pure and simple," was then moved by the Left, and defeated by 362 to 348. A motion by the Right declaring that the form of government was not under discussion, and regretting the unconservative character of the recent reconstruction of the Ministry, was then carried by 360 to 344. A night session was then resolved on, at which M. Thiers offered his resignation, which was accepted by 368 to 339, and the Assembly refused to listen to a eulogy on him. All attempts of the Left to secure an adjournment were then defeated, and the Assembly proceeded to elect a successor, and chose Marshal MacMahon, by a vote of 390, the Left abstaining.

The Marshal has accepted the office "with pain," and, acknowledging that the Assembly is "the depository of the national sovereignty," promises, "as an honest man and a soldier, to continue the work of liberating the territory and restoring order, and to maintain tranquillity and the principles on which society rests." Our papers now give his biography, we think, for about the sixth time since 1859, with the addition even that he is "a descendant of Brian Boru." He is certainly a descendant of one of the Jacobite emigrés of the eighteenth century, and of good family, and is as gallant a soldier and honest gentleman as ever lived. But he is no statesman, so far as is yet known, and not much of a strategist. A correspondent of one of the English papers well said of him during the Franco-German war, that no one could look into his manly, high-bred face without feeling that he would be a good man to ride after in a desperate charge, but without preferring also, on the whole, that the silent old fellow at the Prussian headquarters should decide when the charge was to be made. Perfect quiet reigns in France, and will doubtless continue to reign.

The Pope has been seriously ill lately, and is evidently fast declining. He is eighty-two; the attacks he is subject to become more and more frequent; there is an apprehension that he may not be able to rise again from his bed, where he still continues to receive princes, prelates, and ambassadors; in short, the political world is on the alert as to what may happen. There is no other conversation than on the imminent Conclave; each party has already its pretender; and the population are already laying their wagers on Cardinal Panebianco, the Moderate, and Patrizi, the friend of the Jesuits. There is no doubt that everything is duly prepared in both camps for the emergency. Still, the Conclave must always be a great lottery. The Italians are shrewd, and Bismarck knows his mind. It is true that the enemies of both, the Jesuits, are shrewd and determined; but things have come to the point that almost all conservative interests are against them, and it is the conservative interest, after all, which in the long run will almost always have the better of the adversaries—Right or Left, it hardly matters which—of the social and political *status quo*.

THE CRISIS IN FRANCE.

THE Right in the French Assembly have, according to the last accounts, played their game, if not with wisdom and discretion, certainly with boldness. The conflict with M. Thiers on which they entered as soon as they found that he inclined to consider the Republic the definitive form of the Government, was brought to a close on Saturday last by his resignation, and the election of Marshal MacMahon by a vote of 390 to fill his place. This change, no matter by what name it may be called, and how carefully veiled by legal forms it may be, is in reality a revolutionary act, somewhat similar to that which took place at Madrid the other day when the Ministry dispersed the Permanent Committee by force of arms. In performing it, the Right distinctly sets up the "gouvernement de combat" which they so long sought at the hands of M. Thiers; and by selecting the commander-in-chief of the army, a man who is a soldier above all things and refuses to be considered anything else, as the President of the Republic, they distinctly intimate that they are as ready to meet the Reds "in the streets," to use the most expressive phrase of French politics, as in the halls of council. In other words, they say plainly that, having the physical force of the country in their hands, they mean to keep it, and use it, if need be, if not to govern France in their own way, at least to prevent its being governed in the Radical way, without any regard to the construction put by their opponents on the powers or duties of the Assembly. They will not dissolve until they think it safe to dissolve, and they will not be controlled in their action on any point by any political theory. They will do what the necessities of the situation seem to them to require—no more perhaps, but no less certainly.

What has precipitated this crisis is the Paris election. Ever since Gambetta made his unfortunate speech a year ago, in which he spoke of the necessity of having the country governed by a new social stratum (*couche sociale*), the Right has been in a fever of suspicion and alarm, which no explanations or disavowals on his part were sufficient to allay. Their fears have seemed ridiculous, if not worse, to the greater part of the public, both in this country and in England, but on what ground we have never been clearly able to understand. We do not lose our wits here over violent speeches, whether aimed against the Government or against property, because we have been accustomed for three hundred years to seeing all political disputes settled, if not by a fair vote at an election, at least by lawful and civilized warfare, carried on within certain well-defined limits. Within that period of Anglo-Saxon history, there have been three great controversies which it was admitted on all sides the ordinary processes of politics were unable to close. One was the controversy between the King and the Parliament in 1640; another, the controversy between the colonies and the mother-country in 1776; and the third, the controversy between North and South in 1860. In all three cases the disputants, when argument had been exhausted, drew the sword in a *justum bellum*, in which property and the lives of non-combatants were respected, and the existing social organization and the established principles of government accepted on both sides as fundamental facts, which neither was competent to modify or abolish. In other words, the controversy was brought down, as in a legal pleading, to a single definite issue, to decide which, and which alone, battles were fought. But since 1789, France has seen three armed controversies also, in each of which not only was the form of the government put at stake, but the very foundations of society. In 1792, in 1848, and in 1871, French Conservatives had to fight, not after a fair vote, but after a few frantic speeches and songs, and not to decide who should exercise the powers of government, as those powers have been settled by the history and traditions and practice of the Western world, but to assert their title to their property, the sanctity of their marriages, the legitimacy of their children, the validity of their fathers' wills, and though last, not least, their own right to live in their own country. Men who are engaged in controversies of this kind are apt to be dreadfully in earnest, and though it is easy enough for one sitting in an easy-chair in New York, with the writ of habeas corpus and the Dartmouth College Case behind him, to feel amused by their antics, it is not so easy to show that their fears and their fancies are wholly groundless. When Gambetta demands the committal of French affairs to a new social stratum, Frenchmen naturally read his words in the light of recent French history, and infer that he calls for a social revolution, as the most active and influential set of his followers understand that phrase.

Nevertheless, it is pretty clear that the Right in the Assembly has been steadily losing the support of the great body of the voters through the country, although there is no doubt they are just as hostile to the Reds as the counts and marquises are. Now this has been due, not, as some people have supposed, to growing confidence in Gambetta, but to growing confidence in M. Thiers; not to a growing love of a republic, but to a growing belief that the Republic was established. M. Thiers, and not the Assembly, has been for two years the central fact of French politics, and by the process which is witnessed in every revolutionary period in French history, the popular confidence and affection have settled on him as the representative of law and order—as *the* Government, in short. He took Paris; he restored the army; he paid the indemnity; he arranged for the evacuation of France by the Germans; he is, in short, the "saviour of society" for the time being. When, therefore, he came to loggerheads with the Assembly a year ago, and gave in his adhesion to the Republic, and proposed that it should be definitively established, and held out the olive-branch to the Radicals, the country sided with him, as it sided in 1851 with Louis Napoleon. When an election occurred, the voters cast their ballots for the man they thought M. Thiers wished to be elected and the state of things which he approved of, just as in 1852 they cast them for the men Louis Napoleon wished to be elected and for the state of things *he* approved of. To them the Assembly is a band of empty talkers, M. Thiers is a great and wise man and is "the chief of the state." To anybody familiar with the condition of the French rural mind, the notion that a great change of *opinion* has been going on in France on the questions at issue between Thiers and the Right, is simply an inference drawn from a supposed analogy between French political processes and our own. Opinion has not been changing in France; faith in M. Thiers and his work has been growing.

Now, Thiers was disposed to act in a conciliatory spirit towards the Left; he was anxious evidently to convert them from wild beasts into sensible politicians; and prior to the Paris election it was supposed that he was succeeding, and that with their support and that of the country he would be able to bear down the Right, and bring about a dissolution of the Assembly, or at all events the adoption of a permanent republican constitution, before his death or retirement. When, therefore, he put forward one of his own ministers, M. de Rémusat, a Republican of Conservative opinions and antecedents, as a candidate for Paris, it was felt that the election would be a crucial test of the success of his policy. If a constituency like Paris had accepted a man like Rémusat, it would have proved that M. Thiers was master of the situation, and the Right would probably have been awed into submission. All his friends, therefore, and indeed all the friends of Conservative Republics, implored the Radicals with tongue and pen to beware what they were doing, and to support M. Thiers's man, in order to strengthen his hands against the Monarchists, who have since Louis Napoleon's death been strengthened by the adhesion of the Bonapartists. The Radicals, however, were not men to be wheedled into wisdom or moderation. They not only did not support M. de Rémusat, but they went to Lyons, of all places in France, for a candidate of their own, and selected M. Barodet, a leading actor in the Red disorders there in 1870 and 1871, and a demagogue and adventurer of the most advanced kind, and elected him by a large majority. Of course, this blow was ruinous to M. Thiers. It proved that he had had no real hold on the Radicals, that their alliance with him was hollow and delusive, and that their notion of the proper remedy for French ills had undergone no modification in the direction of sanity or restraint.

M. Thiers immediately afterwards reconstructed his Cabinet, but still in a Republican sense, and the Right, feeling that their hour had come, at once sought to force him into submission or resignation. He has chosen the latter.

What is to come in the immediate future there is no use in trying to predict. The step which the majority in the Assembly has taken is an unmistakable appeal to the army, and it is not unlikely that their action hereafter will be guided by Marshal MacMahon's state of mind and the condition of the troops. There is no pretence, and indeed can be none, that he is a politician or statesman, or represents any particular set of opinions on great public questions. He is chosen President simply as the representative of the organized force of the community, as the man who is most competent to kill people who attempt resistance to the Assembly. The wise course, it would seem to an outsider, for the Assembly to follow would be, now that it has secured the control of the administrative machinery, and has provided for the maintenance of order, to dissolve and provide for the election of a new Assembly charged with the duty of drawing up a constitution. But we confess it seems more probable that the Right will cling to power until they have settled the form of government to their own satisfaction. To everybody who blames them, we reply that they are acting according to their light; that they are what they are and where they are; that France is still without a constitution, and 300,000 men are needed to keep the peace in French cities, not because dukes, counts, and marquises are fools and knaves and villains, but because that portion of the French community which loves order, and law, and liberty has not had the wisdom or discretion or strength to provide proper guarantees for them—which is very much like saying that, when a man has an ulcer on his leg, it is neither the ulcer nor the leg that is to blame, but the unwholesome condition of his blood.

TEMPERANCE LEGISLATION.

GOVERNOR DIX'S Message, vetoing the Local Option Bill, would be very entertaining reading if the evil with which it deals—careless legislation—had not attained such monstrous proportions. The object of the bill was to enable the legal voters of any town or city to determine by ballot whether the sale of intoxicating drinks should be permitted within its limits for other than "medicinal, mechanical, chemical, or sacramental" purposes, and to provide machinery for the enforcement of prohibition where prohibition was resolved on. Governor Dix has pointed out that it ties the voters up to the alternative of permitting the sale of all intoxicating drinks, including spirituous liquors, or none, including beer and cider. Now there is a difference of opinion, and he holds apparently a justifiable one, on the point whether it is expedient to prohibit the sale of beer and cider even on temperance grounds, and he thinks that any town or city which chose to recognize and respect this difference of opinion should be allowed to do so. In other words, he thinks towns and cities should be allowed to select the drinks they will permit or prohibit. On general principles, he is probably right on this point; but we doubt very much whether the distinction would be found capable of enforcement in practice in the existing condition of manners and opinion. There is in no State in the Union such a profound popular appreciation of the mischief and immorality of taking intoxicating drinks as is necessary to support a general measure of prohibition, and the result is that no general measure of prohibition has yet succeeded. The advocates of such measures are generally a small, active, and fanatically earnest body of men, who give time and money without stint to the endeavor to get their views embodied in legislation, and their views have such a show of reason and morality and even religion about them, that very few persons care to oppose them publicly. Indeed, those who openly and energetically take ground in favor of free drinking may almost be counted on one's fingers. The policy, therefore, which the enemies of temperance legislation have generally adopted in States in which the temperance feeling is strong, has been one of silence and acquiescence as regards the passage of prohibitory laws, followed by determined but also silent opposition to their enforcement. Indeed, the prevalence and success of this policy are one of the jokes of the temperance "cause." The more rigid the prohibitory law, too, the less chance there is of its execution—a fact with which the opponents of such measures are perfectly familiar, and know how to turn to account, but which the temperance men can rarely be got to see, owing to that peculiar mania about the power of legislation which has taken possession in our day of the whole reform and radical army in every country, and the absurdity of which Herbert Spencer has been pointing out in his admirable series of papers in the *Popular Science Monthly*. Indeed, the more stringent the provisions of a law are, the better the reformers like it, as it furnishes a sort of outward and visible sign of the success of their efforts which the practical execution might not do. The framing and passage of the statute they consider their peculiar work; the frustration of it is the work of the Devil, or "the Reaction," or the "Epicureans," or whatever the name may be which in any particular country is now given to the principle of evil. The anti-temperance feeling is, therefore, a slightly jocose one. The "Alcoholists" make no speeches, and write no articles in defence of their views; they simply look on and chuckle inwardly over the failures of the temperance men. A person who evades or disregards a prohibitory law does not lose reputation by it; a man who drinks wine or whiskey in defiance of the statute loses neither his own respect nor the respect of his neighbors in consequence of it. This being the case, it is easy to see how hard it would be to prevent the sale of whiskey or gin while permitting the sale of beer or cider. If the question be reduced to one of the percentage of alcohol contained in any particular drink, it will hardly have much moral weight with the average man. The beer or cider seller is not likely to have much scruple about supplying a customer with an occasional glass of whiskey or brandy, and this particular mode of evading the law hardly any practicable surveillance could prevent. So that, though General Dix's objection is reasonable enough on its face, and one to which the state of opinion in this State gives great force, it is hardly likely to meet with acceptance from those who attach great importance to direct temperance legislation.

His exposure of the defects of the machinery for enforcing the law is, however, very valuable and instructive as an illustration of the way in which nearly all work which creates no offices is done in Albany, and also, let us add, of the gullibility of the temperance men. The excise law actually in force gives the boards of excise in cities, towns, and villages discretion in the granting of licenses. Under the Local Option Law, however, they would have been forced to grant them to all persons who filed a certain bond with certain sureties, so that there would be no legal limitation to the number of dealers authorized in any particular locality to sell whiskey for "medicinal, mechanical, chemical, or sacramental use." Moreover, nobody is under it authorized or empowered to exact any guarantee as to the purpose for which liquor is bought. The purchaser could, on entering the liquor store, assign whichever he pleased of the legal uses of his favorite "tap," and the dealer would have to take his word for it. The worst old toper in the town could buy gin or brandy for "chemical or sacramental use," and the bar-keeper could only laugh over it. Moreover, a large number of officers are required, if they know of any person within the town who is in the habit of becoming intoxicated, to give notice of the fact to all licensed dealers, and these are thenceforward all bound to refuse liquor to such person. There is something very ludicrous in the notion of enforcing such a provision in any of our large cities; but it is still more ludicrous when coupled, as in the act before us, with a prohibition against selling any liquor to be drunk on the premises. If a toper was compelled to consume his liquor at the place of sale, the dealer, to whom his name was of no value as a warning, might become familiar with his features, and thus be enabled to cut off his supply, but as the bill stands its enactment would simply, under the most unfavorable circumstances, compel drinkers to send their bottle in charge of a sober youth, or of a

tippler unknown to the police, and have it charged on the pass-book to "the mechanical, medicinal, chemical, or sacramental account," as the fancy seized him.

Nevertheless, it is, as General Dix says, a great pity to throw any obstacle in the way of repressing intemperance, and no bill having that for its object, however absurd in its provisions, ought to be lightly opposed. But nearly all the legislation which the friends of temperance have thus far brought about, has had for its first results to make attempts at repression ludicrous as well as abortive. It is not that it fails—for all laws fail—but it fails so utterly and completely that it leaves people wondering whether anybody but knaves or visionaries could have been concerned in getting it up. There is apparently in the present state of manners but one thing that temperance men can do, and that is, render the consumption of spirituous liquors somewhat more difficult than it is now. Upon the harmfulness of them there is no difference of opinion; upon the harmfulness of light wines, beer, and cider there is considerable difference of opinion, even among the best people. It would seem therefore to be the part of wisdom to attack what you can attack in greatest force, and with strongest public opinion at your back. The first weapon, therefore, of the temperance reformer ought to be judicious taxation on the manufacture and sale of the liquors he wishes to strike at, and corresponding encouragement of the manufacture and sale of liquors which he considers less harmful, or likely to take the place of the others, and by judicious taxation we mean taxation stopping at the point where it becomes more profitable to evade the law than pay the duty. There is no mode of making liquor scarce equal in efficiency to dearness, and dearness is never so effective as when it is accompanied by a cheap alternative. That is, you increase the dearness of whiskey without touching its price by making wine or beer cheap. The next instrument is a good licensing system, restricting the number of places in which, in any town or village, liquor may be sold; but this, as indeed the taxation, depends on a good system of inspection. Unless you have honest officers to levy the taxes, to enforce the licenses, laws are vain; and this brings us back, as do all attempts at reform, to the great reform of all—civil-service reform. The notion that things can in any department of our affairs be changed for the better when the agents of the state, through whose eyes it sees, through whose hands it strikes, and through whose character it inspires respect, are a parcel of corrupt knaves and adventurers, engaged during a brief period of office in laying up treasure for the idle days to come, is a sad hallucination. All talk of reform which does not take the purification of the civil service—that is, the provision of honest officers of the law—as its basis, let it be never so earnest, is as vain as the howling of dervishes.

"FEDERALISM" IN FRANCE AND SPAIN.

PARIS, May 9, 1873.

VERY few people in France read the significant account of the festivities which are taking place at this moment at St. Petersburg. The alliance of the two Emperors of Russia and Germany was never so close as it has now become; and the influence of the Czar has brought the Emperor of Austria and the new Emperor of Germany into closer contact. The interview of the three Emperors which took place last year was not particularly warm; but this year another interview will take place in Vienna itself during the great Exhibition, and the meeting at St. Petersburg is only a forerunner of this great political event. The comments of the official press, inspired by Prince Bismarck, leave no doubt on the character of these meetings of sovereigns. When the present Emperor of Germany was only Prince William, he was sent to St. Petersburg to assist at the inauguration of the Alexander column. He was accompanied by a few old warriors of 1813, 1814, and 1815. A hundred thousand Russian soldiers paraded before the column erected in memory of the Emperor who had entered Paris as a conqueror, and Nicholas, turning to Prince William and his followers, and pointing to his own army, said: "Gentlemen, here you see the reserve of the Prussian army before you." These very words were remembered during the late military festivities at St. Petersburg. Every day the Emperor of Germany receives the report of his Kaluga regiment; the two Emperors act and talk like brothers in arms, and this is what the *Provinzal-Correspondenz*, directly influenced by Prince Bismarck, writes on the subject:

"As the meeting of the three Emperors last September was welcomed as a guarantee of a pacific policy, so our Emperor's journey to St. Petersburg and the coming interview at Vienna are interpreted in a like sense now. The union of the three Emperors gains additional and immediate weight from the fact that the prospect of quiet and progressive development in the western states of the Continent is becoming more and more obscured."

This allusion to the western states of Europe is significant enough, coming immediately after the Radical elections which have taken place in France, and the *coup d'état* of the Madrid Government against the Permanent Commission of the Cortes. Spain is in a state of complete anarchy. A year ago the supporters of the throne of Amadeus were considered as the most advanced Liberals, but now these very men, Zorrilla, Sardoal, Rivero, are obliged to fly for their lives. The men who are in power in Madrid represent little more than the passions of the Madrilene mob; they cannot hinder the *intransigentes* from entering the houses of suspected persons and from searching for them. Castelar is a sort of Spanish Jules Favre; he writes eloquent despatches, exchanges courteous letters with M. Thiers, and speaks of a Spanish conservative Republic. Elections will soon take place for a new Constituent Assembly, but no party will enter the lists except the party now in power, and the new Assembly is likely to be only too unanimous. It will represent Spain as the Chamber of Amadeus represented it, which means that it will not represent it at all. Spain is on that fatal road on which the Mexican Republic has so long travelled. In the countries of Latin extraction, the word republic does not mean the will of the people, obedience to a constitution which is considered by all parties as the higher and highest law, organization of parties which can legally follow each other in power and need no revolutions to take each other's place: this word means simply the rule of force, the subjection of the conservative, hard-working, honest, laborious millions to an audacious minority, which can make revolutions, draw lists of provisional governments, throw them down from a balcony, disarm the army, and arm the populace.

I think I can perceive two frightful symptoms of decay in the Latin races: two of the most elementary and primitive instincts seem to be abolished—the instinct of self-preservation, and the instinct which teaches the relation of cause and effect. Italy alone seems to have preserved them; and her future is not so dark as that of Spain or of France. Even the Republicans in Italy, such men as Mazzini and Garibaldi, have seen the uses of a national dynasty. The Savoy dynasty gave to Italy, by the marriage of Prince Napoleon with Princess Clotilde, the alliance of Napoleon III., and this alliance helped Italy to conquer Lombardy and to commence the work of unity; the Savoy dynasty was able to form the alliance with Prussia which gave to Italy Venetia and afterwards Rome; the Savoy dynasty keeps the federalist tendencies of Italy subordinate to the great necessity of union. Victor Emanuel, who is not a genius, but who personifies in himself the historical forces of a dynasty, has been able to achieve and is able to defend Italian unity. Those who live in a real republic must always remember that the instruments of government in old countries have been formed by time. What I call the instruments of government are the organs which give vitality to the nation. What are these organs? They are generally a dynasty, an army, and powerful administrations of finance, of justice, of industry, etc. This machinery, in all Latin countries, is all the government, as there is no self-government; if you break it or derange it, all goes wrong. Such was already the case in Gaul under the Roman occupation; when Rome was so threatened on all sides that she was forced to recall the six legions which were constantly located in Gaul, those countries which under the Roman administration had been in some parts very prosperous, became at once the easy prey of the Northern invaders. Federalism in Spain and the Commune in France do not mean any combination like that which ties together the States of America and the Cantons of Switzerland: it means simply the destruction of all the instruments of a centralized government, the return to an atomic state of society which would have no general laws, no national debt, no national army, no national navy; in fact, it means the destruction of the national unity.

A few years ago, the feeling of unity was so strong in France as to admit of neither doubt nor contradiction. All the works of our great historical school, of Augustin Thierry, of Guizot, and others, tended the same way. All the faults, even the crimes, of royalty and afterwards of the Revolution were excusable for this reason, that the result of their efforts had been the constitution of a France united for ever, "une et indivisible." This unity, alas! is now in peril. France has not only lost two provinces which she had possessed for centuries, and which furnished some precious elements

to her nationality; during the war, a curious hostility manifested itself against Celtic Brittany. Gambetta once denounced the poor Mobiles of Brittany in terms which were almost inspired by hatred. In the South, various local leagues sprung up spontaneously, and the most noticeable was the League of the Southeast, composed of the departments of the valley of the Rhone, from Lyons to Marseilles. It is not uncommon now to hear men of the North speak with contempt of the population of the South. The rich departments of the southern part of France, which have hardly ever received any infusion of Celtic or of German blood, are inhabited by a people which has in reality little in common with the more austere, more serious populations of the North. Paris forms in the middle of the North a province in itself; it is the hot-bed of revolutions, the city of popular commotions, of the Saint-Bartholomew, of the siege of Henri IV. and the Council of Ten, of the great Terror of 1793, of the Commune of the 18th March. In a country thus composed nothing can preserve unity but a political law which is not and cannot be constantly threatened. There is, unfortunately, no republican constitution protected by time and by tradition; there is a national dynasty, but, owing to many circumstances, this dynasty has played no part in the recent events. It offers itself to the nation, not as a necessity, but merely as a convenience; and it may even be said that it does not offer itself to the nation at all. The Bonaparte dynasty misunderstood its mission; Napoleon III. had a vague idea that he must promote the material interests of the country, and achieve its unity by the development of the national wealth. His name will ever be associated with the establishment of free trade, with the rebuilding of Paris, with the new Opera, and a hundred other palaces; his mistake lay, as Renan has justly remarked, in his belief that glory was as necessary to France as wealth and equality. He used the sword, and he perished by the sword. What France would ask now from a royal or imperial dynasty is order, the preservation of her wealth and of her unity. She cares little for parliamentary institutions and self-government. She speaks much of revenge, but she does not wish to make war, and looks upon the army merely as on an instrument of order. A man who should know how to assure order for a number of years would soon be looked upon as a god, and he could do almost as he pleased. His parliament would become as subservient as the Corps Législatif of Napoleon III. France needs a Bismarck, who was obliged so long to act with the anti-Liberal party, and who first made Germany united, knowing that once united she would be free, but that disunited she could not gain much from local liberties.

But the pride and the ambition of Thiers have barred the way to a monarchical restoration. The strong minister who could consolidate the broken parts of France around a firm dynasty has not appeared. We have been led into a land of dreams and of illusions: let us make new experiments, let us try something unknown, and make the "loyal essai" of the Conservative Republic. But now it seems as if we should soon be obliged to make the "loyal essai" of the Commune. For what is the meaning of Barodet's election by 180,000 electors in Paris? It means the Commune. And what means Rane, who will next Sunday be elected in Lyons? The Commune. Rémusat, the scholar, the philosopher, who sacrificed his life-long opinions and affections on the altar of the Conservative Republic, has been ill-rewarded by the people. The masses do not understand the shades of politics. Give us a king or give us a republic. But when they speak of the Republic, it must be a republic with, by, and for the Republicans. Even Gambetta is to-day looked upon as a Conservative. The other day, in a court of justice, a man said to the President, who told him that his opinions were *advanced*: "Of course they are; can a Republican ever be advanced enough?" It must be well understood abroad that the Republic here means a steeple-chase of folly, of socialism, of revolution. M. Thiers and a few others have undertaken to reconcile all the partisans of monarchy with their ideal of a Republic. This is easy enough; but how will he reconcile the Republicans with this ideal? This is not so easy. The symptoms are everywhere apparent that they have failed in this undertaking, and that their régime has only been a halting-place of the revolution.

Correspondence.

WENDELL PHILLIPS ON THE COEDUCATION OF THE SEXES.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: A judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts sat before me during Mr. Wendell Phillips's recent speech at the Social Science meeting at Boston, on the admission of ladies to Harvard College. I do not know how he was impressed, but, if he were an honest man like myself, it was something as follows: Judging from Mr. Phillips's remarks, his main argument, were he before the Supreme Court on the question, would rest on the assumption, first, that the early donors to the funds of Harvard College were men who would keep abreast of the public sentiment on the coeducation of the sexes; secondly, that the sentiment of the present time is unequivocally in favor of that method of education in colleges. The Supreme Court, if it were honest, would doubtless assume that the large-hearted benefactors of higher education two hundred years ago should be judged by the sentiment prevailing among the same class now, and would ask Mr. Phillips for his facts. The facts would be that in the older portions of our country millions of dollars have been given during the past twenty years to increase the endowments of institutions already in existence which have given no signs of accepting for themselves the experiment of the coeducation of the sexes, and hundreds of thousands to establish institutions for the higher education of woman exclusively. Whereas, with the exception of Mr. Sage's offer to Cornell University, scarcely anything in comparison has been offered for the cause of higher education at the East with the condition of coeducation annexed.

If, failing here, Mr. Phillips appealed to the West, what better would he have to say? What is there in the charters of Western institutions that ties them, irrespective of its influence on the general educational trust committed to them, to the coeducation of the sexes? Are the endowments of Oberlin, for example, to which so much reference was made at that meeting, pledged unconditionally to the experiment of the joint education of the sexes? Whether any specific conditions to this effect are attached to any endowments of that or of other Western institutions or not, I do not know; but this I know, first, that the board of control consider it within their province to provide, and do provide, separate instruction to the sexes where that is deemed for the general good, as now, for example, in physiology; second, that they consider the boarding-place of the student as so related to the discipline of the school that it must be subject to their approval. If, now, the town grows larger, and the society of the place more heterogeneous, and the religious influences to which President Eliot referred as in part accounting for the success thus far less marked—and experience shows that such religious influences as have served to control the mass of minds there for the generation past are not secured to any place by an absolute law of nature—it is not impossible there will be need of, and there is nothing to hinder the board of trustees from practically, separating the sexes, and making it two schools under one control. So the conditions of the endowments of Western colleges would be of little service in proving Mr. Phillips's proposition.

Prof. Agassiz forcibly said in the discussion under consideration that Harvard did not have half money enough to educate her boys as the cause of higher education in this country demanded. It would be time enough to ask her to make the elaborate preparations necessary for discipline at Harvard under any system of coeducation when she could do her present work well. It seemed to an honest listener that the more honest the Supreme Court, the more likely it would be to concur in the weighty remark of President Eliot, that the authorities of Harvard College have too vast an educational trust committed to them to risk it at present in an experiment so fundamental, and so hesitatingly approved by the public, and so doubtful, as that of the coeducation of the sexes in a university is.

An Honest Layman.

Andover, Mass., May 24, 1873.

[There is one consideration bearing on this question by which it is reasonable to expect the managers of male colleges to be influenced, but of which we have seen no notice in any of the recent discussions. Male colleges are now engaged in training that portion of the human species which does and has always done the heavy work of the world—the legislating, trading, building, fighting, producing, and exchanging. An opinion that women will take a large part in this work has of late sprung up, but it has as yet not got much beyond the stage of tea-table and lunch speculation. To ask any manager of a boys' college, therefore, to try the coeducation scheme, is to ask him to imperil the efficiency of what is unmistakably his business, for the sake of trying an experiment which may or may not lead to something. He can do this if he pleases, but he may be a very sensible man and refuse.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Little, Brown & Co. send us the last volume of their uniform edition of the United States Statutes at Large, embracing those passed at the 3d session of the XLIId Congress. There are the usual indexes to the public acts and resolutions, to the private laws passed at the same session,

and to the treaties and postal conventions, of which the full text is given. ——The London *Practitioner* has added to its already valuable contents a "department of public health," beginning with the number for May. Under the head of "International Hygiene," it states that Turkey, alarmed by the violent outbreak of plague in Persian Kurdistan in 1870, made an appeal to the other European powers which will shortly result in the formation of a mixed sanitary commission, appointed by them with the concurrence of Persia. "To this commission will be submitted, at the suggestion of England, in addition to the question of plague, the further question of the possible danger to Europe of the introduction of cholera by the quicker and more direct route of traffic opened between Persia and Russia, through Transcaucasia to Poti, and thence by steamer to the ports on the Black Sea."—— Noyes, Holmes & Co., Boston, have in press a 'Life of John Warren, M.D., Surgeon in the Revolutionary Army, and First Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in Harvard College,' by Edward Warren, M.D.——G. P. Putnam's Sons will hereafter be the publishers of Dr. Brown-Séquard's *Archives of Scientific and Practical Medicine*, and of his various works on nervous affections. They will shortly issue an American reprint of the London *Science Gossip*.——The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has sustained the executors of the late Dr. Rush in their litigation with the Philadelphia Library, and the result will be the erection of an uncommonly fine fire-proof library building on the corner of Broad and Christian Streets—a part of the town considered not very respectable, and certainly now at some distance from the centre of the best population. As soon as completed, it will be offered to the Philadelphia Library, when the question of accepting the legacy under its peculiar conditions will recur, and perhaps reasons be found for not declining it. ——We have received from the New York Historical Society a catalogue for 1873 of its Museum and Gallery of Art. A large part of this valuable collection—at least the antiquities of Egypt and Nineveh—we hope will one day become the property of the Metropolitan Museum of Art.——Hurd & Houghton announce 'The Isles of Shoals,' by John S. Jenness, illustrated. ——Mr. James E. Munson warns booksellers and the public generally that Mrs. Eliza B. Burns has infringed on his copyright in her recent work on 'Phonic Shorthand.'——We would call the attention of our city readers to the public announcement that Miss Mary Carpenter, of England, the well-known philanthropist, will deliver, by invitation of the National Prison Association, an address on Prison Discipline and Reformatory Treatment of the Young, in the Church of All Souls, on Thursday evening next, June 5. Miss Carpenter is a member of the distinguished family to which Dr. W. B. Carpenter, her brother, belongs, and is a most eloquent and effective speaker.

—No doubt many of our readers have had their attention called to the undertaking of Messrs. James R. Osgood & Co., of Boston, who propose to reproduce, by means of the heliotype process, all the best examples in the Gray collection of engravings in the library of Harvard College, with whatever finer specimens may be loaned them for this purpose by private persons. They have already made considerable progress, their list of prints thus far published containing nearly fifty titles. The artists represented in the collection are mostly those of whom the general public knows but little, but of whom some knowledge is necessary in order to get even a superficial notion of the history of the art of engraving. Thus we have a very good specimen of a Florentine "Niello," supposed to be by Maso Finiguerra; two plates from the series by Mantegna, "The Triumph of Cæsar"; a print by an unknown hand—the Master of 1466—the subject, "Solomon compelled by one of his Wives to worship an Idol"; several of Albert Dürer's works, including his more famous masterpieces, "The Melencolia," "The Knight, Death, and the Devil," "St. Jerome in his Study," "St. Hubert," the "Shield with the Skull," "The Knight and the Lady," and also a copy of the striking etching on iron, "The Great Cannon," which needs to be done over again from a better example. Then, there are a half-dozen specimens of Lucas van Leyden's cold and unimaginative but occasionally interesting art, and also a number of good selections from Rembrandt's etchings. Other copies are from Marc Antonio, Cort, Masson, Van Dyck, and we are promised a great many more. It is hardly necessary to say that we consider this a most useful enterprise. It is true that the artistic value of the heliotype copies is as yet but secondary to their value for study, and unless it be remembered that the conditions for attaining excellence in a publication of this nature are vastly inferior here to what they are in France—where they are nearly perfect—there may be some disappointment in store for those who have been led to expect *fac-simile* copies of the masterpieces of engraving. At their best these copies represent little more than the composition, and the general effect of the lines or of the light and shade. Apparently the heliotype process cannot give depth nor *chiaroscuro*—that "light in dark" which is Rembrandt's superficial charm—nor that clearness of line in which Dürer excelled. The publishers, however, promise us copies of the best examples of these and of other masters that can be procured, and to this end they are anxious to secure the co-operation of amateurs and collectors. They are, as we have reason to know, very much in earnest in the matter, and we trust that there will be sufficient encouragement to make it worth while for them to persevere.

—We do not without diffidence venture to dissent from a conclusion reached by *Nature* in comparing the school founded by Mr. John Anderson on Penikese Island with a fellowship recently offered by Trinity College, Cambridge. What the pecuniary value of this fellowship is we are not informed, but it is offered for natural science, and zoölogy is one of the subjects by which it may be obtained. To obtain it, candidates must send in original papers, published or in manuscript, containing their own observations, experiments, or discussions of scientific questions; and they may be also examined on the subjects of these papers or on kindred topics. In this way, *Nature* thinks, the electors are morally certain to discover "a genuine zoölogist," and "it is difficult to believe that any candidate who, at the time of election, has completed sufficient good work to satisfy the electors, can possibly, on account of its intrinsic interest when he has arrived so far, give up the further pursuit of scientific work." On the other hand, *Nature* seems to predict failure for Prof. Agassiz's Marine Naturalists' School, either for want of pupils, or because these, if secured, will be but "an assemblage of amateur students, whose work, as it must be from the lack of sufficient stimulus to great mental effort, is poor from its want of thoroughness, and therefore comparatively useless in the long run, only encumbering the subject, and leading lookers-on to suppose, from the few results arrived at, that the science is not worthy of deeper consideration." *Nature* is probably by this time aware that Prof. Agassiz receives during the present year as students only persons actually engaged in teaching natural science, and that the applicants have far exceeded the present accommodations of the establishment. The school, therefore, appears to satisfy a general want, and to meet with no lack of enthusiasm, while it is certain of accomplishing a definite kind of good in common with all other normal training-schools. As regards the stimulus which its pupils will have to make the most of their opportunities, we should know exactly what to expect from the influence already exerted by Prof. Agassiz on his classes at the Cambridge Museum, and by Prof. Shaler in his field excursions in geology. In fact, we do not see why the theoretic objections brought against this branch of the Museum do not apply to the Museum itself, whose graduates have thus far done anything but bring zoölogy and biology into disrepute. Whatever the chances may be that the work actually done at Penikese in the long run will not equal in positive value that of the winner of the Trinity fellowship, we are confident that the former will far surpass the latter in its immediate effects on the national interest in science and the willingness of Government to favor scientific enterprises, for which it already enjoys an honorable distinction.

—We have received from Professor Charles Frederick Hartt, of Cornell University, a copy of a paper forming part of the 'Transactions of the American Philological Society for 1872,' which is the precursor of what will doubtless prove a valuable contribution to the philological study of our American aborigines. It consists of notes on the "Lingoa Geral" of the South American Indians, or the modern form of the old Tupí language. It is a tongue still spoken by the various tribes of the Amazonian countries, though destined rapidly to be displaced by the Portuguese, as it itself has displaced the older form of the Lingoa Geral known to the Jesuits. These two languages now differ greatly, Professor Hartt says; and a speaker of modern Tupí would not understand the Tupí in which the old Jesuits preached and wrote, after they had reduced it to writing and made grammars and dictionaries of it. Indeed, it is probable, and almost certain, that when these missionaries designated the Tupí of the Coast as the Lingoa Geral, or general Brazilian language, they did it hastily so far as concerned the Indians of the interior. It is highly reasonable to suppose that in different parts of this vast region many local peculiarities prevailed which distinguished the Tupí of the central and western Amazonian region from that of the coast of Southern Brazil. However that may be, the advance of Portuguese civilization and other causes strongly operative on the speech of barbarous and unlettered tribes, have made the Lingoa Geral of to-day as different from that of two hundred years ago as Italian is different from Spanish, and even more so. Of this modern tongue there has hitherto been no published dictionary or grammar. Five years ago Professor Hartt, who was engaged in preparing a work on Brazilian geology and physical geography, found it necessary to study the indigenous geographical names of the country in order to arrive at their orthography; and as he could get no books upon the subject, he determined to take advantage of a visit made to the Amazonian country in 1870 to acquire a knowledge of the Lingoa Geral. In travelling

he secured whenever possible guides who spoke Tupí, and, using a phonetic alphabet, soon acquired a good-sized vocabulary. As he became somewhat familiar with the language, he "took down from the lips of the natives hundreds of sentences illustrating its grammatical structure, and, finally, having trained two guides to dictate in Lingoa Geral, was able to collect dialogues, stories, legends, and myths." Everything was written exactly as spoken, and afterwards, with the aid of natives, corrected again and again, and in 1871, on a second visit to Brazil, the work was increased and still further revised. The whole is now in course of preparation for the press.

—Curious as it may be, it was entirely to be expected that far away under the equator on the banks of the Amazonian streams the investigator of folk-lore should come upon the same tales that are told to children in nursery rooms under the Arctic circle. The adventure of our Jack the Giant Killer, who challenged the Welsh giant to eat with him, Professor Hartt heard related in the Tupí language in a Brazilian forest: the "kurupíras" are anthropomorphic wood-spirits characterized by reverse feet, who lead the traveller astray, perhaps to destruction, but who, though generally maleficent, sometimes do man a good turn; many myths relate how the hunter has been presented by one of them with unerring arrows that cannot miss the mark. Man may sometimes outwit them; and it is told of one of them that a hunter played on him Jack the Giant Killer's trick, and induced him to cut himself open and thus commit suicide. So, too, the Tupí Oiára, or water-sprite, like the mermaid and lurley of Northern mythology, entices human beings to her home beneath the water. Again, the Amazonian Indians narrate the story of a match at running between a tortoise and a deer. The former stations her relatives along the course at short distances, and beats her antagonist—"a fable found also in Africa and Siam," remarks Professor Hartt; found also in the Sea Islands, we will add, and substantially the fable everywhere found which illustrates the general truth that the race is not always to the swift. The swan maiden the Indians have also; only with them it is a dress of parrot feathers that the spirit lays aside; she is seized by a man before she can resume it, and becomes his wife and the mother of a new tribe. Beast and bird myths Professor Hartt found numerous in the Tupí. One of these is about a second wise tortoise. He wagers with a big fish that he can pull the fish ashore, and then going to a tapir, he wagers that he can pull the tapir into the water. The tapir and the tortoise proceed to the water's edge, where the fish awaits the contest, and the tortoise, tying both of them together with a *sipó*, wins the wager, for, after a long struggle, both fish and tapir confess themselves exhausted by the endeavor which, as each supposes, he has made against the efforts of the perspicacious tortoise. The ibis, in a less ingenious but equally effective manner, cheats the night-hawk:

"Once on a time the night-hawk spoke like people. His shirt was very pretty, because it was so red, but the ibis's shirt was black and ugly. The ibis looked at the night-hawk, and was pleased with the night-hawk's shirt. The ibis came to the side of the night-hawk. 'Lend thy shirt to me,' he said to the night-hawk. 'Why dost thou wish to borrow my shirt?' The ibis answered, 'I wish to amuse myself; and go to dance.' 'Until when?' the night-hawk asked. To this the ibis answered, 'Until three days after.' The night-hawk he took off his shirt, and gave it to the ibis. 'Here it is, do not cheat me; I await thee.' The ibis went away; never did he return; he went completely away from the night-hawk; never did he appear in his sight again. The night-hawk awaited him, but he appeared not. And the night-hawk wept; he cried, and said, 'Ibis, bring my shirt to me!' Always he cried on account of the ibis."

This is why the night-hawk goes clad in sombre attire while the ibis is of gay plumage, and perhaps it is to answer the question, "Why is the ibis red?" that the fable was invented; if so, it goes into a large class—as, for instance, the class containing the fable which makes the aspen shiver because it furnished wood for the cross of Christ; the one which marks the haddock with a thumb-and-finger mark because Saint Peter held him by the right hand and took the tribute money from the fish's mouth with the left, and a thousand other similar fancies, known to more ambitious poets than those of the cave and hut and hearthstone as well as to these. We do not know enough of our Tupí to guess whether the demand of the night-hawk for his shirt resembles his natural cry, and Professor Hartt does not inform us.

—An old mystery has at last been solved, or at any rate brought as near solution as it is likely to be for a long time, by the labors of M. Th. Jung, a staff-officer of the French army. In the archives of the War Department, M. Jung, who has for several years been occupied in historico-military studies, has discovered a mass of documents throwing a great deal of light on the vexed question of the identity of the celebrated state prisoner known as the "man with the iron mask," and establishing his connection with a "vast conspiracy, whose ramifications spread themselves throughout Europe, with the avowed object of taking the life of the King of France." At the beginning of the year 1673, the royal secretary-at-war, Louvois, "was advised of the active preparation of a plot to take the life of the king during his journey from Paris to Maestricht, of which the siege was soon to be opened." Through Père Hyacinthe, one of Louvois's secret agents, it was discovered that the chief of the conspiracy had been in Paris in 1672, but was then (1673) at Brussels, with a band of ten conspirators. Funds for the enterprise were supplied by a certain Groët of Amsterdam, and the "treaty" signed by the conspirators was in the hands of one Abraham Kiffied in Brussels.

"The chief of the band was young and elegant, by birth of Lorraine, formerly captain in the cavalry of the empire. Like all the adventurers of the period, he bore several names. At Paris he was the Chevalier de Kiffenbach, at Brussels the Chevalier des Harmoises. Highly educated for that period, he spoke several languages, lived handsomely, and had the reputation of having carried off the wife of a Bohemian colonel."

Concerning this person, the most minute details are communicated by Père Hyacinthe. On the 27th of March, the Chevalier leaves Brussels.

"Meantime, guards had been placed at all the fords and passages of the River Somme in the neighborhood of Péronne. During the foggy night of the 28th and 29th of March, 1673, a group of horsemen approached one of these passages. The one who appeared to be the chief of the band first struck into the ford, with which he appeared to be familiar. Tall, well-formed, young, he wore a plush doublet ornamented with silver buttons, and a large cloak, whose collar concealed his face. A broad felt hat ornamented with a black plume, soft boots of yellow leather, and a broadsword, completed his accoutrement. He had hardly reached the summit of the opposite bank, where his horse began to shake off the water, when a fire of musketry was opened upon the party, his horse's bridle was seized by several soldiers, and he himself dismounted and bound hand and foot in a few moments. His followers saved themselves as best they could. Taken to the prison of Péronne, he gave his name as Louis de Oldendorff, native of Nimeguen, but his assertions did not accord with the papers found upon his person nor with those contained in his portmanteau. Four days afterward he was at the Bastille."

For twenty years M. Jung traces the prisoner's history through Pignerol, Exiles, Ste. Marguerite, back to the Bastille, where he dies on the 19th of November, 1703. This man was neither Louis, Count de Vermandois, nor Francis of Vendôme, Duke of Beaufort; nor was he the Duke of Monmouth, nor Mattioli, nor a natural son of Anne of Austria, nor Fouquet, Marquis of Belle Isle, nor a twin brother of Louis XIV., nor Avedick, the Armenian Patriarch. Singularly enough, his name was the very name which appears entered at the time of his death on the journal of Du Junca, "lieutenant du roi" at the Bastille, a name in itself of no importance whatever—Marchiel. The importance of this man to the Government seems, from M. Jung's account, to have arisen from the papers found upon him, probably implicating persons high in power. Those who are interested in looking further into the matter may find an interesting essay on the mystery itself, together with a valuable "synoptical table of Iron-mask literature," compiled by Col. James F. Meline, in the June number of the *Galaxy*.

—Last week died Alessandro Manzoni, the most honored and revered name of the century in Italian literature. As poet, dramatist, and historical novelist, he early endeared himself to his countrymen, and perhaps we should not readily find a parallel for the popularity which his *chef-d'œuvre*, 'I Promessi Sposi,' has maintained for nearly half a century during its author's lifetime. He was born in 1784, and witnessed all the painful and all the glorious vicissitudes of the Peninsula in that stormy interval, outliving both of the Napoleonic liberators of Italy, and both his younger compatriots, Cavour and Mazzini, and attending Italian unity in its steady march from Turin to Rome. His death was preceded three weeks (April 28) by that of his oldest son Pier Luigi Manzoni, who passed away at the age of sixty, and who, without ever attaining celebrity as a writer, had for thirty years been a diligent student of the ancient Celtic dialects in France and Great Britain, his design being to connect these studies with the relics of Celtic nomenclature in Northern Italy, his native *pays*. The notes which he has preserved will, it is promised, be collected and published.

THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF PRINCIPAL FORBES.*

As the late Principal Forbes is principally known to the public by his writings on glaciers, we will pass over, as of more limited interest, the sketch of his early life, of his work as a professor and as a university reformer, due to the pen of Principal Shairp, and devote the space at our disposal to a brief review of the glacier controversies in which Forbes, Agassiz, Rendu, and Guyot have played such important parts. As the

* 'Life and Letters of James David Forbes, F.R.S., D.C.L., LL.D., Late Principal of the United College of Saint Andrews. . . . By John Campbell Shairp, LL.D. . . .; Peter Guthrie Tait, A.M. . . .; A. Adams Reilley, F.R.G.S. With portraits, maps, and illustrations. 8vo.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

larger portion of the volume before us is filled with an account of Forbes's Alpine travels, and of his researches into the natural history of glaciers, we give to this question the importance assigned to it by Forbes's biographers.

English readers have thus far heard but one side of the question, thanks to Forbes's zeal as a writer. His numerous articles and letters on glaciers in scientific periodicals, his travels in Norway and the Alps, and occasional papers, have kept his name so constantly before the public in connection with this subject, that he has succeeded in persuading most of his countrymen that he, and he alone, was the father of everything worth knowing about glaciers, and that none of his predecessors are entitled to much credit for what they may have done. His supporters have at last gone so far as to attack Tyndall, the only Englishman who has given credit to the pioneers of the glacial theory, for daring to go back and revive a controversy which the friends of Forbes thought "had long since been extinguished." It is not our purpose to enter into this more recent phase of the discussion further than to thank Professor Tyndall, as every fair-minded investigator will do, for having, in his popular sketches of glaciers, given credit to whom credit is due.

The authors of the 'Life and Letters' of Forbes had, of course, the fullest faith in his "scrupulous and chivalrous honor," thinking that neither the interest of truth nor justice to the dead could suffer such remarks as Tyndall's to pass unchallenged. They have given us, from Forbes's own letters, all that was necessary to show a course of duplicity towards the man with whom, to quote his own words, "he served his apprenticeship in glacier observation," unparalleled in the annals of science. If justice to the dead could not suffer such mild statements as those of Tyndall to pass unanswered, it is high time that the insults which have been heaped upon the living by Forbes himself during his lifetime, and by his friends since his death, should be noticed. Prof. Agassiz, who has been the object of all this abuse, never defends himself against personal attacks; he can well afford to leave to posterity the decision of his claims; but he must pardon his friends if, feeling that they cannot allow such falsehoods and misrepresentations to circulate without reply, they come forward now and make a plain statement of the other side of the question.

There are two kinds of investigations in the solution of the glacial problem—the geological and the physical; of these, the first was approached by the early explorers of the Alps, and was embodied, previous to Agassiz's researches, in the theories of Venetz and Charpentier. In 1836, Agassiz, under the guidance of Charpentier, explored portions of Switzerland, and became satisfied of the general correctness of these views. He continued, in 1837, further explorations of the Bernese Oberland, and, in the opening speech of the Helvetic Society of Natural Sciences, held at Neufchâtel in July, 1837, and of which he was the president, he gave the first account of his theories of glaciers, based upon his recent explorations. Studer, Elie de Beaumont, and Leopold von Buch were present—the ablest triumvirate of European geologists which could at that time be assembled. Agassiz was laughed to scorn. However, having made interesting glacial discoveries in the Jura, he invited the Association to come and see for themselves; but nobody would then acknowledge, what is now universally recognized, that the traces he showed had anything to do with glaciers. The painful position of the young enthusiast, facing the ridicule of the greatest geologists of the age, who, with Von Buch and his followers, were bent upon crushing the views of a "Gelbschnabel" who dared to encroach upon their field, can be easily imagined. Undaunted, however, Agassiz continued, in 1838, 1839, and 1840, to study what the glaciers of the present day really do, and what phenomena can be ascribed to their special agency. In order to accomplish his purpose more thoroughly, he established himself permanently, during his summer vacations, on the glacier of the Aar. Here for nine consecutive summers, and once during the winter, from 1837 to 1845 inclusive, investigations were steadily carried on by Agassiz and his party. Any one who will take the trouble to consult the 'Etudes sur les Glaciers,' published in 1840, can easily see what results they had obtained prior to that date. The bottom and sides of the glaciers had been reached in order to ascertain what mechanical effects the glaciers produce upon the rocks over which they move; measurements had been made, rough, it is true, of the rate of motion of the glacier at different points; the exterior and interior structure of glacier ice had been carefully examined; the moraines and their mode of formation had been discussed; a large number of observations of temperature of the glacier at different depths had been taken; the effect of infiltration of water into the body of the glacier had been watched, and the changes undergone by the snow in the higher regions of the Alps, until it is finally changed into glacier-ice, had been carefully studied. We find, also, the oscillations of glaciers discussed in this work, and the solid foundations laid of the glacial theory as far as the former great extension of glaciers over the larger part of Europe is concerned. To test this theory, Agassiz undertook, in 1840, a journey to Great Britain for the special purpose of hunting up traces of glaciers. He announced his intention publicly in advance; it was received with ridicule, and even *Punch* indulged in good-natured thrusts at Agassiz and Buckland in their search after "moor-hens" (moraines). They went together to the lake regions of England, and to parts of Scotland, and, after they separated, Agassiz extended his rambles to Ireland. The result of this exploration was to prove distinctly the former presence of glaciers in England, Scotland, and Ireland, where no one had ever suspected their existence. A statement of these results, accompanied by a map exhibiting the glacial phenomena of the three kingdoms, was laid before the Geological Society of London at one of their meetings in November, 1840.

It was not strange that to a naturalist like Agassiz the physics of the glaciers should have had at first but a secondary interest. Having, however, once sketched out the great geological features of the theory, he felt the need of more accurate information as to the physical problems connected with glacial phenomena. Not himself a physicist—indeed, without any special training in that direction, he naturally sought the assistance of one of the most eminent physicists of the day, and, finding that Professor Forbes, whom he met in 1840 at the Glasgow meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, was interested in the subject, he invited him to pay him a visit during the following summer at his long-established settlement. Forbes accepted this invitation, and joined Agassiz on the glacier of the Aar in August, 1841. To those who know the circumstances of this little colony, and they were then notorious in scientific circles, and are still well remembered, Forbes's childish dissatisfaction, as expressed in his biography, Appendix B, p. 545, at the presence of others in an investigation which had been organized long before, and carried on systematically during several consecutive summers, is quite incomprehensible.

During the three weeks of Professor Forbes's stay upon the glacier of the Aar, Agassiz turned over to this novice in glacier work, with a generosity but ill requited, all the results of the laborious investigations of the preceding four summers, all his initiative experiments, all his processes, means, and appliances for work, disguising none of the early failures inevitable to new investigations by which future success had been reached, giving him, in short, the advantage of his whole experience on the subject. In a letter addressed to Prof. Forbes by Prof. Agassiz on March 24, 1842, when he first discovered that Prof. Forbes had published independently, as results of his own, the observations made upon the glacier of the Aar during his stay with the Swiss party, he says:

"The idea that in thought you conceived the project of an independent publication did not come to me for an instant; I should have thought I did you injustice by such a supposition."

The following summer (1842), Forbes established an independent station on the Mer de Glace, and, with the advantage of knowing all the preliminary elementary steps which he had learned from Professor Agassiz, he succeeded in making, at comparatively small cost and little outlay of men or means, some decisive measurements, which he published without loss of time. He then compares his own mode of work with that of Agassiz. We leave the reader to judge whether his slur upon the man whose hospitality he had accepted, whose tent he had shared, whose guides and assistants, whose instruments and apparatus of all sorts, had been placed at his disposition, together with all his previous scientific results, is in accordance with that spirit of "scrupulous and chivalrous honor" which his biographers ascribe to him. He writes to his friends in October, 1842, after his first summer of independent glacial work:

"I am not sorry that the world should have an opportunity of comparing the results of Agassiz's mode of working with those of mine. His force consisted of a paid surveyor, a paid draughtsman, a chemist, a geologist, a trumpeter—I know not whom besides."

Unfortunately for Agassiz, he knew not "whom he had besides" when he invited Forbes, who was his own trumpeter, and blew his blast so successfully that he succeeded in persuading his countrymen that he first proved the former existence of glaciers in Great Britain, already clearly shown by Agassiz in 1840; that he had been the first to measure the motion of glaciers, and to discover the true structure of glacier-ice, all of which had been done before he visited the glacier. In concluding the sentence quoted above (page 295 of his 'Life and Letters'), Forbes says, continuing his comparison of himself with Agassiz:

"I avoided society and the disturbances attendant on notoriety, and, with one assistant only, except on rare occasions, have performed all my summer's work—my ordinary expenses being eleven francs a day"!

A laudable economy, no doubt; but he forgets that he had the benefit of the preparatory and more expensive experiments made by Agassiz, and that "the society and the disturbances attendant on notoriety," by which he characterizes the little settlement on the Aar, were not sought by Agassiz. He was a Swiss on his own ground, not unmindful of the claims of hospitality; and though the visits he constantly received were often annoying interruptions, he received them with his natural courtesy.

The chief point of the controversy respecting the work of the summer of 1841 turned especially on a conversation between Forbes and Agassiz respecting certain blue bands present in the ice. These bands had been observed before at various times, and Professor Guyot, who had been constantly associated with Professor Agassiz in his glacial work, made a report upon them to the Swiss Society of Natural Sciences, in 1841, drawn up from observations taken in 1838.

The true nature of these bands remained, and still to this day remains, a mooted point among glacial investigators. It was only after Professor Forbes had left the camp that the most important observations were made concerning them, when Mr. Agassiz followed them into the glacier for a depth of 120 feet. It was in relation to this that he wrote, in a private letter of October of the same year, to Humboldt, that the penetration and direction of the veins of blue ice in the glacier had been among the most interesting results of the summer's work. Some passages of this letter were communicated by Humboldt to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and Forbes immediately claimed the results as his own, and accused Agassiz of a scientific theft. To this Agassiz replied, in a letter printed at the time for circulation among his friends, explaining the circumstances, and never afterwards took any notice of the matter.

From that time forward, however, Professor Forbes claimed as his own the most important results of glacial work both in England and in Switzerland, and he and his friends never ceased to cast slurs upon Agassiz, to impeach his veracity, and to ridicule his mode of investigation, as may be seen throughout that portion of his 'Life and Letters' devoted to the subject of glacial investigation. That a physicist like Forbes should have been able to treat the subject from a dynamical point of view, to make more accurate measurements than the geologists had done before him, is not surprising. Indeed, it would have been astonishing had he not handled the physical side of the subject with comparative ease. We undoubtedly owe him some very shrewd deductions from the physical properties of ice and the theory of heat, and some extremely clever theories which time may prove or disprove; and we have also to thank him for having rescued Rendu's theory from oblivion. But when he speaks of Agassiz as a careless observer who trusts to his guides for his measurements, who brings to his work a happy faculty of taking things for granted, as a man impossible to convince by reasoning, neither an original investigator of glacial phenomena nor a sound thinker upon them, we can leave the accuser in the position of a slanderer, and for justification of the accused refer to his 'Etudes sur les Glaciers,' and the 'Système Glaciaire,' with its magnificent atlas. As a natural consequence of the course of Forbes, it is not astonishing to find in a short life of him written by Geikie, and quoted at length in this volume, such sweeping claims made in his behalf as the discoverer of the former presence and extension of glaciers in Great Britain. Geikie is, as a geologist, bound to know better. He is, or should be, familiar with the history of the subject, and for him to put forth such claims is simply ridiculous.

When we come to Tait's estimate of Forbes's contributions to the natural history of glaciers, and read that Forbes was "the Copernicus or Kepler of this science," that he was the only one "who deserved to succeed," it is difficult not to smile, remembering the record of De Saussure, of Venetz, of Charpentier, of Rendu, of Agassiz, Guyot, and the whole band of Swiss explorers associated with him on the glacier of the Aar, like Merian, Mousson, Escher von der Linth. We cannot help throwing back upon Professor Tait the words in which he sums up his estimate of the work of others in the same field, and saying that his overappreciation of Forbes's glacial work is "absolute nonsense." His estimate of the value of scientific contributions to natural philosophy is more likely to carry weight with geologists than his affectionate appreciation of Forbes's memoirs on glaciers. As to the comparative merits of the glacial investigators, the scientific world will eventually decide the points at issue. The data are accessible to all critics. Tyndall introduced the wedge in his 'Glacier of the Alps,' where he seems to us to have done no more than bare justice to Professor Agassiz, though Professor Forbes and his friends consider even this an infringement upon his rights. The question has been reopened by the injudicious attacks upon Agassiz's veracity by Forbes's biographers, and they will have no one but themselves to blame if the claims of the latter are reduced to their true value by the searching examination to which they will now be submitted. Justice will be done in the end, as it always is eventually in matters of original scientific work, to the true founder of the modern glacial theory.

GREG'S ENIGMAS OF LIFE.*

I.

MR. GREG arrests his readers' attention. He, as it were, "buttonholes" the public, and compels them to give heed to questions to which they often refuse a hearing. The enigmas he proposes are riddles as old as the hills, or, at any rate, as the existence of mankind. The significance of life, man's prospects of progress on this earth and of a future existence elsewhere, are themes which have been discussed in all ages, and which will, in all likelihood, be discussed for all time to come. The lapse of centuries takes nothing from their importance, but in a certain sense it lessens their interest, for the men of to-day are inclined to cast aside the consideration of problems which have taxed the ingenuity of all ages, and which, since they still remain unsolved, may possibly be unsolvable. To these fundamental problems of life Mr. Greg nevertheless has endeavored to bring back the thoughts of the world. The three editions through which his work has run in England are proof of his success; what are the causes to which this success is due? The enquiry is a curious one; the answer to it throws light on the character of a remarkable writer, and on the condition of English and American opinion.

Mr. Greg's success is obviously not owing to any novelty in his subject. His enigmas are, as we have just said, as old as speculation; nor is he indebted to the startling or paradoxical nature of his solutions. He can hardly be said to propose answers to the problems with which he deals. "In the later years of life," he writes, "the intellectual vision, if often clearer, usually grows less confident and enterprising. Age is content to *think* where youth would have been anxious to *demonstrate and establish*; and problems and enigmas which at thirty I fancied I might be able to solve, I find at sixty I must be satisfied simply to propound." One only of the seven essays of which the book consists can be even represented as paradoxical, and the "Non-survival of the Fittest," if it startles a few readers, can hardly appear paradoxical to any person who has reflected upon the nature of civilization and on the true meaning of the theory of natural selection. Nor, again, does Mr. Greg owe much to his style. He writes in good, plain, forcible language which exactly conveys his meaning, but he does not excel in beauty of expression, and he has not the vanity to pretend that he can, after the manner of some popular writers, settle the greatest difficulties by the invention of a new phrase, and supply the place of carefully chosen arguments by the invention of more or less happy epithets. Indeed, neither literary imagination nor imagination of any kind is precisely Mr. Greg's strong point. In some of his theological essays he most unfortunately seems inclined to compete with the writer of 'Revelations' in descriptions of a future life. His success is not such as to make his admirers wish him to indulge further in these laborious flights of fancy. His success, again, cannot be attributed to those qualities in which the most popular modern writers excel. Their strength lies in wide sympathy, insight, and appreciative criticism, and they show great skill in applying to all topics the historical method of criticism. Mr. Greg's strength certainly does not lie in this direction. No one can call him sympathetic. He is keen enough in defending his own positions, but certainly not endowed with insight into the position of his opponents. His treatment of every subject is dogmatic and controversial rather than historical. How an opinion grew up is a matter with which he slightly concerns himself. His main effort is to estimate its value according to his own criteria of truth or falsehood. We doubt, for instance, whether there exists any other modern writer of equal ability who would have dealt with the dogma of the resurrection of the body in the same manner as Mr. Greg. Most critics would have traced the doctrine to its source, and, even if they held it false, have devoted a good deal of pains to explain and, so to speak, justify its existence. This is not Mr. Greg's method of treating what he holds as error. He assaults the dogma boldly, and argues against it with the same controversial energy which he would apply to overthrow the follies of a protectionist. Here, in fact, we come across the secret of Mr. Greg's power. He belongs to a school of thinkers very different from the school who have for a long time been in the ascendant. He represents in many respects the opinions and feelings of the past rather than the present generation. You see, in every line he writes, the friend of Senior and the disciple of that school of which Whately and Senior were distinguished leaders. He lacks some of the merits of authors more in harmony with the sentiment of the time, but, as a compensation, he possesses qualities rarely found in

* 'Enigmas of Life. By W. R. Greg.' London: Trübner & Co; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

modern writers on social or theological topics. These qualities give a peculiar flavor and also a peculiar value to his work.

The main characteristic of Mr. Greg's mind is hardness. Whatever else you may say against him, you cannot call his writings "soft stuff." This intellectual hardness is seen, and, on the whole, to advantage, in his whole attitude towards political economy. That science is an abomination and stumbling-block to sentimentalists of all schools. Sentimental humanitarians denounce it as inconsistent with Christianity. Writers who attack humanitarianism, but are swayed by a curious sentimentalism of their own, deride it as the dismal science. In truth, persons of all classes who appeal to the feelings naturally oppose a science which treats human nature, not as a thing for rhetoric, but as an object for intellectual investigation.

Curiously enough, the constant assault on the doctrines of political economy, as opposed to the natural feelings of mankind, has told and told most unfortunately on economists themselves. A modern treatise on political economy is almost always marked by a strangely apologetic tone. The writer labors to show that there is nothing in his science inconsistent with the most humane sentiments. He throws into the background doctrines which may jar on his readers. He often is inclined to sacrifice logic in order to conciliate sympathy. Mr. Mill's treatise on political economy, for example, is in most respects above all praise, but no candid reader can deny that it is occasionally marred by the author's yielding to sentiment what he would hardly concede to argument. You at any rate miss something in the modern political economist which you find in such a writer as Ricardo, who mixes as little sentiment with questions of rent or wages as he would bring into a mathematical demonstration. Now, Mr. Greg is the sternest of political economists, and is, further, an economist who is not ashamed of the doctrine he professes, but puts it forth fearlessly in its hardest and most uncompromising form. No doubt his zeal for economical orthodoxy, combined with his passion for controversy, leads him into incessant disputes. Novelists, historians, essayists, any one who deviates from the narrow and strict path of economical truth, is sure to be assaulted by "W. R. G." His fervor for true doctrine leads him occasionally astray. He recently, for instance, attacked Mr. Goldwin Smith quite unnecessarily on the ground of supposed false teaching on the subject of luxury. In the hurry of the moment, "W. R. G." used expressions which, until explained away, seemed nearly to commit him to something like economical heterodoxy; and when they were explained away, it appeared that between him and Mr. Goldwin Smith there existed scarcely any difference of doctrine, and that the dispute had arisen simply from a difference of sentiment. Mr. Greg, in fact, really dislikes anything which diminishes the apparent harshness of economical truths. Most writers are under the temptation, in dealing with questions between capital and labor, to let sympathy with artisans who appear at any rate to stand at a disadvantage in conflict with their masters, warp their economical conclusions. Mr. Greg knows no such weakness. His views of political economy have always led him to give his full sympathy to masters rather than to men. He has often corrected the popular error of supposing that the weaker party is necessarily in the right. He has always spoken out with manly boldness, and recently pressed trades-unionists so hard with the force of his reasoning that he was menaced with that physical violence which forms the last argument of artisans no less than of kings. It is, at any rate, a comfort to find a writer who will boldly defend a piece of legislation which has met with more obloquy than any enactment of equal value, and will openly tell his public that "we have spoiled and neutralized the one really scientific piece of legislation which England can boast of—*the new poor-law as first proposed.*"

This eulogy of a most unpopular law is an example of the second and by far the most valuable quality of Mr. Greg's writings. They are marked by a very peculiar outspokenness and directness. In 'The Enigmas of Life' he speaks out in clear, definite language very rarely to be found in theological writings. A detestable habit prevails with the authors of the day of hinting at conclusions which they do not venture directly to draw. There is about even our best and most honest writers a curious tone of mystery and reserve. They seem to hint that there is something behind which they might say if they would, but, for some reason known to themselves, do not care to utter. Now, this reserve, which is mainly an affectation, is injurious to the writer and reader alike. The former flatters himself that he has in reserve for the support of his opinions an unknown force which very frequently has no existence whatever. The latter occupies himself in reading between the lines instead of simply weighing the value of his teacher's direct assertions and arguments. Mr. Greg shows the greatest desire to make the whole of his position clear to his readers. He loses the impressiveness which may be gained by mystery, but he obtains all the more careful hearing from every man of plain common sense. A fair specimen of Mr. Greg's merits and defects may be found in his views on human progress. "Some," he writes, "believe only that a considerable number of human evils may be materially mitigated; others, more buoyant, have convinced themselves that with time, patience, and intelligent exertion, every evil not inherent in or essential to a finite existence may be eliminated, and the yawning gulf between the actual and the ideal at last bridged over. This faith is mine. I hold it with a conviction which I feel for scarcely any other conclusion of the reason. . . . I am not prepared to give up this life as 'a bad job,' and to look for reward, compensation, virtue, and happiness solely to another. I distinctly refuse to believe in *inevitable* evils." This cheerful creed at first sight resembles the sentimental optimism of which we hear enough, and more than enough, in all magazines or papers addressed to what is called the million. But it is at bottom something entirely different from the sentimentality which bases its hopes of indefinite prosperity on the fact that we have invented the steam-engine and the telegraph, combined with the very dubious hypothesis that good-will and good-nature are day by day extending their influence. Mr. Greg's belief is, as he terms it, "a conclusion of the reason," and is based on very distinct and, within certain limits, forcible arguments. He sums up the evils of our social condition under the three heads of disease, destitution, crime, and shows with great elaboration that each one of these three causes of misery can be counteracted. He further examines the agencies which in his opinion threaten to arrest the cause of progress. He finds them to be the alleged inevitable struggle for mere existence, the multiplication of the race from its least eligible specimens—what has been termed the "non-survival of the fittest," and, thirdly, the increasing prevalence of democratic views which tend to place power in the hands of ignorance. After carefully examining each of these obstacles, he gives his grounds for holding that none of them really need stop mankind in their career towards the perfect development of human nature.

Now, the whole of this theory of progress is noteworthy. It stands in singular opposition to the hopelessness which, under all the platitudes about prosperity and development, prevails among the thinkers of the day. This is an age of little faith and of little hope. The enthusiastic hopefulness which marked the commencement of the French Revolution is all but incomprehensible to the present generation. The buoyant cheerfulness which supported the spirit of the liberal writers at the commencement of the century during a generation of opposition has nearly died out. Mr. Greg's peculiarity is that he still retains the tone of manly hope which characterized the school in which he was trained. We confess to a considerable admiration for a writer who boldly and rationally decries the theory of inevitable evils. It is, in our judgment, almost impossible directly to confute the train of reasoning on which Mr. Greg relies in support of his views. Take any one definite evil, such, for example, as drunkenness, and it is impossible to deny that this particular evil may be got rid of; but if each single curse of existence can be warded off, it is very difficult to see why gradually the whole mass of human miseries may not be removed. If any person doubts the validity of this train of reasoning, he can do nothing better than read the chapters in which Mr. Greg has worked it out with a force and amplitude of detail of which no abstract can give a fair conception. Despair at human progress arises in a great measure from looking at all the evils of life in the mass. So regarded, they are enough to crush out all hope from the most hopeful, but if they are taken one by one, even the least sanguine may confess that they are each singly not past a remedy. Mr. Greg's turn of mind inclines him to reduce every question with which he deals to a clear definite form, and hence to get rid of that intellectual vagueness and mistiness which often obscure our views of social questions. Hence, in treating of progress, he has been able to divest a difficult question of a good deal of its difficulty, and by taking facts singly and examining them carefully, to produce solid argumentative grounds for a belief that sounds at first sight like the expression of irrational optimism.

Mr. Greg's views of progress are, in our judgment, in the main sound; but they indisputably exhibit, if not the weakness, certainly the limitation of his intellectual vision. You cannot directly combat his arguments, but you soon see that he has omitted several considerations which would at once be urged by a disbeliever in human perfectibility. Mr. Greg does not understand, and therefore does nothing to meet, the sentiment which lies deep in most person's minds, that all the improvements in society which imagination can picture are but too likely to leave untouched the contrast between the infinite nature of man's desires and the very finite nature of the objects he can actually attain, which is the source of half the real misery of the world. But Mr. Greg further fails to observe that the method of piecemeal reform which he recommends, reasonable though it appears, has never throughout history been in reality put in practice. His inattention to the

historical method of dealing with social problems blinds him in this matter to what would be obvious enough to far less vigorous thinkers. He himself points out that the advance of mankind has not gone on at an equable pace, but has in fact been made at two or three short periods of extraordinarily rapid progress. What he does not notice is that these periods have always been times of great intellectual or rather spiritual excitement. In other words, material progress seems to depend on what may be termed moral crises, in which the world is transformed by enthusiasm for some idea. What you want, in fact, at bottom for the reform either of individuals or of nations, is not petty rules for improvement but a new spirit; but this new spirit is not to be obtained by any maxims which thinkers can invent or propound. Mr. Greg fully appreciates the maxims by which men ought to be guided in their advance towards virtue; but he does not see the necessity for that impulse, spirit, or enthusiasm, call it by whatever term you please, which can raise these truisms into truths. He fails, in fact, to grasp exactly what hosts of very inferior writers perceive—the great part, that is to say, played in human progress by sentiments which cannot be reduced to rule. This defect must be noted, yet it rightly detracts but little from Mr. Greg's influence. Hundreds of writers on social or theological topics can appeal with effect to the sentiments of the public. Mr. Greg addresses the understanding of his readers; and readers a little sickened of sentimentality naturally pay heed to a teacher whose arguments may not be irrefutable, but who has the great merit of relying for success not on rhetoric but on honest reasoning. This is a great and rare merit in a political writer. It is even a greater and rarer merit in one who deals with theology. Hence the religious or theological portion of Mr. Greg's work is that which will make most impression on the public mind; but this is a subject which requires another article for its separate treatment.

Bits of Talk about Home Matters. By H. H. (Boston: Roberts Bros.)—The first half of this book bears a close and consistent relation to the subject announced on the title-page; in the last half the chapters, essays, or "bits of talk" pertain rather oftener than not to the general conduct of life, with little obvious or very immediate reference to home and home life. Our author's chief concern is with the treatment of children, and her remarks are addressed to (not to say aimed at) a class whose means permit them to take summer board in the country, to go abroad and settle in English lodging-houses, to burn maplewood fires, to keep saddle-horses, and frequent the opera; in short, to gratify most of their wants. What first strikes the reader with surprise is that this class is thought to stand in any special need of censure for cruel and oppressive treatment of their children; and his surprise is not diminished when he reflects that the same class has always furnished the examples of what foreigners are accustomed to regard as a very lax and *laissez-aller* sort of family discipline in this country. Among them, if among any class, we have had pointed out, and usually with the intimation that we ought to blush for it, that irreverence of youth for age, that Republic of the Family as 'H. H.' styles it, that disregard of authority even when authority is asserted, which have made the American spoiled child notorious and highly disreputable. In fact, the contrast between the independent and expansive "training" of the American nursery and the repressive system of the English, is one of the commonplaces of observation on the part of American travellers in the mother country. It is, too, but a few years since we were partly amused and partly disgusted by some frank revelations by the British matron of the way in which, with her own hand, she "wallopped" her grown up daughters. We thought then, and probably said in our newspapers, that we had got beyond all that; that domestic corporal punishment, at least in all well-bred American families, was a thing of the past, as much so as flogging or "tunding" in our public schools. However, 'H. H.' is evidently convinced to the contrary, and opens her fire with a harrowing tale of child-murder under the guise of correction by a Presbyterian minister in Western New York. We have the greatest sympathy with her feelings on this matter, and are ready to maintain with her that blows inflicted by a parent on a child are an indignity to which the one ought not to stoop nor the other be subjected. We hold it to be sound doctrine that constant appeals to the reason of a child, unfailing cheerfulness, and tact in averting disappointment and collision are the best guaranties of his good behavior, and we should recommend 'Bits of Talk' for its examples of the application of this doctrine but for the unfortunate use of them as evidence of the infallible working of the rule laid down, as well as for the untenable positions into which her abhorrence of violence has led the author.

Carrying into effect the principle of Christian charity and non-resistance, the late Rev. S. J. May once invited to ride with him on the highway a wayfarer who he felt convinced had laid plans to assault him, perhaps kill him. No doubt he acted wisely as well as humanely, but it would be absurd to recommend the same course in similar circumstances as certain to meet with the same success whenever tried, as if there were not ruffians whom no kindness could melt, who are insensible to gratitude, and who would not hesitate to improve the advantage afforded them by their victim. A rule is not necessarily to be abandoned because of its exceptions, but the exceptions must be admitted and provided for. This is precisely what 'H. H.' is unwilling to do. After advancing the very doubtful proposition that a child ought *never* to be reproved in the presence of others, she illustrates it with an excellent instance of tact in a case where reproof seemed inevitable. A child instead of being sent away from table is made apparently to excuse himself. "'But what would you do,'" asks 'H. H.' of the mother afterwards, "'if he were to refuse to ask to be excused?'" Then the tears stood full in her eyes. 'Do you think he could,' she replied, 'when he sees that I am only trying to save him from pain?'" We feel bound to answer that mother, through 'H. H.', that many a Charley as good as hers could do just that thing, and we will add that we should neither despair of him nor perhaps think the worse of him. Is it, indeed, not proverbial that children impose more upon their parents than upon others not so near to them in their affections, behaving with perfect propriety among strangers, and taking license to be unruly and mischievous under their mother's eyes and in spite of her never so gentle and sagacious protest? This is an everyday paradox which requires no doctrine of natural depravity to explain it. The question of flat disobedience being raised (and not answered by a flood of tears), it is interesting to see what 'H. H.' would do with it. She gives us in a subsequent chapter another proposition, to the effect that a parent has no right to require anything of a child simply *because* he is its parent. In other words, she brushes aside the notion of filial duty, of a habit of obedience, any further than a child can be made to assent to the justice and reasonableness of each act required of him. In the relation between parents and children she finds nothing reciprocal. "The truth is," she says, "all the obligation, in the outset, is the other way. We owe all to them." Her plan, therefore, is to substitute "influence" for authority or command. But take the case just cited. The mother's influence failed to check with repeated glances her boy's rudeness at table. What did she summon to her aid—more "influence"? No; she enforced her parental authority. Influence for the long run, authority for the special emergency. "Helplessness in the hands of power—that is the whole story," says our author. But then, to cite another of her examples, what else have we when she advises daily discipline of children in choosing?—"Will you have the apple, or the orange? You cannot have both." Power offers the alternative, helplessness accepts but cannot revoke. Of the same thing a much more striking instance is given, quite unconsciously, in the chapter on "breaking the will." A four-year-old who had great difficulty in pronouncing the letter G, and at last refuses to say it any more, is taken in hand by a "wise mother" after she feels she cannot avoid the issue. She keeps him in the room and stays with him herself for three days before he yields, which he does at last. We are quite willing to applaud this mother, but only because she made a judicious use of power over helplessness, and because she proved to her son that her will was stronger than his, and that in any conflict between them his must give way. 'H. H.' may, if she pleases, treat this as Willy's "fight with himself" and not with his mother's superior wisdom as well as power, and as an example of not "breaking the will." To most of her readers, we are sure, it will appear in its true light.

We have already overstepped the limits we had proposed for this review, which would be incomplete, however, if we did not add that the chapters on children are fruitful of suggestion and are unexceptionable in spirit, as they are agreeable in style. We have indulged thus freely in criticism because if, on the one hand, we would not do anything to bolster up the régime of domestic harshness and violence, on the other we would not obscure the difficult problem of education with mistaken sentimentality and illusions based on the deception of words. Perhaps even between the tyranny of the child as so often exhibited in France, and the tyranny of the parent, we should prefer the latter. That it exists in this country to the extent implied by 'H. H.' we do not believe; and if called upon for evidence that she has deceived herself, we should draw it from her chapter on the "awkward age"—an age surely known in all walks of life, in the kindliest as well as in the rudest households, but which our author boldly declares has nothing to do with "the thinness of cheeks, the sharpness of arms, the sudden length in legs and lack of length in trousers and frocks," but only with the lack of consideration and courtesy with which children turning adults had previously been treated.

Scintillations from the Prose Works of Heinrich Heine. I. Florentine Nights. II. Excerpts. Translated from the German [with a preliminary

chapter on Heine] by Simon Adler Stern. (New York: Holt & Williams; pp. 185, with Index.)—This new volume of the Leisure Hour Series is a capital addition to the growing harvest of German classics made part of our own literature by successful translation. That difficult task is increased a hundredfold in Heine's case, where the man's German nature was so curiously altered by his love of French ideas, and yet Mr. Stern has succeeded in putting Heine into an English dress, and in doing it so well that those who read the great original will still find pleasure in seeing with what patient ingenuity and studious zeal our uncouth English has been subdued to the interpretation of the wittiest of Germans and the most delicate of word-painters in French or German. Mr. Stern's preliminary chapter can fairly hold its own as against Matthew Arnold's popular essay on Heine, and he has perhaps erred in quoting so largely from it, when he shows such familiarity with the intricacies of Heine's literary character, in which so much of good and bad, of earnest jest and frivolous seriousness, is confused and confounded. The 'Florentine Nights' recall, but not in the way of mere imitation, Goethe's 'Wilhelm Meister.' Carlyle's success in translating that into the unfamiliar English of nearly fifty years ago, when German was a little-known tongue, is nearly equalled by the grace and easy flow of Mr. Stern's translation of Heine's least Gallicized German. The story of the 'Florentine Nights' is charming in its vague and uneventful wandering, with its strong suggestion of the great original, the 'Arabian Nights,' and its still stronger contrast. Yet even in this love-tale occur some of the best examples of Heine's biting vein. His description of speaking English has often been imitated, but never improved: "Englishmen take a mouthful of consonants, chew them, crush them, spit them out again, and they call that speaking!" 'Scintillations' is a rather fanciful literary title, and even "Excerpts" does not fairly describe that part of the book. In the translation there are, along with some inelegancies of English, rather too many French phrases, not a few of which are almost technical, and therefore likely to pass uninterpreted. The faults of the press are few, but in a second edition we should hope an effort would be made to correct the punctuation and such evident misprints as "Pallagoni" and "Wantram."

Exercises in Greek Prose Composition. (By Elisha Jones. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1872.)—Scholars who in their younger days have been obliged painfully to toil through the old Arnold's 'Greek Prose Composition,' of which the plan was a mystery and the details were mistakes, will be happy to examine this work, of which Part First, for beginners, is now issued. Our impression of it is a very favorable one. The constructions which the author introduces are well illustrated by the Greek sentences chosen as models: Chapter XX., on the Indirect Discourse, seems particulary satisfactory in this respect. The thorough teacher will not feel compelled to give his class English sentences supplementary to those which our author has provided, nor yet to score out others because they have nothing to do with a working knowledge of Greek writing.

One exception to the work we must take. Each page, beautiful in all other respects, bristles with grammatical references. We are sorry that the student is told to consult his grammar in so many instances where the principles should be quite in the boy's possession already.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*	
Austin (G. L.), Life of Franz Schubert	(Shepard & Gill)	$1 25
Browning (R.), Red Cotton Nightcap Country: Poetry	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Castlemon (H.), The Sportsman's Club in the Saddle	(Porter & Coates)	1 25
Colesworthy (D. C.), The Year: Poetry	(Lee & Shepard)	
Cooke (J. E.), Her Majesty the Queen	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 50
Dana (A. H.). Inductive Inquiries in Physiology, Ethics, and Ethnology	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	1 25
De Bernardy (C. W.), Hand-Book to Vienna and the Exposition	(Porter & Coates)	1 50
De Vere (Prof. M. S.), Modern Magic	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 00
Dictionary of the Derivations of the English Language	" "	1 00
Dictionary of Synonyms of the English Language	" "	1 00
Edwards (Mrs. Annie), A Vagabond Heroine	(Sheldon & Co.)	1 25
Heine (H.), Scintillations	(Holt & Williams)	1 25
Helmsley (W. B.), Hand-Book of Hardy Trees, Shrubs, etc	(Estes & Lauriat)	7 50
Leaves from a Trooper's Diary	(Philadelphia)	
Lester (J. E.), The Atlantic to the Pacific	(Shepard & Gill)	1 50
Life, Journals, and Letters of Dean Alford	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
May (Sophie), Little Grandfather	(Lee & Shepard)	
Monroe (L. B.), Public and Parlor Readings	" "	
Morford (H.), Short-Trip Guide to Europe	(Sheldon & Co.)	
Moorman (Dr. J. J.), Mineral Springs of North America	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Nunez (H. Helen), Leisure Moments: Poetry	" "	
Putnam's Elementary Science Series, 6 vols	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	0 75
Ruskin (J.), The Poetry of Architecture, etc	(John Wiley & Son)	1 50
Saint Germane (J. T. de), Only a Pin	Catholic Publication Society)	1 00
Schumann (F.), Formulas and Tables for Architects and Engineers	(Warren, Choate & Co.)	
The Iron Hand, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	1 00
The Cumulating Fair: Poetry, swd	(Warren F. Draper)	0 25
The Men of the Third Republic	(Porter & Coates)	1 75
Warren (S. E.), Free-hand Geometrical Drawing	(John Wiley & Son)	0 75
Weylland (J. M.), The Man with the Book	(Nelson & Phillips)	
Whitney (Mrs. A. D. T.), The Other Girls	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	2 00
White (Rev. R. B.), Reason and Redemption	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Why She Refused Him	" "	
Wuttke (Dr. A.), Christian Ethics, 2 vols	(Nelson & Phillips)	

Fine Arts.

THE DI CESNOLA COLLECTION.

TEMPLE-RELICS FROM GOLGOI.—I.

THE trustees of the Metropolitan Museum, finding that the enormous contribution of Gen. di Cesnola could not be completely unpacked during the season, and having got into shape an excellent loan collection of art and *bric-à-brac*, began to exhibit last Monday, in their new temporary quarters, No. 128 West Fourteenth Street, with such material as was ready. This was clearly the best course, as, if the autumn months had been waited for, their opening would have lacked the advantageous presence of the discoverer, who returns to his consulate in September. But it inflicted necessarily a great wrong upon the exhibition of antiquities, depriving it of an *éclat* in its first outburst which can never be regained now. The most imposing portion, the statuary, is but partly unboxed, and no completeness in the cabinets of glass or pottery can quite atone for the want of *esprit de corps* which affects as yet these Cypriote colossi; they are now standing, as old dramas say, dispersedly, in a loitering company about the stairs, into whose ranks an occasional god floats up out of the earth, as the professional moulders harmonize his members in a unity of heated cement, and send him warm from the basement. Any attempt to reconstruct the interior of the Golgoi emple, whose dimensions and furniture are nevertheless so completely in our possession, is not undertaken as yet by the Museum, and must be made by the visitor's mind, after bringing together much scattered material. Yet just as it is, the assemblage is in many respects one of the most captivating and stimulating in the world.

We have kept pace to some extent in the *Nation* with the discovery and acquisition of these remains; and our article of January 23 last, quoting General di Cesnola's own description of the ruins at Golgoi as he found them, precludes the need of much preliminary setting in order. We simply remind the reader that on the night of March 6, 1870, the American Consul was informed of the unearthing of a colossus and some minor pieces in the environs of Athienau (an inland town back of Larnaca), where the French antiquarian De Vogüé had already dug with slight result. Immediately leasing the ground in the name of his chief dragoman, our representative began his explorations, and by excavating towards the valley, instead of uphill, from the trenches of De Vogüé, he quickly struck the foundations of the ancient temple. This sanctuary soon yielded its whole contents to the lucky explorer, among which were a thousand statues. It was a small shrine, only thirty feet by one hundred in the length of its sides, buried about two yards deep in a hard clay apparently partly formed from its own walls of unburnt brick; no part of the building above the foundations was preserved, and bases of columns were found only at the doorways; its earthen walls, wooden pillars, and perhaps wattled roof had decayed, while the statuary, sharply broken as if by an earthquake or a sudden iconoclasm, was mostly adjustable with ease, and perfectly fresh in surface. Into this limited quadrangle the hieratic art of Phœnicia, Egypt, Greece, Assyria, and probably Persia had settled through an incalculable period of time, sometimes sharp in type and definition, sometimes mutually mingled, with the most incalculable inflections and disturbances. This populace of images now bodily in the midst of us is the noblest part of the booty from Cyprus.

No figure distinctly assignable as the divinity-in-chief has been found; the supreme patron cannot even be named with certainty, but everything points to the worship of Aphrodite. M. Georges Colonna Ceccaldi, a youthful amateur who was present at a part of the work of excavation, and who has published several reports in the *Revue Archéologique*, professed to recognize in a tapering cylinder lying among the fragments the base of a cone, emblem of Venus, adored at Paphos in a similar shape, and of whom the creed was brought to Golgoi by Golgus, son of Adonis and the goddess. This remains conjectural, but meantime the honors of the statuary are borne off by figures not divine, but those of priests or worshippers. Upon these, differing as they do from all sculpture elsewhere obtained, and of periods incalculably remote, the attention is fixed, in a perfect maze of curiosity, study, comparison, suggestion, reminiscence, and surmise.

One head, that of the colossus *par excellence*, especially excites wonder and conjecture: from its enormous almond eyes, which, if properly placed, would hang in the air between thirty and forty feet above the ground, it is hard to say how many centuries look down upon us. The fragments of the statue to which it belonged have not been identified with certainty, and it is seen as the enormous capital to a very modest shaft. Its necessary alti-

tude would seem almost too great for the height of so small a building, and although it was found within the walls, it may possibly have been before reversal a watcher without the door. In this head the Cypriote type, which we soon learn to trace by a comparison of the other sculptures, is seen in its blankest distinctness and most exaggerated measure. It is singular and intelligent, but the expression seems one of the superficies only; it is impossible to say what all these smiling faces around us are really thinking about. The colossus in question has long flat eyes, receding forehead, and acute facial angle, the weakness of the chin disguised by the ample fan of a beard, which, though covered with a bag, reveals the four ringleted locks in which it is divided; the nose is swelled, slightly aquiline, and pointed; Assyrian curls appear under the edge of the cap, which is that of a large number of the statues, and similar to the one worn in Cyprus to this day. It is a close bonnet, fitting to the head, and running up to a point; in this case, the jugular flaps, which might be drawn down over the ears, are returned closely over the cap; in other statues the same jugularies are tied in front with an ornamental knot, and the point is often decorated with the head of an animal. The mouth of the giant is fixed in a half-moon smile, common to most of the statuary. This eternal rictus of a thin flat lip on all the archaic faces present begins, after a detailed examination of the museum, to haunt the mind. From its rigidity it is, even when unmalicious, not reassuring. It bears a slight resemblance to the expression in archaic Greek sculpture; but what is very curious is that, for a perfect correspondence, we must go completely over to the early art of Italy. It is Etruria, in figures such as those mortuary reclining ones from Cervetri preserved in the Campana room of the Louvre, which yields us these receding foreheads, acute profiles, and all-promising amiability. This correspondence is an item of evidence in the theory skilfully maintained by our correspondent, Mr. Stillman, of the identity of the Etruscans with an ancient race of builders and sculptors who carried the tide of primitive art eastward through Greece, the other Mediterranean islands, and Asia Minor. A curious difference exists, though, in the permanence of their stock, as upon the mainland or insulated. No modern Pelasgic (Etrurian) faces are to be found in Italy; but in the island of Cyprus the type is most strikingly preserved, and the workmen of General di Cesnola—acute, subtle, bland, and none the worse for a little watching—dug up in many cases their own portrait busts at Golgoi, three or four thousand years old, and strikingly like. The photographs, retained by the explorer, of indigenous islanders are incontrovertible proofs of descent and identity.

The colossal head above noted, on which Egypt, Babylon, and Assyria seem to have severally pressed a chisel, is of a date extremely hard to approximate. But behind it in the museum, and to the left, stands the greater part of a figure which may be almost immeasurably older. It is Egyptian in general character, and like the giant seems to have been smoothed by the effacing influence of time; complete, it would be perhaps nine feet high. The hair is thickly clubbed, descending to the shoulder; the ear, as always in Egypt, is opposite the eye; the shoulders and pectorals are perfectly Egyptian, and adorned with the triple collar of royalty; but the face is not without that expression of a reserved meaning common to the true Cypriote countenances, and a bag is indicated for the beard, which, however, does not trespass beyond the regular oval of the chin; there is a belt set with stars, and flaps of short drapery cover the thighs above where they are broken off. It is in relation to figures of which this is a marked example that the eminent Keeper of Greek and Roman Antiquities in the British Museum, Mr. C. T. Newton, hazards the conjecture:

"Are any of them memorials of that earlier subjection of Cyprus (the Kefa of hieroglyphic texts) which, as may be inferred from Egyptian monuments, had taken place as early as the reign of Thothmes III. [about 1500 B.C.], or even earlier?"

Statues of the heroic size may be assigned to a situation in the temple forming a double row along the nave; the pedestals were discovered in position, generally furnished with sockets to receive the base of the statues, from which posture the latter seem to have been violently overthrown, with the effect of breaking them above the feet. The large figures are finished only in front, being in fact alto-reliefs on a flat slab; when set up, they were placed against a wall, or back to back, for which arrangement broad-topped pedestals were formed, with a double socket.

The Egyptian treatment is very common among these figures, though not in a single instance perhaps does a statue cause the veritable Egyptian illusion. The most obvious explanation seems to be that a succession of Cypriote nobles or kings, at an epoch when the island was a dependency of Egypt, erected their votive statues in the temple, draped, except in small ineradicable details, according to the fashion of their conquerors. A similar solution is obvious for the marks of Assyrian influence.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MAY 26, 1873.

WALL Street has rarely witnessed a duller week than the one just past. Money has remained easy, the rates on call loans ruling between 5 and 7 per cent. throughout the week, while money was loaned as low as 4 per cent. The ease in money has naturally stimulated the demand for commercial paper, although business in it has somewhat decreased, owing to the fact that most of the paper for sale at high rates was taken off the market, and holders of that now remaining are indisposed to sell except at comparatively low rates. The suspension has taken place of a number of large firms comprising a lumber combination, that of Messrs. Dodge & Co., of this city being the most important; the suspensions in question seem to have been brought about by a combination of circumstances such as the late severe stringency in the money market, the high freights on the Lakes, and the unusual backwardness of the season; the firm was hampered by being obliged to carry along other houses in the combination who were weak, and whose paper we hear bore the endorsement of Messrs. Dodge & Co. No doubt seems to be felt that, if a reasonable extension is given, most of the firms that have suspended will be able to pay everything, and that, after having done so, some of them will have a large surplus. The aggregate liabilities of the combination are stated to be as high as $9,000,000.

The Bank of England lost £440,000 in bullion last week, but no further change was made in the discount trade, which remains at 6 per cent. as last reported. Up to Saturday, foreign advices show a better and more settled feeling both in London and Germany; the effect that may be produced by the political disturbance in France remains to be seen.

The weekly statement of the city banks is unfavorable. The deposits and circulation have increased $1,932,800, and the reserve has fallen off $415,600, which is equal to a net loss of $898,800 to the banks for the week.

The following is a comparison of the past with the preceding week:

	May 17.	May 24.	Differences.
Loans	$278,074,400	$279,846,300	Inc. $1,771,900
Specie	20,698,900	20,632,600	Dec. 66,300
Circulation	27,489,200	27,493,800	Dec. 4,600
Deposits	207,834,100	209,762,300	Inc. 1,928,200
Legal tenders	43,102,200	42,752,900	Dec. 349,300

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	May 17.	May 24.	Differences.
Specie	$20,698,900	$20,632,600	Dec. $66,300
Legal tenders	43,102,200	42,752,900	Dec. 349,300
Total reserve	$63,801,100	$63,385,500	Dec. $415,600
Circulation	27,489,200	27,493,800	Inc. 4,600
Deposits	207,834,100	209,762,300	Inc. 1,928,200
Total liabilities	$235,323,300	$237,256,100	Inc. $1,932,800
25 per cent. reserve	58,830,825	59,314,025	
Excess over legal reserve	4,970,275	4,072,475	Dec. 898,800

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$240,949,100	$38,897,200	$279,846,300
Specie	18,592,000	2,040,000	20,632,600
Legal tenders	37,623,200	5,129,700	42,752,900
Deposits	180,489,600	29,272,700	209,762,300
Circulation	27,450,800	43,000	27,493,800
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	27 3-100 p.c.	24 46-100 p.c.	26 72-100 p.c.

Nothing but dulness has been felt in the stock market. Beyond the fluctuations in a few speculative stocks, like Western Union and Pacific Mail, the changes have been unimportant. The topic of interest was the probable result of the approaching election for officers of the Pacific Mail S. S. Co. We gather from the various conflicting rumors regarding it that Jay Gould holds the "whip hand," and that upon his vote depends the result. People who ought to know better try to reason that in the event of his gaining control of the Company, the price of the stock will go down, and bankruptcy and ruin follow his administration of its affairs; from what we have seen of Gould's management of companies, we rather think that if it suits his interest to try and improve the property of any that he controls, he will do so—if not, then take Erie for example. Western Union has been quiet, and the parties operating for a rise are resting on their oars and waiting apparently for something to turn up, the present dull state of the general market being such that it is useless to try the "washing" process for the purpose of stimulating speculation.

The investment stocks keep pace with the dulness in other stocks. We notice that there has been a falling off in the price of Chicago, Burlington and Quincy. It is likely that the decline has taken place owing to sales made by owners who are dissatisfied with the policy of the management in not buying up the bonds of branch roads which were placed among the stockholders of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy during the last few years, and which the Company agreed to purchase every year with the earnings of the branch roads after paying interest. The agreement was that 40 per cent. of these earnings should so be used and the neglect of the Company to carry out the agreement has caused general dissatisfaction. New Jersey Central and Delaware, Lackawanna and Western are firm, with a good investment demand for the former.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending May 24, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100⅜ 100⅝	100¼	100⅜ 101	100⅜ 100⅞	100⅜ 100⅜	100⅜ 100½	48,500
Lake Shore	90¼ 90⅝	90¼ 91	90⅜ 91⅛	90⅜ 91	90½ 91	90⅝ 90⅝	70,700
Erie	61⅜ 62½	62½ 61¼	6 ¾ 64	63 64½	63⅛ 64¼	63 63¼	70,900
Do. pfd.	75	72 73	74	73 73¾	73⅜ 75	....	....
Union Pacific	30⅜ 31¼	30⅜ 31⅛	30¾ 31	30⅝ 31	30½ 31	30½ 30⅝	24,600
Chi. & N. W.	 80	....	75	....	75½	....	....
Do. pfd.	85½ 86	84¼ 84¾	84¾ 85	85 85¼	85	....	1,800
N. J. Central	104¾ 105	104¾ 105	104¾ 105	105	105¼ 105½	....	200
Rock Island	08⅛ 108⅝	108⅜ 108⅞	108½ 108⅜	107¾ 108⅜	107⅜ 108⅜	107¾ 108	19,000
Mil. & St. Paul	54½ 55¼	54⅞ 55¼	54⅝ 55¼	54½ 55⅜	54¼ 55½	54 54¼	12,900
Do. pfd.	71⅜ 73	72¼ 74	72 73⅜	72½	72½ 72⅜	....	300
Wabash	69½ 69¼	69 69⅜	69 69½	68⅜ 69	68⅜ 68⅝	68½ 68⅝	3,300
D. L. & Western	102⅜ 103	102¼	102⅞ 103¼	103½	103⅝	103⅜ 103½	6,000
B. H. & Erie	2⅜	2¼ 2⅜	2⅜ 2⅜	2½ 2⅝	2⅜	....	3,600
O. & M.	42 42½	42 42½	42 42½	41⅜ 42⅜	41⅜ 42¼	41⅜ 41⅜	23,200
C. C. & I. C.	30 30⅜	30¼ 31	30½ 31	30 31⅛	30½ 31⅛	30¼ 30½	21,700
W. U. Tel.	85⅝ 86⅛	85⅜ 86⅜	85½ 86½	85¼ 86	85⅛ 86	84⅜ 85⅛	99,200
Pacific Mail	45 47⅜	44⅜ 46½	44⅜ 48⅜	44¼ 46⅜	45¼ 46⅜	45 45⅜	206,700

The foreign demand for United States bonds continues as active as ever, and the demand is still greater than the supply. The total amount shipped since April 1 is stated to be $15,000,000, the 5-20's of 1867 constituting the bulk of the shipments. Prices are strong on a basis of 121½ to 121¾ for 1867's.

The Gold market has attracted considerable interest, owing to the fact that a leading operator in stocks has for a time transferred his interest to the Gold Room. The short interest in gold is estimated as high as $40,000,000, and this is said to be the basis upon which a bull movement is to be inaugurated by the person referred to. The short interest is pretty well divided between the foreign bankers, the importers, and speculators. The impression prevails that cash gold will be made scarce, and that the shorts will be compelled to pay "shaves" for its daily use and cover maturing contracts falling due within the next two or three weeks. The *Daily Bulletin* of to-day says:

"It would seem that there is no article about which buyers and sellers are so prone to run into extremes as gold. After a steady advance in the price from 112 to close upon 120, upon considerations which appear to have commended the assent of a majority of those directly interested in the variations of the premium, affairs appeared to be taking a turn favorable to a reaction. The exports of produce showed a flattering gain upon those of last year; there was a steady demand for our securities from London, in the face of a violent panic at Vienna; the advance of the Bank of England rate of discount to 6 per cent. failed to depress our bonds at London, and the rates of sterling bills on this market immediately declined; these things caused operators, foreign bankers, and merchants to jump to the conclusion at once that the time for a decline in the premium had come, and simultaneously all became sellers of gold which they did not possess, but which they had to borrow in order to make their deliveries. Thus, within two or three days, a 'short' interest was created in the market far exceeding in amount the whole supply on the market. These excessive sales are likely to defeat the very decline which the sellers had anticipated. It matters little what may be the existing conditions affecting intrinsically the value of gold when the speculative situation is of such a character as this. If a clique holds the entire supply, and has it loaned out, it has it in its power, by calling in the loans, to compel the borrowers to pay any rate of interest to keep up the loan, or any premium to purchase for a settlement. From all we can learn of the present speculative situation of the market, it would seem that another Black Friday may occur at any time."

The imports for the week amounted to $7,105,811 general merchandise, and $1,497,417 dry goods, making a total of $8,585,218. The shipments of specie were unimportant, and consisted mainly of silver bars.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 5, 1873.

The Week.

THERE has been no more light thrown on the Vienna scandal by the Government during the week, and the feeling grows stronger that the State Department ought to make some further explanation; but this it cannot do until it receives the report of the Commission of Enquiry. General Van Buren has written another letter, this time to the *Tribune*, which is much more temperate than his letters to the State Department, but is of the like tenor and effect, and tells nothing new—that is, he denies everything, and relies much on his services to the Commission and the Republican party. The *Tribune* has, however, received a letter from Mr. William J. Stillman, who is well known to readers of the *Nation*, which does clear up a good deal. It has, he says, been proved that Meyer, who is General Van Buren's head man, did attempt to get money, in the shape of a "loan," from persons applying for a concession for a restaurant, and did get $1,000 in this way, without receipt or memorandum, from one Hitzel, and that concessions were made to two persons named Boehme and Wiele for bar-rooms, for which they paid from $2,000 to $3,000 in the shape of "loans" and "school-house donations," part of which went to General Van Buren; but they found on their arrival that their concession was worthless. It is only since the investigation has been begun that attempts have been made to hush the matter up by treating the money as "loans," and offering to return it and so on. It appears, moreover, that Boehme and Wiele were to pay Meyer a percentage on all sales. These are, it would seem, specimen cases.

We think some additional light could be thrown on the case on this side of the water by a little enquiry, which we are surprised has not been made, into the character and antecedents of this Meyer. We believe it would be found that the selection of him by General Van Buren as his first-assistant was in itself a scandal and a ground for suspicion, and a sort of insult to the public. We will add another piece of information, not generally known, but suggestive in its way. General Van Buren, after receiving his appointment, did an excellent thing, which seemed to show that his mind was at that time turned in the right direction, by calling a meeting of distinguished men in the various departments of American production, whether industrial or artistic, at the Union League Club, to whom he expounded his views and from whom he sought advice. Out of these an advisory committee of thirty-one very well-known names was formed to assist him in his work in various ways, but their special duty was to be that of passing upon the general character and suitability of American contributions to the Exhibition. Had this committee done what it was expected to do, and was ready and willing to do, all would have gone well; but it is a positive fact that General Van Buren never convened it, and never held any further communication with it, and that the State Department never knew of its existence until about ten days ago. In short, instead of calling the representatives of American science, art, and industry about him, he put himself into the hands of the worthy Meyer, who went to work at once to prepare the way for American bars at Vienna, so as to give the Europeans a true and just idea of our renowned "mixed drinks."

Another Farmers' Convention has been held at Indianapolis, and on this occasion it seems to have been a meeting of real farmers, and not "an assemblage of thieves." The "National Agricultural Congress" is the name of the body, and it

"Recognizes as constituent bodies every form of society having for its purpose the advancement of agriculture and the protection of the farmer, whether known as farmers' clubs, associations, Granges of husbandry, farmers' unions, or by whatever name they may be designated, as well as the National Department of Agriculture, the State Boards of Agriculture, and Agricultural Colleges."

Twenty-five States were represented by delegates in actual attendance, and the proceedings were marked by more than usual good sense. Among other things, the Congress passed resolutions "deprecating" the politicians' practice of receiving favors from railways, recommending the exclusion from the National and State Governments of the "proprietors and servants" of railways, recommending that efforts be made to secure the regulation by the General and State Governments of all railways, calling attention to various schemes for securing cheap transportation, and declaring

"That a railway being practically a monopoly, controlling the transportation of nearly all the country through which it passes, and that as competition, except at a few points, cannot be relied upon to fix rates, therefore it becomes the duty of the State to fix reasonable maximum rates, affording a fair remuneration to the transporter, and without being an onerous charge to the producer and consumer. That inasmuch as Belgium has succeeded in regulating the rates upon railways by government lines, we ask an investigation of the proposition to control the rates upon existing railways by trunk lines, built and controlled by the State authorities, and run at fixed, uniform, and cheap rates. That wherever a railway corporation owns or controls a line or lines in two or more States, it is the right and duty of the General Government to regulate the rates of freight and fare upon such lines, under the constitutional power to regulate commerce between the States."

The Congress wisely declined to make any recommendations as to the eight-hour law, and also refused to advocate any more land-grants to agricultural colleges. It also gave a proof of its honesty by refusing to adopt a resolution directing the appointment of a committee to request "the usual courtesies" of the railroads centring in Indianapolis, the sentiment of the delegates being apparently "that the people are distrustful of any man who carries a railroad pass in his pocket."

From the third annual report of the Secretary of the Congress, it seems that there are already 10,000 agricultural associations in the country, with an aggregate membership of 400,000 farmers—a statement which ought to give the public some idea of the importance of the present movement. It ought to be observed also that the popular notion at the East, that the Patrons of Husbandry and Grangers are poor men, laboring for their daily bread, and winning a scanty subsistence by hard manual toil, is entirely incorrect. The farmers of the West are, in reality, like the planters of the South (who, by the way, seem to have shown themselves at Indianapolis) capitalists and employers of labor, engaged in the business of production, in a manner almost as unlike that of the small farmer of the East as the business of the manufacturer of boots and shoes is unlike that of the old-fashioned shoemaker. As an illustration of the capitalist character of the class, we may say that the rejected eight-hour resolution to which we have just referred was not by any means a resolution favoring the eight-hour movement, but was directed against it. It was rejected because the members of the Congress felt that, as representatives of the labor-employing interest, it was impolitic to bring the movement into collision with the labor movement. The very slight interest shown now by the farmers in free trade is probably partly due to recollections of the disastrous result of the free-trade rising of last year, and partly also to the fact, which some of our contemporaries seem to forget, that real opportunities for a reversal of such a historical policy as protection only occur now once in four years.

The moderation shown by this Congress is all the more important because of the irrational excitement displayed in previous conventions. The farmers ought to be very careful about frightening investors by their way of talking and legislating against railroad

companies. They have already caused alarm on foreign markets which may do infinite mischief here by lowering the value of all American securities through seriously retarding the development of the Western country. The London *Times* is already blowing a blast of warning to the moneyed men, and the state of feeling in Germany is almost too bad for description. Grave doubts are expressed whether Europeans will send goods to the Centennial Exposition after the example that has been afforded in Vienna of the class of men we think competent to manage such undertakings and of which our juries would probably be composed. It is idle to suppose that judges nominated by caucuses for the express purpose of deciding in a particular way on questions of property, will command any more respect or confidence than Barnard or Cardozo. Western men know the value of capital, and they know the conditions on which it is obtained and kept, and they know where the West would be to-day if it had been unable to borrow or offer security to investors.

In Minnesota the cheap transportation question is going through a novel phase, the Supreme Court of that State having decided that the Legislature may fix maximum rates of freight, notwithstanding the Dartmouth College case and the inviolability of legislative contracts. The ground of decision seemed to be, that while the State grants a railroad by its charter an inviolable right to take some toll, it by no means gives the right to take any toll it pleases, and therefore may fix a maximum under its general regulative power. We have not seen a copy of the decision, but there seems some doubt that the *Tribune's* statement, that it is not in conflict with the recent Illinois case, is correct. The general notion has always been that railroads, just like any other common carriers, were bound to fix "reasonable" rates. Whether a State can create a commission with power to establish reasonable rates, and then make these rates conclusive, has never, so far as we know, been decided. At present, the only way to find out what is "reasonable" is for every shipper, in each particular case, to go into court, and litigate the question of fact before three or four juries, and, after they have all disagreed, pay his costs and counsel fees, a sadder but no wiser man.

An assault was made in the *Tribune* a week ago by an excited rhetorician, signing himself "Jan Vier," upon the police of the Central Park, in which he represented that the force had fallen into the hands of an impracticable theorist, who employed the men in what he called a "chain gang"—that is, in walking furiously around the roads, to the great injury of their health, the destruction of their happiness, and to the neglect of their proper duty of keeping order and giving information; and he described the Park as having become, under this régime, a noted resort for criminals of various classes, who committed theft, fornication, and highway robbery over its whole area almost unchecked, while fast and reckless driving was hardly interfered with, and in one case a boy in a boat was hit with a pebble. And the wretched wag even went so far as to express anxiety about the safety of his own children, who, he would have us believe, frequent that scene of iniquity. The letter was a very plausible document, of the Sub-Junius order, and appears even to have imposed in some degree on the editor of the *Tribune*, who backed it up by an enquiring paragraph. The revelations made by it were nearly as tartling, and quite as amusing to those who really use the Park, as those which Mr. Marvin H. Bovee makes about the small value we all set on our lives and our general readiness to be hanged; but they have had a good effect in drawing forth Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted from his honest seclusion to tell the public what he knows about the matter.

He says the robberies, assaults, fornications, and furious driving are figments of the worthy "Jan Vier's" imagination; that e police force has been compelled to do regular patrol duty to get the better of the habit of lounging and skulking on the "beats" bred by several years of "politics" and one of Ring rule; that Mr. Olmsted is himself the youthful theorist who has introduced the change, or, in other words, the man who, sixteen years ago, organized the Park police, and furnished the discipline and rules under which, well or ill, it has since lived—and, indeed, the man who, more than any other, may be said to have made the Central Park the thing of beauty that it is; and that the force, now once more under his management, is well, hearty, and improving. He might have added that he was one of the very few men in the public service who give their whole hearts and minds to their duties, who eschew "politics" and all its intrigues, villanies, and rascalities, and do what they are employed to do silently, honestly, thoroughly; that he belongs, in short, to a very small class, which the American people will somehow have to enlarge and cherish within the next twenty years, if they mean to maintain anything worthy of the name of government, or prevent the "great experiment" from becoming one of the reproaches instead of one of the glories of liberty.

It has been discovered in the management of the Holly Tree Coffee Houses, that it is not possible to banish pie from any popular bill of fare in this country. The promoters of some of these useful establishments attempted, in the interest of health, to withhold this seductive compound from their customers, but it would not do, and they are now supplying it. The fact is that even a "movement" against pie would not succeed. If an anti-pie convention were held, it would be "captured" by the bitters and quack-medicine men. The Committee on Resolutions would be composed of Schenck, Drake, Radway, Hostetter, and Ayer. The resolutions would contain no mention of pie whatever, but would in bitter terms denounce dyspepsia and "general debility," and call for "the purification of the blood" and the supply of "tone" to "the system," and the punctual payment of the pensions of the soldiers and sailors. A picture of the goddess Hygeia would adorn the platform, and a nomination to some high office would probably be offered to some noted pie-baker, and the original anti-pie men would then be informed that they were a narrow but honest set of fellows, rather wanting in practicalness, but who had nevertheless "builded better than they knew."

The Pennsylvania Constitutional Convention is considering the question whether the courts shall have jurisdiction of all contested election cases—"State, municipal, and local." A section recommending this reform has passed through two readings. The only country which has already made this change in its constitutional machinery is England, and there the experiment is of such recent introduction that it as yet impossible to say what its effect will be. There can be no doubt, however, of its importance, nor of its value as an illustration of the fact that the present constitutional movement exhibits as its most promising trait a deep distrust of so-called popular bodies. To give the judiciary the right to decide contested election cases is to give the judiciary a power far greater than any that has been conferred upon it since its erection into an independent branch of government at the time of the formation of the American Constitution, and there is only one reason of a practical character given for the change—that the people have discovered by sad experience that representatives of the people cannot be trusted with it. There can be little doubt that the change, in so far as it strengthens the hands of the judiciary at the expense of the legislature, is in the right direction, and at the same time it makes the elective system still more ridiculous than it now is. Elected judges who have the right to decide election cases will be pretty sure to be looked after closely by the managers.

In Ohio, one of the principal questions before the Convention is that of minority representation. A committee on apportionment and representation has the matter in charge, and three-quarters of the members are in favor of the principle of the reform, but there is some division of opinion as to the particular kind of minority representation that shall be introduced. We hear of advocates of the "cumulative vote" and "small districts"; and on the other hand, there are the

advocates of the "free list" and "large districts." As to the district question, there is really not much room for difference—the larger the districts, the wider the range of capable men to select from; the smaller and more numerous the districts, the more opportunity for compact organization, purchase of votes, and general corruption. As to the "cumulative vote," it is inferior to the "free list" in merely securing party representatives, while the "free list" secures representation really individual. For instance, if the Republican and Democratic votes in Ohio were in the proportion of six to four, the cumulative vote would at its best secure a legislature containing for every four Democrats, six Republicans; the "free list" (with some modifications which we have here no space to go into) secures not only all this, but in addition has the great merit of giving each voter an opportunity of registering his choice among all the candidates, and giving this preference weight in the final count.

The whole subject of minority representation is, however, abstruse to the mind of the average voter, and it would be as well for the Ohio Convention to remember that the reform will prove worthless unless judges of contested elections can be provided who can be absolutely trusted; and from this point of view it will be seen that the question in Pennsylvania and that in Ohio are quite nearly related. Meanwhile, in New York, the Legislature to which the recommendations of Governor Hoffman's commission were referred has adopted the ingenious device of striking out all the more important recommendations—those which would take away much-abused power from itself—and then going quietly home. A more complete evidence of the utter contempt of the politicians for the people has rarely been given in these latter days.

Kellogg of Louisiana has drawn on the General Government for two howitzers, two Napoleon guns, two Gatling guns, a number of muskets and rifles, and various cavalry accoutrements, and the requisition has been met. It was made under an unearthed statute annually giving to every State for militia purposes a certain small quantity of munitions of war, and as Louisiana had for some years neglected to take her share, the Kellogg Government now finds ready to its hands a convenient store of war material. Meantime, Governor McEnery, in a very judicious proclamation, counsels a passive resistance indeed to the Kellogg Government, but dissuades from active. To some impatient minds who read such speeches on Louisiana matters as are made by Mr. Dawes and other Republicans, and such articles as the thick-and-thin Administration papers print, its prudence recalls the times when Mr. Dawes's ancestors made the Boston tea-party and by-and-by went into very disloyal and partisan-like rebellion. But they waited a while first, and composed many just such public documents as this, and afforded a good deal of sport to the organs of their time, and measurably restrained their wrath, and in the end had their reward, as the organs had. Certainly the recital of the recent history of Louisiana may well make a Louisianian indignant, but there is justice as well as prudence in trusting to the generally honest intelligence and intentions of the country. "It is apparent to you," says Mr. McEnery, "as well as to all the people of the United States, that the President is resolved, at all hazards and at all costs, to sustain by the military arm of the nation" the usurped power of Kellogg and his friends; he orders and requires the establishment of a government put in place "by the midnight order of Judge Durell" and by the use of United States troops; he commands that the elected judges, sheriffs, recorders, justices of the peace—in brief, all the duly chosen officers of government, whether State, parochial, or municipal—shall peaceably submit to removal, and that a government of a board elected without returns shall be obeyed. This and more the President having ordered on pain of war with the United States, Mr. McEnery also advises it, and he urges peaceable submission, justly referring to the fact that sufficient evidence has already been given that a Kellogg government without outside aid is powerless to fulfil the least duty of a government.

A second prominent Canadian politician has just died, the Hon. Joseph Howe having followed Sir George Cartier after a short interval. He has very long been the most prominent Nova Scotia public man, and was known across the border as well as across the water. Mr. Howe was descended from a loyalist family which left the States for the Provinces at the time of the Revolution. He began life as a printer's apprentice, became an editor and an active politician of far more than the usual ability of provincial statesmen, and of perhaps no more and no less than the usual consistency of leaders in that kind of politics. He died the Governor of his native province, and his appointment to this much-esteemed office was the event in his career of most interest to Americans, significant as it was to some extent of the increased and increasing detachment of Provincial politics from English. Mr. Howe was born in 1804.

In England for the moment the great O'Keeffe case, which is pending before Dublin courts, seems to occupy a larger share of public attention than anything else. O'Keeffe was a parish priest in Kerry, *ex-officio* manager of the district school, and greatly beloved by his congregation. He quarrelled with his bishop, however, and sued him successfully for libel, whereupon he was suspended by Cardinal Cullen on the authority of a Papal rescript, for impleading his superior in the secular courts, and the Board of Education removed him from the office of manager, in consequence of his loss of his sacerdotal position. The action of the Board he brought before Parliament, and he then sued Cardinal Cullen for libelling him in the terms of the order of suspension. The Cardinal answered that a priest is bound by his agreement not to sue other ecclesiastics for things said of him or to him in his character as priest. A majority of the Irish Queen's Bench ruled that this agreement was legal, and not, as the minority held, against public policy; that the plaintiff had by his own act conferred on the Cardinal the power which he exercised. The points actually decided by the Court were—and they have some bearing on the Cheney case here—that a rule of the Roman Catholic Church, that a priest is not to sue another in the ordinary tribunals for slander spoken of him in his character of priest, is not illegal, though it is no defence to an action, and does not oust the court of its jurisdiction; but that a rule forbidding a priest to seek any redress whatever in such a case would be illegal and void.

The news from France is that everything is quiet, and that nobody seems disposed to make any disturbance. Gambetta has been making speeches of a very sensible sort in the provinces, and Marshal MacMahon has got up a cabinet which contains nobody who can be called seriously objectionable, and several men of tried capacity. The new Government will, it is said, abandon the new commercial treaty with England, which probably means that they will fall back on the old one, as the free-trade element preponderates in it. It does not make very much difference, as the cardinal feature of M. Thiers's policy, the tax on raw materials, had been virtually abandoned as a failure before he went out of office. The Germans are said to be displeased with MacMahon's message to the Assembly, but why does not clearly appear. The dissatisfaction, if it exists, is probably rather with his accession to office than with anything he has said or done, because he can hardly have a policy in which "revenge" will not occupy a prominent place. But the next event of any moment in French politics will undoubtedly be the dissolution of the Assembly, though when that will occur it would puzzle the wisest man to say. Until it does, the outside pressure in favor of the proclamation of the Republic will undoubtedly increase, as the mass of French voters are strongly attached to whatever form of government actually exists, and grow more so, the longer it lasts. If any permanent form can be now set up without violence, a great deal will have been gained for the cause of good government generally. The growth of a passion among the peasantry for the republican *theory* of government is one of those pleasant fictions which light up the gloom and weariness of foreign newspaper offices.

SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE CASE OF HENDERSON.

THE officers of the Treasury, in the case of Phelps, Dodge & Co., unveiled to the somewhat astonished eyes of the American public the unpalatable fact that we are living under a system of revenue laws framed by incompetent hands and administered with a ruthless disregard to even the appearances of justice. The Supreme Court of the United States has gone a step further in the same direction, and disclosed the monstrous fact that the laws of the United States allow the Government to take one man's property for another man's crime. Indeed, we do not state the case quite strongly enough; we should have said, for another man's intention to commit a crime. In the case of Phelps, Dodge & Co., the demerits of the matter lay between Congress and the administrative officers of the Government; in this case, between Congress and the judiciary, with a general result in both cases that the revenue laws of the United States are administered on the one hand and construed on the other for the benefit of Treasury agents and informers, and that it is no longer safe for an American merchant to import goods from a foreigner or buy them from his neighbor.

In 1868, one Mr. Henderson went into the market at New Orleans and bought one hundred barrels of distilled spirits. It would seem that if a man went into the market and bought personal property from the manufacturer in good faith for its full value, and without notice, actual or constructive, of the intervening rights of any other person, he should acquire the title to his purchase. It seems, however, according to the Supreme Court, that the revenue regulations are so excessively stringent that "cautious merchants in consequence of those regulations are often disinclined to purchase spirits at the place where distilled lest they should be subject to forfeiture," and prefer to buy "of other parties who have made deposits in the bonded warehouses." Mr. Henderson apparently belonged to this cautious class, whose "caution" is of itself a commentary upon the powers of our Treasury agents, and he did not venture to buy the spirits of the maker at the place of manufacture, but did buy them "while in a bonded warehouse of the United States." Having paid the manufacturers, and as he supposed acquired title to the spirits, he next proceeded to settle with the Government, and to that end "paid to the United States Collector the taxes due on the spirits and removed them from the warehouse according to law, without knowledge on his part at any time of any fraud on the part of the distiller, either actual or alleged," being in every sense of the term "a purchaser innocent and *bona-fide*." Having thus settled with everybody in the world who asserted any right or interest in these spirits, he shipped them to St. Louis, naturally, but mistakenly as it turns out, supposing them to be his own property. On their arrival at St. Louis they were libelled by the Government of the United States through its district attorney on the ground that they "were manufactured at some place within the United States *to the said attorney unknown*," and "were removed from the place where distilled *with intent to defraud* the United States." Now, as it is not easy to understand how a district attorney could have known that spirits were removed from the place where distilled with intent to defraud, when the "place where distilled" was unknown, we are inclined to believe that there never was any fraud connected with the case, but that the revenue officers at St. Louis, having not much to do in the idle summer-time, bethought themselves of harrying one of the mercantile "brood" for amusement and perhaps to get a little easy prey in the form of a compromise. Be this as it may, nothing else of fraud appears in the case from beginning to end, and the seizure of the Government is to this day based on no other ground than the removal from an unknown distillery to a bonded warehouse of the United States "with intent to defraud."

Mr. Henderson's lawyers were apparently overconfident of their client's case, and as the cheapest and shortest way to be rid of the libel, they entered into an agreed statement of facts with the district attorney, whereby it was mutually admitted that the charge of removal with intent to defraud was true, "but that Henderson subsequently to removal from the distillery and before removal from the bonded warehouse and before seizure, paid the tax on said spirits and was a *bona-fide* and innocent purchaser thereof." With this admission written down in the record, the Government went to trial for the avowed purpose of wresting from the "innocent purchaser" the very property upon which he had paid and they had received the manufacturer's tax.

In the District Court, judgment was given against the Government, and the judgment was affirmed on appeal to the Circuit. But the revenue officers seemed to know that innocence counts for very little in revenue cases, and they carried the case up to the Supreme Court in the name of their aggrieved principal, the Government of the United States; and a majority of the Supreme Court being of the same opinion, reversed the decisions below and directed judgment of forfeiture of the property to be entered in favor of the United States.

It is however to be noted that the late Chief-Justice, with Messrs. Miller and Field, dissented; and Mr. Justice Field, in his dissenting opinion, says with a very fine touch of judicial sarcasm:

> "The presumption is that the majority of the Court are right in this decision, and that the minority are mistaken in their views of the law governing the case. It is, therefore, with diffidence that I venture to dissent from their judgment—a diffidence which is greatly augmented by the declaration of the majority, that it is impossible to escape the conclusion which they have reached. But for this conclusion, I should have supposed that it would have been impossible, at this day and in this age and in our country, to obtain a decree confiscating the property of a citizen for anything which a former owner of the property may have intended to do, but never did in respect to it. I should have said that the intentions of the mind, lying dormant in the brain, had long since ceased to be subjects for which legislatures prescribe punishment."

The *law* of a decision by the highest judicial tribunal cannot be profitably discussed. The bar sometimes accept it as "good law" and sometimes criticise it as "bad law," and legal journals review it and point out mistakes in the premises, or misapplications in the authorities, but the chances are that the Court has been able to give to the questions involved a closer scrutiny than the people who doubt the conclusion. Nevertheless, there are some principles of constitutional and legal ethics as to which most intelligent and conscientious men can judge. Of such is that one, accepted in all civilized countries, that where the Government goes into a court of justice as a suitor, its rights of property are to be adjudicated with the same impartiality and upon the same legal principles that would prevail if the suitor were a citizen or another corporate body. The only exceptions to this are, first, that governments are not supposed to be guilty of torts or intentional wrongs—which means simply that they are not to be cast in examplary damages, but are to pay the reasonable value of the property taken or injury inflicted; and, second, that they are not to be held responsible for the carelessness or unauthorized acts of their agents. But it is nowhere believed that one measure of justice is to be applied to the governmental and another to the ordinary litigant, or that courts of justice are to become a kind of foster-mother to nurse governments through the ordinary hardships of litigation. During the last fifteen or twenty years a system of decisions has been built up in the Supreme Court under which an entirely different rule is applied to the liability of "U. S." than is applied to the liability of "John Doe" and "Richard Roe"; and of these decisions this Henderson case is the last, though we are by no means sure that it is the worst. The Supreme Court has also gone out of its way several times to say that as to many classes of cases entitled to judicial redress, Congress "has wisely" reserved them for its own determination, when it is perfectly well known that Congress is utterly incapable of awarding judicial redress, and that private claims have often proved the most fruitful seed for Congressional corruption; and it has fallen into the ignorance of saying that immunity from suit is an attribute of sovereignty, and that suits against Government are permitted only by the "liberality of legislation," when it is beyond dispute that in almost every country in Europe the Government is liable to the subject in all matters of property as completely as one of its own corporations, not from the liberality of legislation but by immemorial usage.

Now there are two principles of law peculiarly applicable to these cases of Henderson and Phelps, Dodge & Co., which have been entirely ignored by both the Government and the Supreme Court. In courts of equity, it has always been held that a party seeking equity must do equity—which means that a man seeking to set aside a transaction cannot keep the fruits of it in his pocket. In courts of law, it is settled that where a man stands by and sees an innocent purchaser buy property from a third person, he will be estopped from afterwards setting up any claim of his own; or, as a former judge of the Supreme Court quaintly stated it, "where a man has been silent when in conscience he ought to have spoken, he shall be debarred from speaking when conscience requires him to be silent." In the case of Phelps, Dodge & Co., the firm laid down erroneously a rule of computation which in the great majority of instances worked against their own interest, but in a few instances against the interests of the Government. The Government received the benefit of this rule, yet nevertheless, keeping the money in its treasury, could walk into court and demand an enormous penalty for the few instances where it had received a trivial injury; and it is now almost certain that if the suit had gone on, the Supreme Court would have enforced the penalty on the one hand, and on the other would have dismissed a suit brought to recover back the overpayments. In the case of Henderson, the Government, being the custodian of the property, looked on and saw an innocent purchaser buy it without asserting any title of its own; more than this, it delivered the property to the purchaser; more than this, it exacted from him as a condition to delivery an enormous tax; and then it walks into court asserting itself to have been the owner at the time, and actually carries off the property without the pretence that it will ever refund the tax which it exacted.

Do our readers now wish to know the reason or apology under which the law officers of the Government dare to hunt down two innocent merchants, against the moral sentiment of about every respectable person in the community? We will state it in the words of the Solicitor-General: "It is notorious that spirits have often been removed to United States bonded warehouses from distilleries in accordance with conspiracies between distillers and warehousemen, in order to defraud the Government by having the spirits secretly drawn off from the barrels, and *under agreements with the revenue officers* to have them released upon worthless security." And we will add the apology of the Supreme Court: "Distillers intending to evade the payment of the duties may find it a most effectual way to accomplish their unlawful designs, in case they can *by bribery or otherwise secure the co-operation of the inspector, storekeeper, or collector,* to remove the spirits to a bonded warehouse." In other words, it is bad government which has gradually changed our highest judicial tribunal from being the guardian of the law to being the guardian of the Government, and which has built up a system of statutes and decisions under which the strong is favored as against the weak, and the corrupt as against the innocent. In the general abandonment of the duties of citizenship, no class of the community has been more in fault than our merchants, and they are now suffering probably severer punishment than any other class—a punishment which is of itself one of the curious reactionary effects of weak government, and is being dealt by most unexpected hands.

THE CAUSES OF THE FARMERS' DISCONTENT.

THE farmers' movement, although slow to spread to the East, and although it is yet inchoate and undefined, has assumed national importance, and deserves, by virtue of the possibilities involved in it, the careful study of the economist and the politician. At the present moment, the chances seem to be evenly balanced that it may either be mistaken in its consciousness of its own origin and meaning, and be misdirected in its measures and aims, or that it may prove the beginning of a movement which shall break in pieces the system which has been elaborated and fastened upon the country during the last twelve years. If it is to have the latter issue, it is of the first importance that those who participate in it should understand the situation.

Now, first among the existing economic circumstances of the country to which the distress of the farmers is due is the depreciated currency. He who affirms this to Western men is, indeed, likely to find that he speaks in dull ears. The present currency of the country so far surpasses in practical advantage any currency ever before possessed by the West that it seems to have taken strong hold on the confidence of the people of that part of the country. It possesses a uniform value, and is easily and cheaply transported. This proves, however, the outrageous badness of the old currency of the Western States, not the intrinsic goodness of that now in use. The West opposed the Legal Tender Act of 1862 almost *en masse*. The ruin of 1857 was recent enough to exercise strong influence over the minds of the Western legislators of that date. Their instinct was correct. The Legal Tender Act and the National Bank Act created and placed at the disposal of the banking interest a power which could not fail to be oppressive to the new sections of the country and to the agricultural interest. At the same time, those acts created a system which was artificial, divorced from the legitimate and beneficent operations of banking, and, under a suspension of specie payments, freed from the restraints which are the safeguards alike of the banks and of their customers. The paper money era has developed with us all the phenomena which have marked its history elsewhere. Speculation has become the prevalent form of business, and has assumed gigantic proportions, and has attached more and more to paper securities. Money has been drawn into the great stock markets. The mobility of the currency, which is one of its chief merits in the eyes of many persons, has strengthened this tendency. The population has been enticed from country to town, from agriculture to trading, and city real estate has risen in value, while farm land has declined. Farm land has been held, even in the West, more for a prospective than an immediate profit, and the realization of this prospective value has been more and more deferred. In the meantime, prices have risen throughout the whole range of the farmers' necessaries. The spasmodic fluctuations in the price of money, and of materials affected by the tariff or manipulated by "corners," has stood in grave contrast with the steady rise of wages on the one hand, and the steadiness of the price of staples, which is governed by the foreign market, on the other. These things are the legitimate and necessary consequences of an irredeemable paper currency, and, in view of them, the wonder is, not that the troubles of the farmers have come to a crisis, but that the crisis has been so long deferred. The inflation of railroad capital is due to the same cause as other inflations. Much declamation has been spent on the wickedness of the railroads in watering stocks, but this is only the form by which railroad property has been inflated in order to keep pace with the general inflation. It is not a new evil: it is only another development of the same one.

Among the resolutions passed at the first meeting of the Illinois farmers was one implying that the tariff was suspected of a share in the mischief. It seemed, indeed, to be only a random shot, as if an enemy had been only vaguely suspected under the mask of this old and plausible acquaintance; and at the subsequent meeting in New York, all reference to the tariff was dropped. Remonstrances had come from many quarters that the farmers might better attend to the matter in hand, and some such feeling governed the action in New York. The attack on the railroads was only made more violent, unreasoning, and futile. That the railroad transportation charges are the immediate form in which the evils of the situation make themselves felt by the farmers is not to be denied; but, as we have recently shown, the railroad charges are not a cause but a consequence. The railroads are entrenched in the existing economic circumstances, and nothing can dislodge them which does not change those circumstances. The farmers did not go out of their way when they assailed the tariff, any more than a physician turns aside from the task before him when he gives remedies for indigestion to cure a headache.

Mr. Carey and Mr. Greeley taught the American people assiduously for a quarter of a century that protection was the secret of national prosperity. For the farmers especially they entertained a sincere interest. They lamented that grain should be burned for fuel in the West. They declared that under protection manufactories would spring up at the farmer's door to make a market for this food, and utilize it to support productive industry. Mr. Carey and his disciples went further. To them it seemed that to export grain was to export the chemical constituents of the soil, to impoverish the country, and give its substance to foreigners. Transportation charges were a sore grievance to them all, seeming to be waste and loss.

No sooner had the Southern members left Congress than this system was put in operation. We have had twelve years of the experiment. The system has been rounded out to the full realization of the ideal of its projectors. They have never pretended that the experiment was not fair; on the contrary, only a year ago they were loudly asserting that the country was prosperous, that this prosperity was due to protection, and that the experiment was a success. They have never asserted that the system must, for a beneficent purpose in the general interest, bear hardly on the farmers. On the contrary, the prosperity of the farmers under protection was to be the boast and triumph of the system. Now, however, we are met by an outburst of indignant protest from these beneficiaries of protection, who, though they have enjoyed during this period a series of unexampled harvests, declare that their circumstances are unendurable, and that find a way out they will, though it be over the great corporations which rule the rest of us without opposition, or over a degraded legislature and intimidated judiciary. They never burned so much grain as now. They have lost one market without winning another; and as for the hardship of competing with "Russian wheat," all they ask is to be allowed to compete with it. Transportation charges have been increased and multiplied, middlemen have increased in number, rings to which toll must be paid have sprung up on every hand, and now certainly the time has come to enquire whether the great experiment has not turned out with us, just as it has turned out everywhere else on earth, a mistake, a delusion, and a fraud. Are not the specific forms of evil natural products of the great fundamental principle? Are not the high charges for transportation due to the enhanced cost of every ounce of iron, every stick of timber, every piece of metal, every yard of cloth, which has gone into the construction of railroads for the last ten years? Must not the army of railroad employees have higher wages when they buy protected clothing and furniture? If stock is watered, is it not because it would cost twice as much (in to-day's dollars) to build the road as it did twenty years ago when the line was built and its capital computed? Are not the rings and middlemen the offspring of a system which has taught this generation that the means to secure success are not to attain to superior excellence, but to get "the long end of the lever"? If the farmers want to recognize their enemy, these are questions for them to consider.

The method of redress now proposed is an interesting illustration of the education which is exerted upon men by a broad principle, and of the unconscious consistency which governs the human mind. The trouble is due to the interference theory, which ascribes to legislation the power to make men prosperous, free from vice, and happy. It has been extended so far that public aid in various forms has been given to all sorts of projects, and the system of making the public bear all the expense and risk of "developing our resources," while a few shrewd manipulators take all the profits, and indeed a good share of the prime cost of the operation, has been pushed to the most extravagant refinements. It is astonishing to observe how such an evil system returns again and again with accumulated mischief to plague the inventor. A Western county bonds itself for a railroad, and binds itself to heavy risks and long-continued payments. These bonds go abroad, and upset the exchanges, and distort the premium on gold. The wheat of the same county goes to the foreign market, and the return for it is wasted and squandered through the exchange and the gold premium—secondary consequences of the original mistake.

But when the sufferers come to correct their grievance, they know of no remedy; their minds are educated to seek no remedy other than a new application of legislative interference. The men who have bound their towns and counties for a railroad form an anti-railroad league. They complain that the railroads are ungrateful and domineering. Have they, then, never seen spoiled children? Do they know so little of human nature as not to know that it is the manner of those who have been petted to become ungrateful and intractable? The seeds of the present difficulty are in the original error of the interference policy, whether in its wider or its narrower applications, and the crop answers to the seed. It can never be eradicated by planting it anew. If the farmers of the West can come to see the true causes of the ills they labor under, and attack them at the root, they may burst the shackles which bind not only them but the whole country; but if they extend the same theory, and try to win back prosperity by town aid to rolling-mills, starch factories, and other kindred enterprises, or by manipulating legislatures and intimidating judges, they will only sow for the future a harvest of shameful repudiation, wretched bankruptcy, and degraded political history.

THE LATE STUART MILL.

London, May 15, 1873.

THE great event of the last fortnight—to very many of us at any rate—is the death of Mr. John Stuart Mill. Just before leaving England a few weeks ago, he appeared to be in more than his usual health and spirits, and we were in no degree prepared for the sudden extinction of so great an intellectual light. Politically speaking, Mr. Mill's loss is of no very great importance. Whatever the value of the doctrines which he advocated, he was as much a follower as a leader. When speaking on woman's rights or the land laws or the franchise, he gave to his party the weight of a great authority, but he scarcely contributed any new element of opinion. It was something, of course, for the extreme democratical party to be able to say that Mr. Mill agreed with them, but perhaps the agreement, so far as the outside world was concerned, told more against Mr. Mill than in favor of his allies. That a man of such wide cultivation and such extraordinary intellectual power should, so to speak, swallow the popular radical creed whole, was somehow not quite satisfactory. What is the use of being a great philosopher if, after all, you can add nothing to the ordinary cry of every popular agitator? To some such feeling, though of course there are deductions to be made from the statement, it was owing, as I fancy, that Mr. Mill was regarded as having rather lowered himself by his political action and as having descended too easily from the judgment-seat into the open arena.

Upon that subject, however, I have recently spoken, and I need not dwell upon it at the present time. Neither will I venture to express any opinion as to the general merits of his speculative action. The influence which he has exercised upon English thought and indeed far beyond English limits, is too conspicuous to justify any comment. I will merely observe that for the last quarter of a century Mr. Mill has been the intellectual leader of all young Englishmen. Within that time, for example, there has been a marked tendency towards a revival of philosophical speculation in our universities. At the beginning of the period, Oxford was still shaken by the movement of which Dr. Newman was the chief leader. Mr. Mill's influence became powerful in the reaction which followed, and under his guidance more than under that of any other man, the current has since been running with increasing strength in the direction of rationalism, positivism, and all manner of other heterodox "isms." He exerted a similar though a less conspicuous influence at Cambridge. It was a really grotesque phenomenon to persons behind the scenes to watch the vigorous opposition made by the outside world to the removal of religious tests from the University, whilst, in the University itself, Mr. Mill's works had become recognized text-books, and under their guidance the whole thought of the place had drifted far away from all accepted landmarks. To try to keep young men within orthodox limits by making them sign professions of allegiance, whilst giving them for their chief intellectual sustenance Mr. Mill's 'Logic,' was, as Milton puts it, to shut the park gates by way of impounding the crows. The whole of the present generation of cultivated Englishmen under five-and-forty may be said to have been brought up at Mr. Mill's feet, though of course they have not all accepted the master's teaching.

In the earlier part of that period, Mr. Mill was little more than a name to most

of us. We did not suppose that he had any actual flesh-and-blood existence. He was a mere impersonation of logic and political economy, who was supposed to be incessantly secreting syllogisms in some philosophical laboratory. Here and there, in the 'Political Economy,' there are expressions from which one might gather that Mr. Mill could feel keenly as well as think clearly, but only a few select friends were at that time admitted to his voluntary seclusion. His complete retirement, really caused by an excessive sensibility, was popularly supposed to be due to a cynical contempt for his fellow-creatures. I have a lively recollection of a few apparitions of Mr. Mill some ten or twelve years ago, when he was first beginning to emerge from his retirement. Nothing could have been imagined more contrary to my preconceived notions than the slight fragile man, trembling with ill-suppressed nervousness and, at times, blushing like a girl for some inappreciable cause. I had expected—foolishly enough—to see an ideal philosopher, not perhaps in the flowing robes, but at least with the dignified mien of one of Raphael's apostles, and my surprise was not less than would be the surprise of most people if the portrait of the ideal St. Paul were suddenly replaced by a faithful likeness of the man as he appeared to his contemporaries. If Mr. Mill's presence was not dignified in the conventional sense, it revealed at once that emotional side of his nature which has been made prominent in his later works. The author of 'The Subjection of Women' seemed to take the place of the expounder of Malthusian principles. But in a few minutes there was no difficulty in constructing a more complete image of the whole man. It was at a meeting of the Political Economy Club that I first had the honor of being in Mr. Mill's company, and the subject, not at first sight a very attractive one, was the propriety of allowing cab-fares to be regulated by free competition instead of fixed by a tariff. Unpromising subjects often branch out into unexpected variety of suggestion. On this occasion, however, I do not remember, and perhaps it would be a breach of confidence to reveal, the opinions expressed by the other philosophers present. The arguments used have slipped through my mind, though I have a vague recollection of having chewed many dry husks of statistical information. But I do remember very distinctly the impression produced upon me by Mr. Mill. His nervous and agitated manner disappeared with the first sentence; the statistical and economical magnates around me listened with rapt attention whilst a series of sentences flowed from Mr. Mill's lips, as perfectly formed as though he were reading the proof-sheet of a carefully prepared essay, and arranged with the most logical lucidity. How much attention Mr. Mill had given to the subject of cabs it is of course impossible for me to say; but I could never have imagined that to so barren a text there could have been appended such a mass of interesting reflections. Somehow or other, he kept to his subject, and yet forced one to think of cabs, not as a mere isolated phenomenon, but as part of the general system of things. Always dwelling upon topics within the comprehension of police officials and town-councils, he yet brought into the discussion such a wealth of thought and knowledge that cabs have been ever since raised in my opinion. Coleridge would doubtless have been more poetical and more metaphysical, if started on one of his flights into the infinite from a cabstand; and Mr. Carlyle would probably show a more vivid insight into the phases of human character connected with cabs, but as an exposition of practical philosophy in its bearings upon cabs, Mr. Mill's discussion appeared to me to be as near to perfection as possible. In fact, Mr. Mill could talk like a book, and, what is far rarer, like a very excellent book. His conversation was frequently like a chapter out of the 'Liberty.' It was his habit, I believe, to have everything closely arranged in his head before putting anything on paper. The actual writing was therefore extremely rapid. I am almost afraid to say, merely from recollection, what was the period employed in the actual composition of the 'Logic.' My memory tells me that he had written the whole in three months. That would imply over ten octavo pages a day; and considering the extreme complexity of the subject and the difficulty of steering the way safely through all manner of logical intricacies, such a speed of execution would be something astonishing. Of course it implies that the whole substance was already carefully prepared. Like some other distinguished writers, he was fond of taking long walks, during which his reflections were gradually moulded into a form fit for expression. Within the last year or two, he was still equal to doing thirty or forty miles in a day without excessive fatigue, though from his appearance no one would have imagined that he possessed great pedestrian powers.

Mr. Mill's speeches were very much injured in their effect by the weakness of his voice, but as compositions they were as perfect as anything that he wrote. When he first appeared in Parliament, he was apparently very nervous, and had a curious habit of occasionally stopping and shutting his eyes for many seconds between two consecutive sentences. To his hearers it appeared at first that a breakdown was imminent, but he always caught the thread of his argument, and proceeded anew with a uniform flow of disquisition. His least satisfactory performances were at moments when strong feeling was carrying him away. The disproportion between the passion and the physical power of utterance was too marked; for a genuine orator requires an organ of corresponding power and volume to give effect to the expression of strong emotion. And yet the genuine strength of Mr. Mill's feelings and the generous breadth of his sympathies undoubtedly gave him power over popular audiences, as it will endear him to the memory of many friends who do not implicitly adopt his theories. No warmer-hearted man ever lived. His loyalty to his friends was touching in a high degree, though it doubtless betrayed him into occasional weaknesses. Everybody remembers the dedication to the memory of his wife of the book on 'Liberty,' in which, to say the truth, it is impossible not to suspect that his judgment had been considerably biassed by his feelings. Something of the same tendency appears in several of his later works. Mr. Mill believed in his friends with something like vehemence. He believed not merely in their moral worth but in their intellectual power. The feeling was amiable and generous in a high degree; for most of us are perhaps conscious that there is something not altogether displeasing to us in the weakness as well as in the misfortunes of our friends. Some little grain of jealousy perhaps mingles with most human friendships, or possibly we fear to trust our judgments when they apply to those in whom we are deeply interested. From any such defect of cordiality Mr. Mill was most honorably free; but I fancy that some allowance must be made for this unconscious bias before we can accept the very warm eulogies which he has passed upon theorists whose merits are not so conspicuous to the outside world. In losing Mr. Mill, we have not only lost the most thoroughly trained intellect amongst English philosophers and politicians, though one whose powers of assimilation perhaps rather exceeded his powers of origination, but we have also lost one whose generous warmth of feeling gave a higher tone to contemporary politics and leaves many tender memories behind him. There is no one ready to take his place, though we may console ourselves with the reflection that he had pretty well delivered his message to the world. It is said that he has left many remains, and amongst other writings an autobiography continued to a recent date. A few years ago he said that he had finished some writings for which he thought that the time of publication had not arrived; but I know not whether the observation referred to 'The Subjection of Women,' which has since appeared, or to some works which have not yet seen the light.

Correspondence.

THE SPECIFIC DEMAND OF TRANSPORTATION REFORMERS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: You demand that the movement for cheap transportation reform should be more specific. So far as concerns the recent convention in New York, this stricture is entirely just. That gathering was manifestly engineered by men who had no conception of the real issue at stake. The series of resolutions adopted dealt wholly in vague generalities, as if the attempt was to say a good deal without saying anything. But the movement in Illinois is not open to that censure.

The cheap transportation movement got fairly under headway in advance of the election for delegates to the convention which framed the present constitution of the State (1870). The general attention of the country was not attracted, nor was there any marked demonstration among our people; but care was taken to elect delegates who would faithfully represent popular sentiment on this subject. The result was the assertion in our organic law of the doctrine that the Legislature has a right to "pass laws to correct abuses and prevent unjust discrimination and extortion in the rates of freight and passenger tariffs on the different railroads in this State." According to the principle laid down in the Dartmouth College decision, this doctrine conflicts with the Constitution of the United States, for the charters of our railroads give the holders of them unlimited authority in the matter of transportation charges. The validity of the clause quoted is a point on which our lawyers and jurists disagree. On the second of next June the first contested judicial election under the new constitution will occur. Besides a large number of circuit judges, there will be elected at that time two members of the Supreme Court. The full bench consists of seven justices, the senior in point of service being chief-justice. The distinctive issue raised in this election is, Shall the railroad feature of the State constitution be recognized as valid, and the laws enacted in accordance therewith be enforced, or shall it and they be set aside on the ground of conflict with the Federal Constitution as interpreted in the Dartmouth College case? In one of the Supreme Court districts there is practically no conflict; the candidate who is sure of election was a mem-

ber of the Constitutional Convention, and sustained the railroad article; and the only other candidate in the field is unequivocally pledged to its support. In the other district the contest is intensely hot. One candidate, Judge Craig, is avowedly friendly to the plan of transportation reform set forth in the constitution, while his opponent, Chief-Justice Lawrence, refuses to commit himself, but has the ardent support of the enemies of reform. He rendered an official opinion last winter upon the railway question as presented by legislation as it then stood, taking care not to commit himself upon the question of the validity of the State constitution. Such being the facts as regards the judicial campaign in Illinois, it is certain that, whatever else may be said of it, it is specific.

Turning from the pending judicial election to the transportation laws of Illinois, we find definiteness. Whether the legislation is judicious and effective or not, is not the question under discussion in this connection.

The first Legislature which met after the present constitution had been adopted passed one law regulating passenger tariffs, another regulating freight tariffs. The latter was killed by the Supreme Court, and it is expected that a decision invalidating the former will be rendered shortly. The recent Legislature virtually assumed as much by passing a law applying equally to freight and passenger business.

The new law will go into effect July 1. It is based primarily upon the idea that discrimination for or against any shipper or shipping point is unjust. It requires an inflexible schedule of charges for all periods of the year, every patron, and every station, except that the issuance of commutation tickets to passengers is authorized. The railroads centring in Chicago announce that they will obey this feature of the new law. If they do, the feasibility of the plan will be demonstrated one way or the other. Hitherto it has been customary to reduce charges from competing points below actual cost, and make up the loss by exorbitant rates from non-competing points. This is surely a very definite change.

The new railway law of Illinois has one other feature. It is quite as pronounced as the first, and still more revolutionary. It provides that every railroad company in the State shall haul cars offered it at reasonable and impartial rates. The railroad and warehouse commissioners of Illinois are required by law to make out a schedule of rates for car hauling, as well as for the transportation of passengers and ordinary freight consignments. That Board has until January 15, 1874, in which to make out the schedule. The railroads have not yet announced their programme on this point, but it is certain that with this car principle recognized and appreciated competition would spring up in the transportation business along every railroad line, and the cheap-freight problem would be in a fair way to solve itself. Mr. Adams is half right in holding that competition is the true solvent for the transportation problem, only competition cannot be secured by building new lines of railroads, but by establishing a basis for competition on the same line. If the railroads of the country depended in whole or in part upon the profits of transporting cars rather than miscellaneous freight, they would encourage competition and be enriched by it. Whether this plan is feasible or not, it is surely worth while to test the experiment.

Permit me to say in conclusion that this railroad question deeply stirs the popular heart at the West, however it may be at the East. Demagogues are trying to pervert it, as a matter of course, but the movement will push on in spite of the politicians, gaining definiteness and momentum all the time. F. G.

CHICAGO, May 24, 1873.

[We think the contest over the judges is what does most to give the movement a wild or visionary appearance in the eyes of people at the East. The question whether the State constitution shall or shall not be overruled by the United States Constitution as interpreted by the United States Supreme Court, which our correspondent says is "the distinctive issue" raised in the pending canvass, is in reality a magniloquent form of the question whether the State of Illinois shall through her judges overthrow the Government of the United States. Moreover, it is difficult to get outsiders to believe that the people of Illinois are in earnest in proposing to submit the legal rights of property of individuals under charters and deeds to be discussed on the stump and determined by a popular vote in the election of judges. The Western railroads are thus far private property, the result of capital invested under certain guarantees, one of which was that all controversies affecting it should be decided by independent courts, acting without fear or favor. Nobody would invest money in a State in which the nature and extent of his property were liable to be made an issue at every election. When any body of American farmers tell us they are going to adopt this plan in order to secure their rights, we prefer in compliment to tehir intelligence and honesty to believe that they are indulging in empty buncombe, and that they know it. If any such doctrines as are now broached in Illinois about the duty of judges should be adopted by any political party at the West, Western men may rely on it money will become scarcer in that region than they have ever seen it, and that they will be troubled with no new railroads, or any other new thing requiring capital, for a long time to come. Even the wild talk that has been indulged in has already had its effect on the money markets. Of the proposition to make all railroads, with their present accommodation as regards tracks, stations, etc., haul all cars that may be offered them "at reasonable rates," we shall only say of it that it strikes us as childish, but perhaps we are mistaken. As regards uniform rates of freight, some evidence was taken on this point before a Government Commission in England in 1866, apropos of a proposal to have the Government purchase the railroads and manage them on this plan, which was very interesting. The evidence showed that one great feature, and a very valuable one, of the management of the English lines by the companies, was what was called its "elasticity"—that is to say, the rates were adapted to the peculiar needs of manufacturers and producers along the road. Men who forwarded great quantities of freight to London from a distance were accommodated at low rates, partly because of the small proportional amount of handling required by their goods, and partly because they could not otherwise carry on business at all, as a uniform rate would give a monopoly of the market to those nearest London and near the sea. In this way an enormous amount of industry is kept alive in all parts of the country, which under a uniform-rate system would perish. Railroad managers or business men can be trusted to make these discriminations under the guidance of their own interest, but the Government could not.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

GEO. ROUTLEDGE & SONS have in preparation a new work by George MacDonald, called 'Gutta-Percha Willie.'——Mr. George H. Felt, to whose forthcoming work on 'The Kaballah of the Egyptians' we made some reference last year, has himself assumed the publication of it, and may be addressed for information or by intending subscribers at No. 47 Liberty Street, in this city.——Hurd & Houghton announce a uniform edition of the complete works of Lord Macaulay, at a low price, but in a very handsome style. There will be sixteen volumes at $36, or (students' edition) eight volumes at $14.——Judge Thayer's memorial discourse on the late Dr. Lieber, noticed in No. 411 of the *Nation*, has been substantially reproduced in German in the *Weser-Zeitung*, beginning with the weekly issue of May 10 (New York: E. Steiger).——We learn from the *Academy* of the successful formation of an "English Dialect Society," which already consists of about forty members, the subscription being half a guinea per annum. Full information of the Society's objects may be had by addressing Rev. W. W. Skeat, Cintra-Terrace, Cambridge, England.——No. 4 of the *China Review* (Jan. and Feb.) has for its opening article an interesting account of Tauism, and, as Dr. Ernst Faber's 'Lehrbegriff des Confucius' is reviewed at length in the same number, the reader gets a fair idea of two of the three great schools of Chinese doctrine. The "Adventures of a Chinese Giant" are brought to a close, being entertaining to the last; and we can also commend the papers on Chinese Verse and Chinese Almanacs.—— *L'Année Géographique* for 1872 may now be had of Mr. Christern. The post of honor in its résumé is justly assigned to Mr. Stanley, whose "intrepid Odyssey" is briefly narrated. Three maps accompany this rich treasury of geographical information—one, of the great lakes of Central Africa, to illustrate Livingstone's discoveries; another, of the San Juan Archipelago; and a third, of Joseph Halévy's travels in Arabia.——A work which will interest mothers, on 'Infant Diet,' by A. Jacobi, M.D., is announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons.——Holt & Williams will publish from advance sheets Louisa Parr's new novel, 'Hero Carthew,' as one of their

Leisure Hour Series.——The new Oratorio Society of this city, of which Dr. L. Damrosch is conductor, has met with excellent success in filling up its membership, which now amounts to eighty. Dr. F. A. P. Barnard has been chosen President, and Dr. F. Zinsser Vice-President.——A revised edition of the works of William H. Prescott, the historian, will shortly be begun in monthly parts by Lippincott & Co. Mr. John Foster Kirk will be the editor.

—The latest noticeable event in the history of Central Park was the unveiling, on Saturday last, of the new fountain on the border of the Lake, near the head of the Mall. We wish we could congratulate the fifty or sixty thousand people who daily use the Park on the acquisition of this work, for it is too conspicuously placed not to compel attention; but it is of a character to call for protest. The Park already contained so many pieces of unsuccessful statuary in proportion to its valuable possessions of this kind that there was a very general agreement among those who thought about the matter that the public would have been the gainer if, from the beginning, all statues whatsoever had been rigorously excluded. In that case, we should have lost one or two good works, but we should also have lost the gas-fitters' "Commerce," the singular "Auld Lang Syne," the "Morse," and half-a-dozen other things which will be in fashion when flowers and trees and grass have ceased to please, but, as the joke goes, not till then, and for which, in the meantime, everybody would be glad to see substituted the flowers and trees and grass and other natural beauties of the place. In many ways this fountain is bad. The author of it began by deciding that it would be agreeable to associate in thought a cool fountain of sweet water beautifying a pleasure-ground with the Bethesda "pool by the sheep market," and surrounded by a great multitude of the blind, halt, withered, and impotent. That orthodox critics make the angel of this pool to be the mere invention of a copyist, and entirely without true Scriptural warrant, is perhaps not to be objected against the artist. However that may be, this objection is swallowed up in the general objection to bringing in the sheep-market pool at all. The execution of the idea is as bad as the choice. The lower basin is simple and pleasing, but all else is clumsily feeble or feebly and conventionally pretty. We have said that the work is of a character to call for protest; really, the character of the works of taste approved of late years by our Park authorities cry out for a transfer to this city of the misdirected energies of our various sophomore classes. An intelligent and indiscriminate use of gunpowder would be the true criticism for most of them.

—Common men, as they read their mail matter, have no notion of the remarkable and curious nature of some of the letters which their editor daily reads. This reflection is made in view of two letters before us at the moment—one printed by the editor of *Nature* in the last number of that periodical; the other an impassioned appeal, in manuscript, addressed to ourselves. Our correspondent begins with some judicious remarks about the ability of this journal and the discernment habitually displayed in its columns in the discussion of numbers of hard and intricate questions. One question, however, we have left unsolved, he thinks, and he requests for it unprejudiced consideration. We observe that the editor of *Nature*, in his somewhat similar situation, took the resolution of turning over his enquiring correspondent to another correspondent, who answered the enquiry at once and in a manner to save space, as his reply will in all probability cut short off a possible controversy. The enquiring correspondent first "supposes a case," and then wanted to know something. His supposition was as follows: "Suppose," he said, "a strong man is suddenly struck dead by lightning"—certainly not so hard a supposition as that a strong man should be gradually struck by lightning. However that may be, the man being dead, what then, says the correspondent, "has become of the potential energy he possessed the instant before he was struck?" "To this," says the editor, "we have received the following reply," and he prints half a dozen lines from his other correspondent, who, in effect, tells the enquirer that if he wishes to become possessed of the potential energy in question the best thing he can do is to go and eat the corpse; "the great bulk of potential energy would be got," he says, "by anybody who chose to eat the body." The problem offered for inspection by our own correspondent we shall in like manner turn over to our readers. To use "Celestius's" own words, "It is ethnology." What baffles him, he says, is that men such as himself, for example, and we, the conductors of this journal, should be held to be of the same stock as "the Bosjesman who lives in dirt-holes, the Jonny Wawa who grovels in mud and filth, the ignorant Ibo who mutters his inarticulate prayer to sun, moon, stars, and stones," the grunting Saboo, and several other persons, whom he describes in a tone of such bitterness as would alone determine us against attempting to settle the difficulty in which "Celestius" finds himself. It indicates plainly with what extreme reluctance he would accept our decision should it chance to be against him. Indeed, in the case of "that Alfourian," who comes next after the Ibo, "Celestius" would probably yield only to force; "that Alfourian," he says, "with flattened face, transverse nostrils, thick lips, mouth and jaws like a bulldog's, teeth projecting, and eyes like an alligator's, his ears round, pendulous, and flapping"—a poor enough picture assuredly, be it of editor, correspondent, or distant relatives of these. The description of our aboriginal Americans, too, is harsh, and shows traces of having been composed since the opening of the Modoc troubles; it is not the calm, carefully matured work of a trained statesman. Some of the adjectives render it unsuitable for publication, we regret to say. However, the character and scope of the problem which has given pause to the mind of our correspondent is evident enough without further quotation. His eloquence deserves illustration, and Mr. Roscoe Conkling, that purple earthquake of oratory, and Mr. John A. Bingham, may have themselves begun no better than this:

"Shall we class with these the beauties who luxuriated in the hanging gardens of Babylon, the beauties who walked and revelled in the olive groves of Academe, and those who sat enthroned in the imperial palaces of the Cæsars, and those who hold sumptuous festivals in the gay salons of proud France, merry England, and glorious Columbia? Did Bosjesmen, Wawa, Alfouro, Papuas, Australian, Feejee, Nasty Jack, and Eskimo spring from the same common mother as the beautiful Helen of Greece, Cleopatra of Egypt, Joanna of Aragon, Rosamond of England, Mary of Scotland, Boadicea of Wales, and the pretty, talented belles of Columbia?"

—Officers in our army and navy, both those of the line and those of the staff, and particularly the latter, who have been in the habit of thinking themselves aggrieved by their position relatively to the line officers, will be interested in a little pamphlet recently printed in London (T. Richards, 37 Great Queen Street). It is entitled 'Notes towards the History of the Medical Staff of the English Army prior to the Accession of the Tudors,' and it is the work of Dr. W. R. E. Smart, C.B., Knight of the Legion of Honor, and Inspector-General of Hospitals and Fleets. It contains a good deal of information, and, besides its interest for army and navy men, it has some interest for general readers of history. English medical history begins, says Dr. Smart, in the year of our era 43, when Claudius landed in Kent, took command of the army of Aulus Plautius, and, crossing the Thames, took Colchester (Camalodunum) by siege. The Senate in the next year decreed him a triumph, the title of Britannicus, with remainder to his infant son, and bestowed honors on his military followers. Among these was Scribonianus Largus, *medicus*, who afterwards wrote a book of formulæ for the composition of medicines, which had the honor of being quoted a century later by Galen. We may add that if Dr. Smart will look at the sixth chapter of Sir Thomas Brown's 'Vulgar Errors' he will see that Galen was not alone among his professional brethren in being indebted to Dr. Smart's Roman friend: "Marcellus Empericus," says Sir Thomas, "hath word for word transcribed Scribonius Largus De Compositione Medicamentorum"—the same Marcellus being no better than a determined plagiarist: "he hath not left out his very peroration," says Sir Thomas, "but cleanly conveys the whole work." In the Saxon period our author notices that in 993 a decree of the Lateran Council degraded surgery by forbidding ecclesiastics to practise it, as "involving the shedding of blood," and he points out that the barbers, skilful in the use of cutting instruments, and much associated with the priests, naturally fell heirs to them as surgical practitioners. Over this period Dr. Smart passes lightly, though not without quoting some curious medical prescriptions and surgical formulæ laid down by the Saxon leeches; and later, but before beginning upon the strictly military aspect of his subject, he traces briefly the changes introduced into the practice of the healing art, and the rise of the "myre," the "physician," and the "apothecary," the establishment of schools of medicine, and the fostering of the corporate bodies of barber-surgeons. 'Domesday Book,' which dates from twenty years after the battle of Hastings, mentions two medical attendants who were in the train of the Conqueror, and who reaped, as the reward of their services, broad acres enough to reconcile the youngest assistant-surgeon of our day to service under Admiral David Porter himself. Twenty-three holdings had Nigellus, *medicus*, first of British military doctors, direct from the crown, of which one of six holdings in Wiltshire contained nearly four square miles. In all, nearly 8,000 acres of taxable land Nigellus held from the crown, as well as eighteen hundred from Count Roger de Montgomery; and in addition to these, he owned many mills, salt-pits, fisheries, ponds, rights to fatten swine in the forests, and four fair houses in Southampton. These latter, indeed, may probably have been put into his hands to be used as the first of British military hospitals. But it is in the time of Edward I. that we come upon the regular medical staff. The wardrobe accounts of that monarch's expedition into Scotland in 1300 would astonish the Annapolis Academy. We find the *Phisicus regis* and the *Cirurgicus regis* each getting the pay of his contemporary admiral of the royal fleet; while each *valettus* of the king's physician and surgeon had the pay of a captain at sea

and of an esquire (*scutifer*) in the army on land. Later, at the time of Agincourt, we find the wages of the physicians and surgeons somewhat lower, but still above those of an esquire, who received a shilling a day, which was the pay of an assistant surgeon. The reader will wish that Dr. Smart's 'Notes towards a History,' etc., etc., may be digested into an orderly and more voluminous treatise than he proposed to himself in the paper before us, which is a little confused in arrangement, and, of course, anything but full, for it was originally made to be read at one sitting before a medical society. Incidentally, Dr. Smart gives the authentic version of the famous story of Queen Eleanor and the poisoned wound of her lord, Prince Edward, with which Dr. Goldsmith has made so many boys and girls acquainted.

—'Onomatopœia in German' ('Ueber Klangmalerei in der Deutschen Sprache'), 1873, pp. 56, is the title of a lecture by the indefatigable Dr. J. G. Kohl, in the series of popular lectures edited by Virchow and Von Holtzendorff. The author does not undertake to go very deeply into the philosophy of language; in fact, some of his philological positions are rather untenable. But like everything written by Dr. Kohl, this lecture is very readable and full of feeling for the language of which he writes. One use may be made of it of which the author never perhaps thought. The ordinary student of German in this country toys a bit with Schiller and coquets with Goethe; if, over and above this, he (or she, perhaps we must add) can ask in fair German, "Have you the nails of the carpenter?" his education is completed and he "knows German." But he never really gets down to "hard pan," never masters the rich vocabulary, and leaves out of sight a large class of words not so common in books, sometimes bordering on a local *platt* and accounted vulgar, but always racy with a smack of Germanic soil. Perhaps nothing short of imbibing the language with the ear instead of picking it up with the eye can give the learned control of this rugged and homely element. But even the book-student can gather many ideas from Dr. Kohl's groups and combinations. One class of words in particular is neglected in the study of all languages—the interjections: in grammar they are banished to an obscure part of the book, and in teaching they play no part at all. But if we took a phonographic report of an animated German conversation, and cut out the interjections, half the light and shade would be gone, and the language would have an emasculate and foreign character. Dr. Kohl's illustrations of the different powers of Ah! Eh! Ih! Oh! Hu! will be found instructive, though a thorough treatment of this subject would require quite a book by itself.

ENIGMAS OF LIFE.*

II.

MR. GREG is an authority on political economy, and has never made any claim to be a great moral or religious teacher, yet the success of his book has been due mainly to the essays on theological topics. For one reader who has studied the remarkable critique on Malthus or the original speculation on the "Non-survival of the Fittest," ten have read and reread the essays entitled "De Profundis and Elsewhere," which, though interesting, are not in themselves the best specimens of Mr. Greg's power as a thinker. The explanation of the interest excited by Mr. Greg's theological views lies partly in the taste of the day, for a very slight knowledge of current literature shows that "intelligent readers" have an absolute passion for theological controversies. If any one doubts this, let him consider whether any political question whatever would have raised as much discussion amongst the English public as was recently excited by Professor Tyndall's enquiry whether there was any reason to believe in the efficaciousness of prayer. A prevailing fashion explains something, but it does not explain the whole of the interest felt in Mr. Greg's theological doctrines. His success is, after all, mainly due to those qualities of his mind on which we have already insisted. Outspokenness and common-sense are rare enough in all fields of speculation, but they are certainly more rarely exhibited in the province of theology than elsewhere. Mr. Greg's peculiarity is this: he applies to religious problems exactly the same qualities which he brings to the solution of social enigmas. He does not, like most persons, change the tone of his voice when he comes into church, and therefore his sermons, even if not in their essence original, arrest attention because they are delivered in the tone of a sensible layman, and not in the artificial voice usually adopted by preachers of all descriptions. The following passage is remarkable in itself and betrays to an intelligent critic the secret of Mr. Greg's influence:

"It was my lot to inherit from Puritan forefathers the strongest impressions as to the doctrines of religion at a time when the mind is most plastic and most tenacious of such impressions, . . . and though I recognize as fully as any man of science the hollowness of most of the foundations on which these impressions were based, and the entire invalidity of the tenure on which I held them, yet I by no means feel compelled to throw up the possession merely because the old title-deeds were full of flaws. The existence of a wise and beneficent Creator and of a renewed life hereafter, are still to me beliefs, especially the first, very nearly reaching the solidity of absolute convictions. The one is almost a certainty, the other a solemn hope, and it does not seem to me unphilosophic to allow my contemplation of life, or my speculations on the problems which it presents, to run on in the groove worn in the mind by its antecedent history, so long as no dogmatism is allowed and no disprovable datum is suffered for a moment to intrude."

The view here laid down is open to much criticism of various kinds, but no one can dispute that the statement of Mr. Greg's belief possesses independently of its intrinsic merit or demerit several noteworthy features. The most prominent is its deliberate clearness. You know what the writer believes, and why he believes it, even though you may hold his belief erroneous, and the grounds on which he supports it untenable. Now, contrast this for a moment with half the theological literature of the day, and you will at once perceive the rareness of Mr. Greg's outspokenness. Mr. Arnold's 'Literature and Dogma,' for instance, has some points of similarity, and many more points of contrast, with Mr. Greg's 'Enigmas,' but in nothing are the books contrasted more than in the care with which one author keeps in the background and the other thrusts forward the nature of his own belief. Mr. Arnold's work has merits of its own, but even admirers can hardly deny that the author's own position is in the strictest sense of the word ambiguous. We have heard of a lady who holds 'Literature and Dogma' the great and satisfactory defence of Christian doctrine. We have certainly met with persons who considered the book atheistic. We are not ourselves concerned to settle the dispute between Mr. Arnold's orthodox and unorthodox admirers. Our whole point is this: that he, unlike Mr. Greg, but like almost all the authors of the day, makes his theology a sort of secret, though to many readers the mystery may seem to be an open secret enough. Take again a book which has excited considerable attention—the biography of 'Joshua Davidson.' The writer is constantly calling on the English world to speak out and say whether they are Christians or not, but the one thing the author himself or herself appears incapable of doing is following his or her own precept. The theme of the work is this: You must either be a Christian and then a communist, or a political economist and then not a Christian. But whether the writer holds that Christianity is right or political economy is right, is in words at least left a studiously open question. Recently, again, one of our ablest and most honest essayists asked definitely the question, "Are we Christians?" but after repeating the query with masterly lucidity for twenty pages or so, unfortunately omitted to give it an answer.

Now, from all this ambiguity and uncertainty, from this fatal habit of mystery and indefiniteness, Mr. Greg is free. He says in effect, in the passage we have quoted, I am a theist and I believe in a future life, but I am well aware that there is much to be said in opposition to my views, and that I am led to them, not so much by any one theory as by the results of my education and training, and in consequence of my general view of life. Now, one great advantage of this clear statement of an author's own belief is that the reader obtains one fact which is in itself of considerable value, that is, the fact that a man of ability whose judgment is worth listening to believes certain theories on certain definite grounds. This fact is itself of consequence, because it gives us information as to the beliefs of a whole host of persons. It is almost certain that the same feelings which consciously influence a thinker of ability, unconsciously and indirectly weigh with persons who have never, even to themselves, put their thoughts into the form of a definite creed. Mr. Greg's views may be right or they may be wrong, but we cannot doubt for a moment that they are the views of thousands whose sentiments are not fairly represented by the dogmas of confident orthodoxy or by the dogmas of equally confident heterodoxy. Of course, one's estimate of Mr. Greg's intellectual capacity must depend upon one's estimate of the ultimate truth of his theories, but his value as a teacher is to a certain extent independent of the validity of his doctrine. A teacher does much who makes men really see what it is they believe and why they believe it, and thus much at any rate the author of the 'Enigmas of Life' has accomplished. He has given precise expression to the real feeling of hundreds of educated laymen with regard to the existence of a deity and the chances of a future life.

Our columns are not intended for the discussion of theology; it is, however, open to a merely literary critic to point out what is the exact position which Mr. Greg, with the laymen he represents, occupies. His language might suggest for a moment that he held that falsest of all false creeds, that you may encourage yourself to believe dogmas which you know you have

* 'Enigmas of Life. By W. R. Greg.' London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

intellectually no satisfactory reason for believing. A careful consideration of his words shows that this is not so. What he urges is that the question, for example, of a future life is beset with difficulties. The arguments against it are strong, but if you yield to them you will find that you are still harassed by another series of arguments equally strong in its favor. In either case, you must be prepared to hold an opinion beset with perplexities. In weighing arguments on each side, you must let your decision be determined, not by sentiment, but by your general views of life and religion. We do not for a moment assert this position to be unassailable. What we do assert is that it is by no means obviously untenable, and that it is one constantly occupied by men of common sense with regard to problems of politics or society, no less than in relation to the enigmas of religion. Two doctrines play a prominent part in Mr. Greg's theological scheme. The first is the denial of divine omnipotence. "Half the difficulties," he writes, "which lie in the way of believing in a personal God as the ruler as well as creator of the universe, are of our own making, and arise out of the inconsiderate and unwarranted use of a single word—*Omnipotent*." His argument amounts briefly to this: Pain and sin are facts the existence of which is undeniable. You may reconcile their existence either with a belief in divine goodness or with a belief in divine omnipotence, but you cannot reconcile it with the belief at once in the absolute goodness and in the absolute omnipotence of God. Now, to disbelieve in divine benevolence is to destroy religion altogether. To question the boundlessness of divine power is simply to get rid of a notion arising from our lax use of words, which leads us to confound power to which we cannot place a limit with power which is absolutely infinite, *i. e.*, with omnipotence. Of the existence of omnipotence we have, he further urges, no proof whatever. His conclusion, therefore, is that we may save our faith in divine goodness by rejecting a quite gratuitous hypothesis as to the extent of divine power. His second great dogma is that the ordinary belief in eternal punishment is not only erroneous but absolutely gratuitous, and hides from view the really important fact that if men exist for ever their faults are sure to bring their own due penalty, and that there is therefore no necessity for inventing a hell for the punishment of offences which will as certainly entail their own due and just punishment as a tree will bring forth the fruits it is suited to bear. Now, any one will at once remark that these two dogmas are in no way whatever peculiar to Mr. Greg. They must have suggested themselves again and again to any thoughtful person occupied with religious problems. Mr. Greg, however, makes them in some sense his own by the clearness with which he expresses them and the force with which he drives them home. To use an expressive piece of legal slang, he "labors" his points as to omnipotence and as to the true nature of future punishment with infinite assiduity and with a great deal of skill. On each matter he says something which is certainly worth saying, if only because he gives expression to thoughts which hundreds of men have entertained, but perhaps only one here or there has put clearly into words. His reflections, indeed, upon the true penalties which await sin in a future life form some of the best pages in his work, and read like an expressive passage from a striking sermon.

But if Mr. Greg's treatment of the doctrines we have summarized exhibits the strength, it also betrays the weak point, or, to speak more accurately, the limitations of his mind. It is, for example, characteristic of an intellect which is logical, rather than philosophical, to believe that something very like a verbal distinction can get rid of a substantial metaphysical and theological difficulty. Grant, if you like, that the lax use of the word omnipotence has led to confusion and error. Point out further what no one can doubt, that there is great difficulty in reconciling the conceptions of the perfect goodness and the absolute omnipotence of God, the question still remains, why is it that thinkers whose acuteness can hardly have failed to detect both the confusion and the difficulty on which Mr. Greg insists, have nevertheless clung to the belief in the omnipotence of the Deity? The answer surely is that, though by giving up this dogma you avoid one class of difficulties, you yet involve yourself immediately in a whole host of other perplexities. Now, we do not for a moment assert that Mr. Greg may not be right in holding that the wisest course is to cast aside a notion which has little moral value and certainly opposes hindrances to a belief in the doctrine of natural religion. What we do insist upon is that Mr. Greg has never even realized, and has still less disposed of, the problems which arise the moment you conceive the Deity to be a being of limited power; and further, that it is extremely characteristic of Mr. Greg's intellect wholly to overlook the considerations which might be opposed to the validity of his own easy method of solving a great riddle. If, again, you take his views of a future life, you will perceive that his mind is limited not only in respect of intellectual breadth, but also in respect of imaginative power. As long as he dwells upon the future penalties of sin, he is, if not always conclusive, yet, to use a term of the pulpit, powerful. When he attempts to describe the rewards of virtue and the futurity of perfect bliss, he is more wordy and magniloquent than impressive or eloquent. No great blame need attach to him for his failure to describe what, considering the nature of human faculties, is perhaps indescribable. But we confess that Mr. Greg's own difficulties in drawing a picture of heaven might have made him, to say the least, a more lenient critic of the writer of Revelations. There may be something to be said, no doubt, as to the Oriental metaphors used by the Seer of Patmos, but we doubt whether his work would, looked at even from a merely poetical point of view, have gained much if, for the gorgeous imagery in which it abounds, we substitute allusions such as Mr. Greg apparently desires to "gentle streams, and shady groves, and woodland glades, and sunny valleys, and eternal mountains, and the far-off murmur of a peaceful ocean."

Still, though neither breadth of view nor a poetic imagination is a power with which Mr. Greg is endowed, and though where such powers are needed he almost inevitably fails, the great effect which his book has produced, and we venture to predict will produce for some time to come, both in England and America, may well give him a justifiable satisfaction, and is sign of a healthy public feeling. He has spoken with firm and manly good sense on the very subjects to which good sense is most rarely applied, and the public have readily recognized the voice of a teacher who says what he means and means what he says. He has not succeeded, and he did not expect to succeed, in solving the deepest problems of theology; but he has succeeded in forcing the attention of the world to the very enquiries which laymen and clergymen alike are apt, under one excuse or another, to dismiss from their minds. Thousands of persons who have heard sermon after sermon unmoved and inattentive, will at least be forced by Mr. Greg's book to ask themselves whether they have or have not any real belief worth calling a conviction on such subjects as the future existence of the soul or of the nature of the life which awaits it in another world. It is a great achievement to have compelled a busy and frivolous generation to recognize at any rate the existence of the "enigmas of life."

MAGAZINES FOR JUNE.

THE *Catholic World* prints many good articles in the course of the year, but the ambassador's warning against too much zeal might be pondered with advantage by some of its contributors. The gentleman who this month civilly refers to Martin Luther as "the beery monk of Wittenberg" and "the sensual reformer," we may single out for particular mention, for we feel sure that his fine Roman hand we have observed before, and that his habit in writing is to consult too little the interests either of good manners or of controversial effectiveness. In both these respects he is of very bad example to the weaker brethren, whose zeal and hunger for polemics are often apt to need less of fanning than of tempering and allaying. "Archheresiarch"—another term of endearment which he applies to his enemy—might have answered every purpose, one would say; and reference to the great reformer's drinking habits, and to Catharine von Bora, we must consider entirely uncalled for. It is Catharine, we suppose, who is meant when her husband is charged with sensuality. These indecorous expressions we find in the first page of an essay entitled "Jerome Savonarola," of which we may remark in general that it goes into that class of the *Catholic World's* articles which have this much of value, at all events—that they give to the common run of readers an unaccustomed point of view, and so are likely to be of service. Another such article is the story translated from the German of Joseph Edward Charles Bishoff, a writer of Roman Catholic novels, as we gather from a biographical notice prefixed to the story. 'The Trowel or the Cross' is the title of this production. The first chapters we have read with a renewal of a feeling often experienced before in contemplating the troubled life of the European—a feeling, namely, of thankfulness that our own lot has been cast on a virgin continent, where but few of the more desperate social problems need be fought out in our day. This quarrel, for instance, which is set forth in 'The Trowel or the Cross' it is our posterity who will have to fight out, and not we. And if Mr. Bishoff is half a prophet, a most fearful job our wretched descendants are going to find it. The "trowel" of his title-page stands for freemasonry, and the "cross" for religion, and especially for that form of religion which is represented by the Society of Jesus. Between these two forces there is to be a relentless and terrible conflict, for which the masonic lodges are already preparing; and that they are not without some well-grounded hope is made manifest by what we overhear one of Mr. Bishoff's personages saying to another as they walk secretly in the forest:

"The lower orders must be indoctrinated by our masons and apprentices; our newspapers must confuse and alarm them concerning the claims of the infallible Pope. Besides, the German emperor is a free-

mason, the Crown-Prince of Germany is a freemason, all the ministers of our country are freemasons, and many ministers of other German countries are freemasons. In Spain, we are already so powerful that the grandmaster, Zorilla, gave the royal crown to a prince of his own choice. In Rome, for 1800 years the seat of the popes, the 'Grand-Orient' of our order will erect his seat above the chair of an imprisoned and helpless Pope. As I have already remarked, affairs are everywhere so propitious to our cause that the trowel will surely conquer the cross!"

Both the Emperor and the Crown-Prince are free and accepted masons, then, but a third interlocutor by-and-by remarks to the two whom we have already seen that "neither William nor Fritz" is aware of the real object of the masonic "world-union"; "neither dreams that after the downfall of the altar follows that of the throne," and that in obeying the grandmaster's orders in warring upon religion they are really digging a pit in which they will themselves be whelmed. The foes most feared by the worthy devisers of these schemes are naturally the good Jesuits. "If the spirit of freemasonry is to obtain the victory," says the grandmaster, "then the Jesuits must first be exterminated by every possible means." To this decree, however, some of the grandmaster's subordinates are inclined to object; that is to say, they admit that the Jesuit is the enemy of the mystic order, and the bulwark of the church, and as such must be put down; but they think that probably the dissemination of science may be depended upon to destroy Jesuitical power, and that thus the slaughter or banishment of these popish pioneers may be rendered unnecessary. The grandmaster, however, disposes very summarily of this notion by calling attention to the fact that as for science the Jesuits just know all about it, and he intimates that were issue to be joined on that ground the masons and the secular world generally would find that the wrong passenger had been waked up. No, the Jesuits must flee or die; and they had better die. The discussion goes on at some length, and at last it is thus closed by the Herr Professor, from whose language, moderate a mason as he is disposed to be, we may learn what would await us had not the followers of St. Ignatius been vouchsafed us for our need:

"'Well, professor,' enquired the grandmaster, 'are you at last convinced that the Jesuits must be first driven out, and that this can only be done by force?'

"'I am not convinced of your last assertion; but yet I submit, in obedience to my oath as a freemason, most worshipful grandmaster,' replied the professor. 'I shall endeavor, in my sphere of labor, to be restlessly active, so that we may attain our great end. I shall do my best to destroy religious faith in all the young men confided to me, by appealing always to the light of science. Our universities of the present day are justly considered to be the most successful mothers of religious unbelief. To the destruction of altars, to the downfall of thrones, to the universal fraternization of all nations by means of a universal republic without a God, without heaven, without hell; for liberty in our pleasures, for liberty of will, for liberty in life and death, shall my whole strength be dedicated in submission to the rule of our order!'

"The grandmaster nodded his head approvingly."

By all this it will be seen that Mr. Joseph Edward Charles Bishoff is an intellectual giant, and that it was in a happy hour that he set himself to the labor of producing lifelike works of fiction.

The poetry of the June number of this magazine consists of the Ninth Canto of Dr. Parsons's 'Purgatorio'; a sonnet by Mr. Aubrey De Vere, entitled "The Music of the Future," and expressing the hope or the belief that poetry may become more religious; a "May Carol," from the same hand, in which poetry has become religious and remains fine poetry; and a copy of verses to a "madonna," who is named for the Virgin Mary, who is addressed as a young woman is usually addressed on the subject of love and kisses, and who turns out to be a child. It is an unfortunate little exemplification of false taste.

The *Galaxy* opens with Mr. Justin McCarthy's account of M. Gambetta, whom Mr. McCarthy admires, and that to the extent of showing that M. Gambetta is at his best when he is addressing and captivating twenty thousand people at an open-air meeting in a French provincial town. Why not eighty or ninety thousand, is not stated. Still, in spite of this sort of exaggeration and similar evidences of haste, Mr. McCarthy continues to unite more fluency on more topics of a certain kind with more safeness of assertion and reasoning, than any other magazine writer of his calibre. In this way he is quite a wonder.

Other articles in the June *Galaxy* are by Mr. W. L. Alden, a pleasant humorist, who, however, is here rather tragical; Mr. John Burroughs; Dr. Coan; Mrs. M. H. W. Pumpelly, the mother of the well-known traveller; General Custer, whose "Life on the Plains" is more readable than usual this month, though not at its best, nor ever quite worthy of the General's opportunities; Mr. Cranch and others, among whom are Colonel J. F. Meline, whose long and careful discussion of the Iron Mask mystery we have already commented on, and Mr. De Forest, who continues his "Wethered Affair." Had we not recently been urging the desirability of courteous and moderate language in criticism, and so recently that any slip on our own part would at once be noticed, we should here set down some extremely strong remarks about these latest chapters of Mr. De Forest's story. They certainly call for condemnation. How a clever writer could permit the advent into his work of so extraordinary a creature as the Fulton Market schoolmistress exceeds our comprehension. Dr. Coan's article is an examination of the modern notion of the "sacredness of human life." He quotes Wilson (Kit North) to the effect that "there is many a humble dog whose life far transcends in value the lives of many men, women, and children"—a sentiment, as Dr. Coan remarks, which seems of quite heathen quality to most of Wilson's readers, but which a greater Scotchman than Wilson, and an equal dog lover, Scott, may well enough have held. Something like it he puts into the mouth of another famous Scotchman, Claverhouse, who in a way was not a sentimentalist, dear as his shade is to a certain order of sentimentalists. Our author notes the curious fact that the economic value of men, as ascertained ten years ago in three or four different markets, was about a thousand dollars. That sum or a little more would have covered the cost of an average negro field-hand; it is about the sum which a careful estimate puts upon the head of each family of German emigrants; it is about what was paid as bounty money to each of our recruits during the civil war, and may be taken to represent the value of the man to the War Department, and also to indicate how much he considered his risk of losing his life to be worth. But as to this last method of making the calculation, one might hesitate to accept the inference. It was not to promote longevity, indeed, that our volunteers went to the front; but probably not one in ten of them who took the bounty money expected that his life would be lost, or looked upon the money as what the risk was precisely worth. Probably the thousand dollars as little represented the value set upon life or risk by the "substitute" who took the bounty as it represented the value which the purchaser set upon his own.

Mr. "Philip Quidlibet," reviewing portions of Mr. Adams's eulogy of Mr. Seward, points out that a plausible surmise in reference to Mr. Seward's later career would be that in the evening of his life his interest passed from the internal affairs of state to the international. And on quitting office, he at once made a tour of the globe. The writer also remarks upon a passage in Mr. Seward's history not brought out in Mr. Adams's address, though upon one result of it Mr. Adams animadverted rather sharply: Mr. Seward, he said, was allowed to retire from public life with fewer honors than if he had been the most insignificant of presidents. But the extremely exasperating and, we may say, pig-headed course of President Johnson had thoroughly, and to a great extent justly, angered the people, and of this course Mr. Seward had for years been the apparent abettor; indeed, he was open in apology for Mr. Johnson, and in some of the least edifying performances of that most unedifying of Presidents, Mr. Seward, to the mortification alike of his friends and foes, was in public association with him. We need hardly wonder that he went out of office with no attendant demonstrations of applause.

"The French Imbroglio of 1793" is the title given by Mr. Parton to the latest pages of his biography of Jefferson. It is readable; unless, indeed, one's moral indignation at Mr. Parton's way of handling his facts and one's intellectual dissatisfaction with the deeps of the Partonian philosophy get the better of one's pleasure in the lucidity and rapid movement of the narrative and the author's singleness of purpose and eagerness. These qualities of Mr. Parton's style and spirit are so effective, that were there no such things as judges knowing in the law and juries with a prejudice in favor of facts as they are, Mr. Parton might be described as a good advocate, dangerous to historical truth, and useful to his clients. As it is, we expect no marked failure of justice by reason of his appearing in court. Nevertheless, it is not in nature to relish some of his exhibitions of partiality. For example, Hamilton being no friend of Jefferson, and being of a temperament and turn of mind the opposite of Jefferson's and oppositely useful to the state, it is roundly asserted that "he could be false to women for the same reason that he could disregard the will of the people. He did not look upon a woman as a person and an equal with whom faith was to be kept, any more than he recognized the people as the master and the owner whose will was law. Original in nothing, he took his morals from one side of the Straits of Dover and his politics from the other." We need not examine the large assortment of sweeping generalities here gathered into half a dozen sentences. But the matter of fact which "throws light upon his political course," and proves that he thought "woman not a person," and so on, is this: An exceptionally dirty and deplorable rascal offered to sell to Hamilton's political enemies some letters which would show that the Secretary of the Treasury had at one time had some pecuniary transactions of some sort or other with the disreputable person then offering the letters

for sale; presumably, said the Jeffersonians—and it was not said in a corner, nor under the breath, but with all the clamor possible on earth—presumably these pecuniary transactions involved the Secretary of the Treasury in the illegality of speculating in the public securities. Investigation followed by a committee of Congress; the members of the committee were perfectly satisfied as to the true character of the relations between Hamilton and the man Reynolds, and so reported; but one of the Congressmen took notes of the interviews with Reynolds and Hamilton, and these by mischance fell into the hands of an anti-Hamiltonian pamphleteer. What that gentleman did with them the imagination will readily picture. He published them, and the sharp correspondence which ensued between Hamilton and the Congressman who had originally taken the notes not proving satisfactory to the former, he put forth a very famous pamphlet. In this he showed with a curious frankness that he had allowed himself to be entrapped by a couple of blackmailers, of whom the wife had seduced him and the husband had extorted money as the price of silence, and continued extorting it in small sums until Hamilton at last wrenched himself free from the precious pair. Confessing the miserable truth about this harpy five years after she had taken flight, is being "false to woman," says Mr. Parton. It was a very unsavory business, much to be regretted, but what there is in it to justify Mr. Parton's political and psychological reflections, the reader can see.

We have been requested to point out a marked resemblance between the *Atlantic's* poem called "By the Shore of the River" and a poem published some years ago by a Miss Nancy Priest, and called "Over the River." In both the river is the river of death; in both there is a boatman who ferries the dead to the other shore; in both the other shore is fairer than this; in both there is a wayfarer who has seen many loved ones cross over, and who, apparently, is now willing, and more than willing, to cross over also. Such then being the general similarity of idea in the two poems, we give from each some lines which fairly show the degree of resemblance in the details and the phraseology. The *Atlantic's* poem speaks thus:

"Silently came a black boat o'or the billows;
Stealthily grated the keel on the sand;
Rustling footsteps were heard through the willows;
There the dark Boatman stood, waving his hand,
Whisp'ring, 'I come, o'er the shadowy river;
She who is dearest must leave thee for ever.'

"Suns that were brightest and skies that were bluest
Darkened and paled in the message he bore.
Year after year went the fondest, the truest,
Following that beckoning hand to the shore,
Down to the river, the cold, grim river,
Over whose waters they vanished for ever."

Miss Priest's thus:

"Over the river the boatman pale
Carried another, the household pet;
Her brown curls waved in the gentle gale,
Darling Minnie! I see her yet.
She crossed on her bosom her dimpled hands,
And fearlessly entered the phantom bark;
We felt it glide from the silver sands,
And all our sunshine grew strangely dark;
We know she is safe, on the farther side,
Where all the ransomed and angels be:
Over the river, the mystic river,
My childhood's idol is waiting for me."

To secure a verdict of plagiarism in this case would be difficult, even had we evidence that the later of these two writers had before him while in the act of writing his poem the poem of his predecessor, and had deliberately modelled his own upon it. If there is anything of which all poets are free, it is the skiff of Charon and the river of death and the promised land to which their friends have gone before.

Mr. Robert Dale Owen, whose account of his school-days in Switzerland was so pleasing in last month's *Atlantic*, writes agreeably in this month's magazine concerning his voyage down the Rhine, and some of his father's friends and some of his father's vagaries, which last were beginning to be flagrant at about that same period. "The Hare and Many Foes," by Mr. C. D. Shanley, and "Danish Society—its Revival," by Mr. Clemens Petersen, are fresh and readable; and fresh, without being particularly readable, is "The Three Marys of Sharpsville," of whom, however, housewives will like to read. Mr. Howells's "Chance Acquaintance," with its very engaging Miss Kitty, comes to an end—and an end that will please the many gentlemen who have taken a deep interest in Miss Kitty's disposal of her affections, and who early recognized in young Mr. Arburton what his English friends would call "a cad." "Miss Mehetabel's Son" appears to be a rather insufficient and unskilful working up of a good idea.

In *Harper's Monthly Magazine*, Mr. Charles Nordhoff has a brief essay in which he asks "What Shall we do with Scroggs?"—Scroggs, as his name perhaps indicates—being an habitual criminal. Alaska, as a penal colony, is the right place for him, Mr. Nordhoff thinks, and there he should be placed under guard, "in a position of stern adversity," to use the words of Captain Maconochie, "from which he must work his way out by his own exertions, by diligent labor, and a constant course of self-command and self-denial."

Forty Years at Raritan. Eight Memorial Sermons, with notes for a history of the Reformed Dutch Churches in Somerset County, N. J. By Abraham Messler, D.D., Pastor of the Church of Raritan. (New York: A. Lloyd.)—The eighth of these memorial sermons embraces a retrospect of forty years of service in a single pulpit, and, for those who listened to it, the bare statistics of the work of the pastor and the work of death in the congregation during that long period must necessarily have had an interest and a meaning of which the ordinary reader is hardly capable. To have survived all but five or six of the men who, as heads of families, were concerned in making out his call and effecting his settlement as pastor; to "have married persons, baptized their children, received them into the communion, and again baptized their grandchildren"—such has been Dr. Messler's experience, and the obvious reflections which grow out of it furnish the substance of his quinquennial discourses. Of much greater permanent value and general interest are the Historical Notes which make up the second half of the volume. These are a useful contribution to the civil as well as ecclesiastical history of New Jersey, and deserve a fuller index. None of the ministerial biographies equals in interest that of the first pastor of the Raritan churches, the Rev. Theodorus Jacobus Frelinghuysen, who, in culture, force of intellect, and liberality, has furnished a lasting example to his successors, and who was the ancestor of the family which in our politics has acquired a national reputation. There are a few good anecdotes, as of the absent-minded Rev. Mr. Van Harlingen, who always rode on horseback, and at church had a particular post to which he uniformly fastened his horse. This suggested to certain mischievous youngsters the prank of substituting another and more frisky animal for his own, with the result which had been anticipated, though the good man was able to dismount before being thrown. To guard against any similar deception, he ever afterwards carried in his pocket a piece of chalk, with which he marked the saddle under the flap. The following extract from Dr. Messler's eulogy of the Rev. Dr. How, a native Jerseyman who had preached four years in Savannah, is curious reading now:

"He naturally venerated the past, and loved to read the writings of the reformers. He loved them so much that he had no patience—perhaps this was his fault—with pretensions to new things. When the discussion on slavery opened, he took the ground that in itself it was not sinful. He had been in the South, and sympathized with the Christian people there. He knew well how conscientious and beautiful the character of many of them was; and it revolted all his feelings of justice and propriety to hear the bitter denunciations heaped upon them by men who were not worthy to unloose the latchet of their shoes; and, like a noble man as he was, he defended them earnestly and like a Christian gentleman. . . . He was a powerful preacher, and gave to his hearers the very marrow and fatness of the Gospel" (p. 222).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*	
American Educational Readers; four grades	(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)	
Bird (J.), Protection against Fire	(Hurd & Houghton)	$1 50
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George (Rev. N. D.), Universalism Not of the Bible, 2d. ed.	(Nelson & Phillips)	
Crafts (Rev. W. F.), Through the Eye to the Heart	" "	
Hadley (Prof. J.), Essays, Philological and Critical	(Holt & Williams)	
Howells (W. D.), A Chance Acquaintance	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Houghton (Lord), Monographs, Personal and Social	(Holt & Williams)	
Hall (Rev. J.), Questions of the Day	(Dodd & Mead)	1 75
Huber (Dr. J.), Die kirchlich-politische Wirksamkeit des Jesuiten-Ordens, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Jannasch (Dr. R.), Der Musterschutz des deutschen Reiches, swd.	" "	
Der Markenschutz des deutschen Reiches, swd.	" "	
Kohl (Dr. J. G.), Ueber Klangmalerei in der Deutschen Sprache, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Laugel (A.), L'Angleterre Politique et Sociale, swd.	(F. W. Christern)	
Mayer (P.), Ueber Sturmfluten, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Nippold (Dr. F.), Ursprung der altkatholischen Bewegung, swd.	" "	
Norris (Mary H.), Fräulein Mina	(Nelson & Phillips)	
Oncken (Dr. W.), Das deutsche Reich, 1872, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Peters (Dr. C. F. W.), Die Entfernung der Erde von der Sonne, swd.	" "	
Pollard (Josephine), Gipsy's Early Days	(Nelson & Phillips)	
Richmond (Rev. J. F.), Diamonds, Polished and Unpolished	" "	
Rösch (Prof. W.), Ueber das Wesen und die Geschichte der Sprache, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Sanger (G. P.), Statutes at Large, XLIId Congress, 3d session, swd.	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Smedley (F. E.), The Colville Family: a Tale, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	0 50
Lorrimer Littlegood	" "	1 75
Southgate (H.), Gone Before	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Studer (J. H.), History of Columbus, Ohio	(Robt. Clarke & Co.)	2 00
Sweetser (H.), The Ministry We Need	(Am. Tract Society)	0 75
The Work-shop, No. 5, swd	(E. Steiger)	0 50
Zell (T. E.), Descriptive Hand-Atlas of the World, Parts 14-25, swd.	(T. Elwood Zell)	

Fine Arts.

THE DI CESNOLA COLLECTION.

TEMPLE-RELICS FROM GOLGOI.—II.

ONE clear date, in relation to the authority of Assyria over Cyprus, is afforded by a stele discovered at Larnaca, among the ruins of a rich edifice, and now in the museum in Berlin, representing Cyprus as paying tribute to Sargon, a king reigning in the eighth century before Christ. At this epoch commercial relations were cultivated between the Assyrians and Cypriotes, and among the products exported from the isle were sculptures in stone, for which of course the artists must have studied the taste of the grand monarchy. A multitude of the figures betray this Asiatic authority.

A splendid image, nine feet high, and in perfect preservation, gives in its most seductive form the impress of Chaldean hieratic influence. It is the colossus with the fluttering dove. The arms here are detached from the sides, and hold forward in one hand a libation-cup, in the other a dove whose wings are spread; the bird was fastened to the hand with two square wooden pins, and in like manner the forearms were attached to the figure with similar bolts easily replaced. An Assyrian face, softened to the utmost allurement of voluptuous good-nature, is covered with the familiar helmet-like bonnet of Cyprus, here richly embroidered; the beard is heavy and curled, but the six slender and effeminate ringlets escaping from the cap fall down as low as the armpits. The small mouth (without moustache) has been tinted red, and there is a trace of color on the necklace. The robe is bordered and flounced, but the feet are bare. The artist in this case has worked to the very limit of his ideal, and the head, in its own style, is of unsurpassable excellence. One is strongly tempted to claim this, not as a priestly, but as a divine figure, the perfected symbol of the creative power, Hermaphrodite Venus, whose worship was centred at Amathunta, on the southern coast of Cyprus. Among the smaller images, several of this deity are seen, divided by Mr. Newton into two types. The fair giant of nine feet was found in the night between the 6th and 7th of March. Another of heroic proportions, now placed on the right as you enter, and opposite the enormous head, is in perfect preservation and of thorough but rude finish, and entirely Asiatic in character; the enormous arms, bare but for their double bracelets, are extended stiffly along the sides; in statues of a later date this attitude is always explained by sacrificial accessories—a sprig like a *goupillon* or sprinkler, and a covered box, easily carried so as to show that it does not contain a liquid, and presumably filled with incense or perfume; here, however, the hands are empty, though closed; the feet are bare, and the narrow garment reaches them; the curled forelocks and beard give the face an Assyrian impress, but it retains the Cypriote family look, and on regarding the profile one is surprised at its Jewish character; an artist would consider it a godsend, for this barbaric, country king, worshipping Ashtoreth candidly and stiffly among a hieratic family of greater polish, is the satisfying image and ideal of Solomon.

The statues are all in a light-gray or drab calcareous stone found in Cyprus, and were doubtless painted; the fine earth which enclosed them, and which was found almost as much compacted as the ashes of Pompeii, and which could be liberated only after repeated soakings from the sculptures it amalgamated with and preserved, had, however, absorbed almost all trace of color. Of the same stone were the flags, which were neatly squared and some four inches thick.

It is impossible even to indicate the endless vagaries into which the types and their combinations drift. The changes rung upon the Egyptian and Asiatic character are varied to the most capricious extent; in the older styles the hair is lightly treated, or not at all, and the beard indicated only by its fan outline and the engraved trace on the cheek showing the limit of the beard-case. A livelier manner of treating the capillary features is, however, soon apparent, though still conventional; they are rudely massed, and then covered with a pricked pattern resembling *bonneterie* or knitting-work; the whole cheek will be wrought with this fine reticulation; a circumflex plaster of it will indicate the moustache, or the brows will be formed of arches in bas-relief, made up of a herring-bone pattern; the eyebrows are, notwithstanding, sometimes engraved in intaglio, each hair radiating appropriately. The *bonneterie* treatment merges very steadily and gradually into the Assyrian wealth of short curls, and there is a large head where the frisette on the brow is in a transition state, deeply honeycombed in a squarish zigzag pattern; this soon becomes the snail-shell ringlet of the Chaldean figures from Nineveh. The multitude of physiognomies becomes less interesting and more like the contents of antique museums as it undergoes the Hellenic influence. This makes the features cosmopolitan, and deprives the countenance of its strong localism; a throng of heads appear in the characters of third or fourth-rate Greek art, showing infinite variety of type and coiffure. As the wreath displaces the bonnet as a sacrificial equipment, the hair becomes elaborately curled, imbedding the crown of myrtle, of palm, or of ivy-leaves and corymbi of the berries. Instead of the encased beard, the helmet-cap with jugularies tied ornamentally in front, we have the smiling features of a large-eyed acolyte ten years old, crowned with leaves like the palm or willow; one remarkable miniature head with beard encased wears the modern Turkish turban of many convolutions; one, with enormous frontal development, is bald, its defect concealed, in the style of Cæsar, by a wreath. The distinct Hellenization of parts of Cyprus is first related in connection with the heroic period, when Teucer is said to have brought settlers from the Attic island of Salamis after the Trojan war. Far anterior to him, legend provides a Phœnician colonizer in the person of Cinyras, the founder of Paphos. Egyptian authority in the beginning of the nineteenth dynasty, if not perhaps two centuries earlier, in the time of Thothmes III.—Assyrian with Sargon—afterwards the Persian and Macedonian—these varied influences were bent successively on the island, leaving indelible traces on its religion, its art, and its industry. Towards the close of the Peloponnesian war, a native Cypriote king, Evagoras I., endeavored to imitate the splendors of Athenian civilization; and to his epoch we may attribute some of the sculpture which strikes the eye as a sort of provincial Greek. The archæological interest of the museum here begins to wane, making a last standpoint, however, at the fine figure of a Hellenic priest, heroic size, his brow banded with the snail-shell curls, a suspicion of Cypriote sensuality in the deeply indented corners of his mouth, but in general bearing and likeness a Greek sacrificer, robed in priestly draperies, carefully elegant, the signet on his ring-finger, the incense and aspergillum in his hands.

One is naturally desirous to believe these strange hieratic figures as ancient as possible. It must be remembered, however, that religious art had the habit of keeping to old types from a sentiment of reverence, and that not all the heads with Egyptian head-dresses can fairly be assigned to the days when Abraham and his progeny were patriarchal sheikhs.

The worshippers who filled the modest temple of Golgoi with statues, tablets, and votive images were not all marine monotheists. Besides Venus, the temple offered sanctuary, as a Catholic church its chapels, to various intercessors. Hercules and Apollo were the favorites. The former is represented over and over again in all sizes. A fine large image of him in Egyptian workmanship shows him coifed with the lion's head, and clasping to his body his club and bow; the block supporting this statue has a highly curious painted bas-relief representing the same hero killing the dog Orthros (provided here with three heads), and taking away the cattle of Geryones from Eurytion, who defends them; the treatment here is modified Assyrian, indicating a difference of epoch between the divinity and the pedestal. Geryones, with six limbs and three shields, is very common. Among the smaller images of Hercules, one curiously shows the lappels of the Egyptian cap escaping through the jaws of the lion's head forming the helmet. Of the painted tablets in low relief which decorated the walls of the temple, some are very curious, and one, of Greek spirit, represents Apollo Musagetes, seated, a cup in his right hand, his lyre leaned against his knee, receiving the homage of eleven dancers, while a symposion is going on in a corner where six wreathed persons recline and drink. The conflict of race and religion becomes more confusing as the collection is gradually separated in the mind; here are Greek heads fit for Jupiter, yet with something indescribably Eastern about them, and with set curls recalling the effeminate bust of Jupiter Trophonius at the Louvre. Here is a life-sized archer drawing his bow as he kneels; a broad quiver embossed with a lion's head is at his side; the work is free and modern, the attitude identical with that of Teucer on a coin. The Persian influence, forbidding rather than encouraging the representation of human figures, is not to be looked for among the statuary; but here is a pair of lions seated back to back in high relief, and under them the familiar winged globe. The lions resemble early Greek work like the well-known lions of Mycenæ, but the winged globe is on fire, with spreading rays; may this not point to the fire-idolatry of Persia?

Besides its stone devotees, the shrine was furnished with temple-shaped lamps, and hung with a vast quantity of votive objects like the waxen features preserved in Catholic churches. Fingers, hands with a perforation at the wrist, a hand with a poppy-pod, ears set with ear-drops and perforated in the centre, pairs of eyes, bouquets of jonquil, and a dove as large as a hen, are some of the curiosities preserved; but these are among the cabinet objects, which, including General di Cesnola's splendid *trouvailles* in the cemeteries at Idalium, we must reserve for a future notice.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JUNE 2, 1873.

THE week in Wall Street has experienced no change from the extreme dulness of the previous one. Money has remained easy at 3 to 7 per cent., with the ruling rate at 6 per cent. Business in commercial paper has been dull, with a gradual settling of rates to 7 per cent. for prime, and 8 per cent. for good mercantile names. The failure of Messrs. Dodge & Co., lumber dealers, spoken of in our last, seems to have caused no great feeling of distress, the troubles in that business being entirely confined to the different firms composing the combination then referred to. The change in the Presidency of the French Republic caused no excitement in our different markets. The minimum rate of discount remains unchanged at the Bank of England, and stands at 6 per cent. The Bank gained £129,000 in bullion this week. The bank statement for the week ended May 31 is favorable, the banks having gained $846,925 in their net reserve. The decrease of $1,150,600 in specie is more than offset by a gain of $1,579,400 legal tenders, while the liabilities of the banks in the shape of circulation and deposit show a decrease of $1,672,500.

The following are the statements for the weeks ending May 21 and May 31:

	May 24.	May 31.	Differences.
Loans	$279,846,300	$277.958.800	Dec. $1,887.500
Specie	20,682.600	19,482,000	Dec. 1,150.600
Circulation	27,493.800	27,447,100	Dec. 46,700
Deposits	209,762,300	208,136,500	Dec. 1,625.800
Legal tenders	42,752,900	44,332,300	Inc. 1,579,400

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	May 24.	May 31.	Differences.
Specie	$20,632,600	$19,482,000	Dec. $1,150,600
Legal tenders	42,752,900	44,332,3 0	Inc. 1.579,400
Total reserve	$63,385,500	$63,814,300	Inc. $428,800
Circulation	27,493,800	27,447,100	Dec. 46,700
Deposits	209,762,300	208,136,500	Dec. 1,625,800
Total liabilities	$237,256,100	$235,583,600	Dec. $1 672,500
25 per cent. reserve	59,314 025	58,895,900	
Excess over legal reserve	4,072,475	4,918,400	Inc. 846,925

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$239,729,000	$38.229,800	$277,958,800
Specie	17,769.200	1,712,800	19.482,000
Legal tenders	39,496,800	4,835.500	44,332,300
Deposits	180,016,400	28,120,100	208,136,500
Circulation	27,404.100	43,000	27.447,100
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	27 61-100 p.c.	23 25-100 p.c.	27 9-100 p.c.

The suit of the United States against the Union Pacific Railroad Company and the election of a new board of directors in the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, have made the stocks of these two corporations fairly active; but with these two exceptions the market has remained in about the same condition in which we left it last week—dull. The tone of the market has been heavy, and prices on the speculative fancies were generally lower. Friday was a close holiday, otherwise the alarming despatches from Boston relative to the large fire which took place there on that day would in all probability have created an activity which would have been welcome to the brokers. But the Board was closed, and the holders of stocks were left "hanging by the eyelids" until later despatches arrived assuring them that things were not so bad as had been represented. The first effect of the result of the Pacific Mail election being made known was to send up the price of the stock 2½ per cent.; but at the advance holders availed themselves of the opportunity to sell, and the stock fell off to 39¾—the lowest point reached thus far in the present decline. The statement put forth by the Company is not favorably commented upon—in fact, not believed to be entirely true; it certainly misrepresents the value of its steamers, but this is but a repetition of what the Company has always done in making its annual statements. Union Pacific has declined to 25¼ in consequence of the commencement of the Government suit against the Company early in the week.

Prices of investment stocks have been firm on New Jersey Central, Delaware, Lackawanna and Western, and Delaware and Hudson Canal, and, weak on Michigan Central, and Chicago, Burlington and Quincy. There are rumors of a consolidation between the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad and the Delaware and Hudson Canal Companies. We have not yet learned any of the proposed details, but in case any consolidation is effected, the stockholders of the latter are justly entitled to, and will receive, a liberal dividend in equalizing the value of the two properties in the market.

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.	Saturday.		Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100⅜	100⅝	100¼	100⅜	100¼	100½	100⅜	100⅝		100½	....	43,200
Lake Shore	90⅜	90⅝	90¼	90⅜	90¼	90⅝	90¼	90⅜		90⅜	91	28,.00
Erie	62⅜	63⅛	62⅜	63½	6.⅜	63⅝	63¼	63⅜				11.700
Do. pfd	....	74	73	75	....	74½	71	74⅜				
Union Pacific	30½	31	25¼	30½	25¼	27⅜	26¾	27⅜		26⅜	27⅜	141 900
Chi. & N. W.	....	....	....	....	74	76½	75	....				
Do. pfd	85	....	....	85½	84½	85	84	85				100
N. J. Central	105½	....	105	....	105	....	105	105¼		....	....	800
Rock Island	107⅜	108¼	107⅜	108⅜	107⅜	108⅜	108⅜	108⅜		108¼	109	20,400
Mil. & St. Paul	54¼	54⅝	54	55¼	54½	55	54½	55		54⅜	55¼	12,600
Do. pfd.	73	73	72⅜	73¼	72½	72⅜	73	....		....	....	1.100
Wabash	68¼	68¼	67⅜	68⅜	67⅜	68⅛	67⅞	68		67⅜	68⅜	11.600
D. L. & Western	103⅜	103⅜	103⅜	....	104	....	104	104⅜		104⅜	105	4.600
B. H. & Erie	2¼	2½	2¼	2⅜	2⅜	....	2¼	2⅜		....	....	3.500
O. & M.	41⅜	41⅞	40⅜	42	40⅜	41¼	4.⅛	4.⅜		40⅜	41⅜	38,400
C. C. & I. C.	30⅜	30⅜	29⅜	31⅜	29⅜	30¼	29⅜	30⅛		29⅜	30¼	10.600
W. U. Tel.	84⅝	85⅛	84⅜	85¼	84½	85⅛	84⅜	84⅞		84½	85⅛	82.600
Pacific Mail	45⅛	46	4.¼	45⅞	41⅜	44¼	40⅜	44		39⅜	41	257,600

The Middletown and Willimantic Railroad Company is last on the list of railroad defaulters. Its bonds were brought on the market some two years ago by a prominent firm of Wall Street brokers with a blare of trumpets and the significant advertisement of *"to be sold at par and accrued interest."* Reckless management, extravagant engineering, suspected or known collusion between a certain professional official and contractors, particularly in bridge-building, so disheartened those of the bondholders who had any sense that the bonds were forced on the market by them until the price reached 70, from which it has now dropped to 32, with "no takers."

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending May 31, 1873

Advices from Europe are very unfavorable to the success of some of the American railroad loans which have recently been taken over there for negotiation. Old and well-established enterprises coming on the market for loans, either to take up existing mortgages or to renew equipment and superstructure, meet with a favorable reception; but new matters, particularly of the kind known by the euphemism of construction companies, have no show whatever, and are very properly regarded as would be an association of burglars for the division of stolen plunder. Affairs such as that of the West Shore and Chicago, lately spoken of in these columns, are already reported to have been totally and ignominiously declined by European capitalists, who rather curtly and exactly characterized it as a new "Crédit Mobilier," without the appliances or ability that made the old one successful in fraud.

We hear that the coupons on the bonds of several new roads in the West will be passed when next due, and the fact is getting to be well established that we have been building more rapidly than the business of the country warranted. In all probability a large number of new enterprises will have a hard time of it for the next year or two.

Firmness has characterized the market for United States bonds, although the transactions in them for the week have been quite small in amount. $5,000,000 of the called 5-20's have been received at the Treasury in Washington for payment, and advices from London report the arrival in that city of the Treasury officials with $10,000,000 of the new 5 per cent. bonds sent out for the Syndicate. The resumption of the payment of the interest upon the bonds of the State of Louisiana has caused an advance of 5 to 6 per cent. in their market price. The land grant and income bonds of the Union Pacific Railroad Company have declined seriously, in consequence of the Government suit before alluded to.

The gold market has not been so active as might have been expected considering the large purchases made by the gold clique alluded to last week. The market has apparently taken care of itself. The rates for borrowing gold show no indication of a "corner." The Government disbursed last week $3,936,200 for called 5-20's, against which it took in from customs $1,574,000 for the same period. The internal revenue receipts for the month of May amount to $12,330,000. The specie shipments for the week ending May 31 were $526,992, of which $484,992 were in silver bars.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 12, 1873.

The Week.

AFTER much scouting and surrounding, Captain Jack and all his principal confederates have been captured, and are now held in irons by General Davis, who, it appears, was making preparations to hang them summarily until stopped by orders from Washington. In the meantime, the Governor of Oregon has claimed them for trial by the civil courts of that State, Captain Jack's recent murders having been committed on its soil. The Attorney-General has, however, given an elaborate opinion which makes the Modoc conflict with the troops "a war," and, of course, makes Captain Jack a belligerent, and his meeting with General Canby a parley under a flag of truce, and therefore makes the murders an offence not against the law of the land but against the laws of war, and recommends the trial of the prisoners by a military commission. Considering that Captain Jack is a roving vagabond and cut-throat who had unlawfully left his place of abode, and had been ordered back to it by the United States police, and that his army consisted of thirty or forty vagabonds and cut-throats like himself, the contrast between the facts of the case and the Attorney-General's ponderous deliverance on it is somewhat ludicrous. It would seem to be time enough to accord Captain Jack "belligerent rights" when he asks for them, and when justice or fair play seems to require them. But in addition to this, we think experience has now abundantly proved that the sooner the Indians are made to understand that they are held to the same obligations of industry and good order as other people, and exposed to the same penalties, the better. The trial and execution of Captain Jack and his men by the civil authorities would have the good effect of bringing home to the Indian mind the fact of a power behind the soldiers far mightier than the soldiers, and not to be eluded either in lava-beds or anywhere else.

A contemporary suggests that as Ohio is this year to elect a United States Senator, General Schenck would do well to come home and try his chances, the Senate being a much better place for stock operations than the Court of St. James, "and the commercial morality of the United States being sufficiently represented abroad without him." It adds that it cannot conceive of the names of Mr. Dallas, Mr. Adams, or Mr. Motley, predecessors of Mr. Schenck, appended to "the prospectus of a bogus silver mine." It thinks that Mr. Schenck has survived his usefulness as our diplomatic agent in England. All this is apropos of the appearance of an open letter addressed to the American Minister by an English holder of Emma Mine stock. This gentleman calls General Schenck's attention to the following facts: that he signed the original prospectus of the Emma Mine Company, which offered about 70 per cent. dividends; that when people objected that shares in a mine which were going to produce dividends like that would not go begging for buyers, they were answered that all that was true enough, but that this affair was entirely exceptional, and that the American Minister's name would not be risked in any enterprise of a doubtful character; that when afterwards he wrote a letter withdrawing his name for reasons of state, this letter was published by the Company as an additional voucher of the correctness of the prospectus and accompanying reports; that the mine has in fourteen months yielded, not at the rate of £700,000 annually, but at the rate of not quite £74,000, or about one-tenth of what the prospectus promised; that not only has the whole value of the mine disappeared, what is left of it being pretty much all limestone and not silver, but there is a debt of more than £50,000, and the original owner threatens seizure; that the mine was all but worked out when it was put off on the Englishmen; that the stock has dropped from £33 a share to £4, with no purchasers, and so forth; and so forth—a dismal list of items for the unhappy stockholder, who naturally does not spare America and Americans in his strictures.

What makes it worth while to keep this matter before the public is that General Grant, with his unfortunate obtuseness in regard to certain considerations, now selects one more Ohio statesman to honor the diplomatic service. We do not say that we suspect that General Schenck had any deliberate intention to deceive and defraud his British stockholders; but it is apparent that, honest or dishonest, he was so ignorant of the proprieties and duties of his office, or he was so boorishly regardless of them, that he went headlong into an indecent blunder. Of similar thickness of skin is Mr. John A. Bingham, who goes out as Minister to Japan. For twenty successive years he served in Congress, and he saw fit to close his career by supporting Butler's back-pay measure and by an equally hardy defence of himself for purchasing and holding Crédit Mobilier shares. It is true that his constituents had just remanded him to private life. And it is true, too, that he had no reason, so far as we have ever heard, to think that his course in these two cases would not be overweighed at the White House by his services on the Grant stump last summer, which certainly were zealous and worth a mission to anywhere. We remember his pleading the Fifth Commandment as pertinent and conclusive in the matter of Mr. Casey's custom-house and Mr. Kramer's Danish mission, and so on; while as for General Grant's single-handed payment of the public debt, he used to swear, almost with tears, that the like of it had never been seen in ancient or modern story. One possible qualification for the Japanese mission he has: he has no master in what the late Nicholas Biddle used to call "Western orientalisms" of oratory. And also, if all reports are true, there are fine opportunities among the Japanese for putting in practice his notions of the degree of commercial activity compatible with official decorum. So we may hear from him any day.

We have commented elsewhere on the election of the farmers' candidate to the Illinois Supreme bench. The Chicago *Tribune*, in analyzing the causes of this election, says that while it is due in great part to the blind desire of the farmers to take revenge on the Supreme Court and the corporations together, it is also due to several other causes which it would be worth while for the public to notice. The Princeton Convention, which nominated Mr. Craig, was captured by a number of politicians and railroad employees, who had no interest in the farmers' troubles except as they might furnish a means of livelihood or plunder; and after this had been done, the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, one of the most powerful corporations in Illinois, finding how things were going, supported, if not actively, at any rate by non-resistance or other indirect means, this very farmers' candidate; their reasons for doing so being apparently either that Craig was really their attorney, or else because they knew their man, and they dreaded the influence on their interests of the honesty and intelligence of Judge Lawrence, the judge whom the farmers opposed because they thought him the friend of these corporations. Besides this, there was a petty local dispute between the towns in which the rival candidates resided, and the vote in these towns shows that this dispute was much more operative on the minds of the voters than either the question of the integrity of the judiciary or the appeals of the farmers. The contest seems to have resulted, according to the *Tribune* account, in the election of a judge about whom no one knows anything, and who labors under the somewhat grave suspi-

cion of having sold himself to the party he was running against, even before the vote was taken.

The most remarkable incident of the week in this part of the world has been the murder of Mr. Walworth by his own son, in the coolest and most deliberate manner. The father, although a son of the late Chancellor Walworth, appears to have been a worthless person, who had maltreated his wife, and thus compelled her to separate from him, and had for some years pursued a literary career in New York, composing poor serial novels for obscure papers. During this period, however, he appears to have kept up his persecution of his wife in one form or another, but principally by writing her insulting or threatening letters, some of which fell into his son's hands. This son, a lad of nineteen or twenty, had naturally espoused his mother's cause, and last week asked his father to meet him at his room in a hotel. According to his own story, at the interview which followed, he requested the father not to annoy his mother by writing to her or otherwise during a visit which he (the son) proposed to make to Europe this summer, and the father promised accordingly, but subsequently made use of some scornful or offensive expression or gesture, which led to the son's at once shooting him with a pistol. As he fired four shots, he most probably discharged two, if not three, of them into the father's prostrate body—which is probably the severest punishment a parent ever received for impoliteness towards his offspring. The son then walked down-stairs and told the hotel clerk with perfect coolness what had occurred, and asked to have a waiter sent up to look after his father's remains, conceiving, we presume, that under the peculiar circumstances of the case he was discharged from that duty himself. He then telegraphed to his uncle that he "had shot father," and enquiring the way to the police station, and having been politely directed to it by the clerk, walked off to it, and requested to have himself taken charge of. He has ever since displayed the utmost calm, and declared himself, before the coroner's jury, "guilty of no crime." Indeed, he has exhibited all the marks of one of the most hardened villains that have ever come before a court of justice, and we would advise his friends to let him wait for trial quietly, just as he stands, and without any of the attempts at whitewashing or exciting "sympathy" which were unfortunately entered on in some quarters last week. They will not get this community to discuss with them whether it is not sometimes lawful for a youngster to butcher his father for annoying his mother, and they may rouse indignation that will deprive him of a fair trial, and deprive his family of the deep commiseration to which they are entitled on every possible ground.

The Court of Appeals has unanimously granted Stokes a new trial on a variety of points, only two or three of which have, at this writing, come down by telegraph. The principal ones are the judge's charge that the law presumes murder from the fact of killing, and his ruling in excluding proof of Fisk's threats to kill. Of course there is no disputing with the Court of Appeals, but as Stokes is going to be tried a third time for a murder committed publicly a year and a half ago, the lay public are naturally asking themselves whether some mode of bringing criminals to justice cannot be devised which will contain fewer traps for the judges. It would seem as if a judge would have to be a man of more than human wisdom and acuteness to get safely through our present criminal procedure to a conviction. The news of Stokes's respite has, we are told, produced "great enthusiasm" among the other murderers in the Tombs, who feel that it is not so bad a world after all, and apparently, in spite of the reports of the anti-capital punishment men, seem to cling to life with considerable tenacity.

The Boston insurance companies have taken the trouble to "investigate" the recent fire in that city, and report to the municipal authorities a state of affairs which is in the last degree disgraceful. The Committee appointed by the companies finds that "in the city proper there are but seven steamers," that "for each steamer but three men are permanently employed." The remainder of the force, "when an alarm is given, may be two miles or more away." "As a rule, the hose-carts are attached to the steamers, instead of being drawn by horse-power separately." The Committee also finds that the water-pipes in the business streets are too small, and do not furnish an adequate supply of water; that the "hydrants are insufficient in number and capacity"; that the "supply of hose is much too limited"; that "the Fire Department has not the right of way in the streets"; that teams and trucks are liable to block up the streets, "drive over and disable the hose, obstruct, hinder, and prevent the firemen from doing what, under more favorable circumstances, they might accomplish." The Committee adds: "We also regard your system of giving alarms as defective."

The Committee further report, that "by your system of city government, there appears to be no one man or no one department responsible; that in many things the Fire Department is subordinate to the City Committee of Aldermen and Common Council; and that defects cannot be remedied, or supplies purchased, except by a circuitous route through the various branches of the city government, in which delays are liable." The Committee suggests that the city government had better act promptly, for if it does not, the insurance companies will, as an act of self-preservation, "pursue the only remedy within their reach—cancel their policies, and discontinue business in Boston; and this course is now being seriously considered by many companies, among which are some of the largest insurance companies doing business in Boston." Meantime, they give this advice to the owners of property: "Each man look to his own buildings, see what can be done to protect against fire; each block organize a protective company." The officers of the Boston Fire Department have also held a meeting. They agree with the insurance companies as to the "right of way" and the "insufficient supply of water," and say that if there were any truth in the cry that the Fire Department is unequal to an emergency—which they greatly doubt—the responsibility would rest not on the department, but on the system by which it is governed. Gradually warming to their work, they passed a resolution endorsing themselves and declaring that the efforts lately made to throw discredit upon the management of the department are "unworthy of those claiming the title of gentlemen."

To turn to another side of this question, we may say that if the insurance companies had taken ordinary precautions three or four years ago in enquiring into the character of the risks they were issuing, they might have prevented both of the Boston fires. The competition between insurance companies has been for a long time fierce. The main object of each company has been to insure more people than its rivals, without any regard to the great danger which, experts were telling them, hung over our large cities. The "National Board of Lake Underwriters," comprising all the companies engaged in the business of "lake and inland" underwriting, and representing $16,000,000 of capital, met at Cleveland, Ohio, on the 5th inst., and has issued a circular signed by nineteen companies, and addressed "to merchants, bankers, and others who require the protection of insurance capital." This circular says that although it is a "notorious fact that for years past the premiums received on the lakes have not been sufficient to meet the losses incurred, nevertheless many underwriters, in their avidity for business—and some no doubt to make large commissions—have forgotten that business cannot be done below cost without a retribution at some future time." It therefore announces that the Lake underwriters will "no longer lend their means and influence to practices which must eventually result in great injury to all concerned," but are going to return to "the old tariff of 1872." This old tariff was one "which long experience has demonstrated to be the minimum rates at which the business can be safely taken." They recommend the insured to look a little more

closely into the value of their policies—advice which is certainly worth taking, considering the frightful losses by fire in the last few years, and the collapse of companies after the Chicago and the first Boston fire.

We can all remember how important was the defeat of Senator Hawley by Mr. Ferry, last spring. The white hat was flung into the air, for Liberal Republicanism had begun, Radical defeat was "in the air," and the downfall of the party of hate was assured. The party of hate, on the other hand, was naturally furious over the "treachery" of the Republican representatives who bolted from the caucus, and were very bitter and scornful over the "professors" who thought caucuses tyrannical. The Democrats were greatly jubilant, for here was possible proof that the grand coalition was to win. But the true explanation of this event is now said to be this—and we commend it to the attention of all persons who still lend ears to the tale of the beneficence of the great Republican party, and the enormously vital issues which it still represents. General Hawley is a Hartford man. Both Hartford and New Haven are capitals of the State, and both wished to remain such, while most sensible persons outside of those cities think that one capital is plenty, and that to support two is nonsense. So to a New Haven man the Hartford man is as one who worships in Samaria and not in Jerusalem, and when Mr. Hawley came up for election he was not elected, for New Haven influence, cast in with the Democrats, secured Mr. Ferry's election. But this neat little manœuvre of the New Haven Republicans has wrought them woe in several ways recently, and now a crowning woe. First, they tried to nominate a New Haven man for governor. Hartford would have none of him, and, getting control of the convention, nominated a citizen of their town. New Haven trumped this card by refraining from voting for the Hartford man, or by voting for his antagonist, a worthy Democratic gentleman, and a citizen of their city, who was in consequence elected. At the same election they "swapped votes," and for the sake of getting friends of New Haven into the State Legislature, "killed" Governor English, the most popular Democrat in the State, as a Congressional candidate, and elected his Republican opponent to represent the New Haven district. Upon the meeting of the Legislature, then, New Haven found that she had exasperated both Democrats and Republicans all round, and that in punishment of her wicked devices and works, more than two-thirds of the Assembly were resolved to make Hartford sole capital. This decision is now reported as certain to be ratified by the people; and New Haven is in affliction. What is to become of the lobby, too, is a matter of serious concern. For some years that body has earned its livelihood by working on the terrors, now of New Haven, now of Hartford, and usually of both cities together.

A *Tribune* correspondent has been having a long interview with "Governor" Kellogg of Louisiana. Kellogg gives a flourishing account of the condition of the State; says that there never has been any real resistance to his government; that he is mainly occupied in reforming the finances which Warmoth had brought to such a bad pass, and in equipping and disciplining the militia. His method of restoring confidence may be inferred from his operations regarding the interest due last January and February on the State bonds. This overdue interest he recently gave notice would be paid, but, to avoid any difficulty about providing the funds, his Attorney-General went into equity, and procured an injunction forbidding the payment. Kellogg tells the *Tribune's* correspondent that asking for troops from Washington was not his own idea, but that "the people of the North" and some probably more easily identified persons at Washington had come to the conclusion that a civil war was raging in Louisiana, so there was nothing for it but to humor them. Louisiana will, as soon as Kellogg's army is mobilized, be one of the best States in the country for those to live in who understand its institutions, particularly its code (which Kellogg says is very peculiar), and who have no morbid or pedantic notions which tend to make them oppose Progress.

The only information as to the policy of the new French Government is to be found in a circular issued to French representatives abroad by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Duc de Broglie, in which he says that the foreign policy of M. Thiers will be maintained by his successors, and that it was not any fault found with it by the Assembly which led to his overthrow, but fears that he was not furnishing the country with sufficient guarantees against revolutionary attempts. There is nothing new in the situation of Paris. Everything is quiet, and Gambetta preaches peace and respect for law, and the probabilities are that we shall have a year or two of the present situation. It furnishes a curious illustration of the nature of this situation, and supplies some confirmation of the view we have taken of the real value of the late elections, that prominent members of the Right should say, as they are reputed to do, that they would have been satisfied to let Thiers alone if they could have had the appointment of sixteen prefects and thirty magistrates. This is, in short, another way of saying that the man who controls the French bureaucracy can to a large extent regulate the composition of the French legislature. It would be interesting to know, however, how long the Right thinks it can maintain a "government of combat" in a country governed by universal suffrage. The exceeding vagueness and mistiness of their plans were happily described by M. Thiers in his late speech, when he said, with a malicious sparkle in his eye, that "there was only one throne, and it would not seat three."

In Spain things have reached a more advanced stage of disorder. General Velarde, who was supposed to be doing good service in the province of Barcelona by reorganizing the army and quelling disturbance, has sent in his resignation, his troops having mutinied and put him and his officers to flight. We are told, however, that General Cabrinety is marching against the mutineers with a strong force, and he will doubtless make mince-meat of them if his "strong force" does not turn on him. The Carabiniers at Grenada, too, have had a good fight with the citizens of that place, but after five hours of it surrendered to the citizens, who must have had an agreeable day. At Vicalvaro the soldiers had a fight of their own, which also seems to have been a lively affair. Indeed, the Spanish army appears to be in a fine condition. Señor Figueras, however, is tired of this sort of thing, and, in the Cortes on Saturday, announced that his duties were too much for him, and that he must resign the Presidency of the Provisional Government, which he accordingly did. Before retiring, however, he moved the proclamation of a "Federal Democratic Republic," and the Cortes adopted his proposal by 210 to 2, but wisely rejected another motion to celebrate the event by a national holiday, foreseeing, perhaps, the possibility of having to proclaim some other kind of republic before long. A new ministry was formed, with Señor Pi y Margall at the head of it, and he submitted his list to the Cortes, which, after a violent debate, refused to accept them, and Señor Figueras and his colleagues were finally induced to resume their posts, only to be plunged into a fresh crisis on Tuesday. The finance bills proposed by the Government were rejected, whereupon the Ministers resigned, and Señor Figueras reported himself unable to form another Cabinet. Meantime, the Irreconcilables, or "Intransigentes," as the Spaniards call them, have issued a manifesto containing their programme, in the shape of drafts of about fifty "decrees," which propose a great number of sweeping changes, though not so violent on the whole as might have been expected. The most prominent feature in their political creed is hostility to parliamentary government, which they consider a mere humbug; they would have all legislation done by executive ordinances.

THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY AND ITS OPINIONS.

THE *World* has been occupied for several weeks in efforts to get "the Democratic party" to take up the question of free trade and make it the cardinal article of its creed. We have, in common with the rest of the public, watched these efforts with considerable interest, but solely as remarkable pieces of intellectual gymnastics. In fact, the debate it has been carrying on in its columns has been in the nature of those dialogues into which religious and moral teachers occasionally throw their exhortations to the young and their refutations of infidels, and in which the same mind supplies Mr. Jones's clinchers and Mr. Smith's feeble and ineffective replies. The *World* has searched the Union through for an antagonist who would maintain that the Democratic party ought *not* to take up free trade, and has found no such person. In fact, there appears to be in all parts of the country a painful readiness to treat the aims and intentions of the Democratic party as questions of lunar politics. If anybody were to get up and allege that the Democratic party ought to be a free-love party, or ought to advocate the exposure of female infants, he would have the controversy altogether his own way. Nobody would "roll back the ball of discussion" to him. Under these circumstances, there was but one thing for the *World* to do, and that it has done. It has carried on the argument with itself. It has filled the rôle both of an adviser of the party and of the party, and, we need hardly say, has carried everything before it. The party has hardly had a word to say for itself. It has been forced to acknowledge that it was a free-trade party from the beginning, and that even in its silliest moments, as when it nominated Greeley for the presidency, it was secretly working for free trade, and that the only thing now left for it to do is to work for free trade harder than ever.

The *World* is, we presume, somewhat surprised by the general want of interest in the discussion, as well as by the impossibility of finding an opponent. And yet, to us, the explanation of the phenomenon seems plain enough. Two causes combine to produce it: one is a widespread belief that the Democratic party no longer exists as an organization; the other, a decided unwillingness on the part of everybody, except the *World*, to answer for it in any way; and none of the shrewd managers or "practical men" are willing to say what it will or will not do, what doctrines it holds or rejects. If anybody, for instance, was to visit Mr. Tilden or Mr. Seymour today, and try to extract from him a statement of Democratic doctrine, he would fail totally. Neither of these gentlemen would venture on any description of its aims or beliefs, and, if pressed hard, would probably escape under cover of denunciation of the policy of the Administration in Louisiana. This, we need hardly say, is the natural consequence of the Baltimore performance. There was not in the whole category of political possibilities anything so improbable in April, 1872, as that the Democratic Convention would nominate Horace Greeley for the Presidency. The mere supposition contained every known element of absurdity, and yet the convention did this very thing in the July following, and did it with acclamation. Of course, the first effect of this was to render all prophecy about Democratic doings absolutely worthless, and to cause every man of ordinary discretion to abandon the business; the second was to destroy all interest in the sayings of persons professing to represent the party. A party is worthy study and observation solely as a body of persons supposed to hold certain opinions on great questions of public policy, and to be ready to express them by its nominations and at the polls. But if such a body, on a great occasion, declares that it has no opinions in particular, and is ready to support almost anybody who is likely to be elected, it would be folly to waste one's time watching it any longer; and this conclusion the press and public have, we think, fully reached. Consequently, even if a formal acceptance of the *World's* preaching were issued by the National Committee to-morrow, it would not produce the least impression on the popular mind. Why should it, when it would not afford the slightest guarantee that the party would not nominate Henry C. Carey for the presidency and distribute 'The Unity of Law' as a campaign document?

The fact is that newspapers, the *World* included, can find much better work to do than providing opinions for either of the existing political organizations. Neither of them has anything worthy of the name of a creed. The Republican party is held together as an organization solely by the possession of the Government offices. This makes it a real business concern, with accounts to keep, earnings to make, dividends to distribute, and claims to adjust. It consequently does not need opinions, and, to do it justice, makes no pretence of having any. Indeed, there is no body of political doctrine in existence which will furnish authority for the policy of the Administration in Louisiana, and yet the party papers all defend it. The Democratic party, on the other hand, or the headquarters, or "cadre," or whatever it is called, which represents the organization, is a mere debating club, in which any question which has two sides is welcome, but in which the discussions have no relation to the actual affairs of the day. Nobody whose business is the formation or moulding of public opinion need trouble himself much about the sayings of either of them. If the *World* can get enough persons to look at free trade as it looks at it, and rate it as highly as it does, a free-trade party will be formed in spite of everybody; and it is far better to do this, than to go about looking for employment for a decayed organization. So, also, it is a much more profitable occupation to try to bring the public to some general agreement about the principles on which this Government now rests, and the forms with which it should be surrounded, than to try to get the Republican party and its "Christian statesmen" to mend their ways. They cannot be made to mend their ways. But some consistent and coherent body of opinion about the nature of the polity under which we live, or ought to live, may be created, and will have to be created soon if at all, and this work must be done in the main by the press.

The country came out of the Revolution in a state of confusion which in some respects resembled that in which the late war has left us. New necessities, relations, and duties had been created by the struggle, and a new power had been created in order to carry it on, the limits of which, however, had still to be defined. The formation of a permanent government was a serious task, which it took several years to accomplish; but the men who engaged in it, and the people behind them, had an enormous advantage over us in the possession of a stock of deeply-rooted and firmly-held opinions or prejudices on certain leading points, such as the judiciary, personal liberty, taxation, standing armies, paper money, personal character; and consequently the problem they had to solve was not the adoption of fundamental principles, but the best mode of surrounding these principles with guaranties.

Our position is much more perplexing. We have lost almost completely the old ideal of judicial independence, and are actually getting into the way of electing judges to do the will of the majority by interpreting constitutions intended under the old traditions to protect the minority. We are so far at sea about paper money that we have not only used it lavishly, but we have used it to raise a forced loan (or, in other words, to tax a small body of persons without their consent); and are so far confused in our minds about the right to issue it, that this right has recently been claimed and exercised by one man without check or rebuke. We are supposed to be tenacious of State independence, and jealous of the interference of standing armies in civil affairs, and yet we look on calmly while the President allows troops to be used as a sheriff's posse to overturn a State Government. We profess to think highly still of personal character as a part of our political machinery, and yet many of our leading politicians have lately indulged in public lying without serious detriment, and Ben Butler is a hopeful candidate for the Governorship of Massachusetts. Now, the most striking characteristic of all this is confusion—the mixture of all sorts of processes and ideas, despotic, military, constitutional, semi-barbarous, civilized, pagan, and Christian, and,

bad as it is, it is not an inapt representation of the condition of public opinion, which, it must not be forgotten, is made up of contributions from a very heterogeneous body of persons, not fed, as the men of 1776 were, on Coke or Blackstone, but filled with all sorts of notions derived from all sorts of régimes—some from the canon law as administered by the priest of a Connaught parish, some from the paternal despotism of Prussian barracks, some from the ferocious rigors of Hesse-Cassel, and some from the whip-rule of the Southern plantation. In other words, to a large body of the American people, a considerable portion of the talk of our best men about government and legislation, the principles which should regulate them, and the conditions which should surround them, are jargon as unmeaning as the nomenclature of chemistry or geology. American public opinion has, in short, to be reorganized, and the press has to do it, and had better keep to its work.

THE "GRANGERS" AND THE JUDGES.

THE election of Mr. Craig to the judicial bench in Illinois by the "Grangers," for the express purpose of deciding a legal controversy in a particular way, is attracting considerable attention all over the country, and, so far as our observation has gone, has been condemned in strong terms by all the leading newspapers. Indeed, it is impossible to regard it as anything but a dangerous and virtually revolutionary proceeding, which must make all thinking men desire to keep clear of "the farmers' movement" in its present shape, however much they may sympathize with the hostility to the railroads in which it has originated. The election has been commented on very severely, and particularly by the Chicago *Tribune*, as a fresh illustration of the dangers of an elective judiciary. We do not remember, however, to have anywhere seen attention drawn to the fact that even as an illustration there is an alarming novelty in it. In the controversy over the mode of appointing judges which has been going on for the last thirty years, the advocates of the elective plan have enjoyed the enormous advantage of having at their back a popular theory of government, of great weight and capacity, which not only covered the case of judges, but the case of all other officers, and absolutely cowed their opponents, if not into complete silence, at least into half-hearted resistance. In 1846, a man who questioned the ability of "the people" to elect honest and capable judges found himself somewhat in the position of a man who, in the fifteenth century, should have denied the sacred origin of the king's authority or questioned his wisdom: doubting the popular fitness to choose judges was looked upon as an indication of disaffection to the whole principle of popular sovereignty and of a generally retrograde spirit. He could not easily get the question argued on its merits, or indeed argued at all, without enveloping his opinions on *all* political questions in a cloud of doubt and suspicion. It is true the theory on which judges were made elective was comparatively new, and was not American; indeed, as a writer in the Cincinnati *Gazette* pointed out the other day, it was simply a bit of French ideology, which had, circumstances favoring, and by a process with which we are now all familiar, been thoroughly worked into American political thought, and had become the stock-in-trade of a large band of young spouters, some of whom afterwards grew into wise and valuable men, but others, and a very large number of them, into good-for-nothing old "statesmen," with a keen eye for "management" and a cunning hand for "wires" and "pipe." But it *was* worked in very effectually, until indifference to popular favor, or want of suave manners on the bench, became one of the worst defects a judge could have. The consequence was that the opponents of the new system hardly ventured to speak out their full thought or utter their worst forebodings about its working. They declared their fears that judges would be somewhat influenced in their decisions while on the bench by a desire to stand well with parties or politicians when the time came for their renomination, and that consequently the examples of rugged virtue and independence which the old bench had afforded would no longer be seen. But nobody ventured to predict that constituencies like New York would put on the Supreme Bench obscene ruffians like Barnard, or drunken blackguards like McCunn, or sneaking swindlers like Cardozo. How could "the people" do such a thing? they would have been asked. Do not the people desire justice and love decency? In short, their objections were drawn rather from the probable, perhaps imperceptible, influence of their dependent position on the judges' own minds, than from any likelihood that the judges' constituents would deliberately put any strain on their integrity. An honest judge may be secure in the hands of the people, they said; but he will not *feel* secure, and his want of security will, in spite of him, affect his manner of discharging his judicial functions.

For a good while, political managers were a little careful in avoiding the appearance of throwing a judge overboard for his opinions. But even after this regard for decency had been given up, the objections made to a judge in caucuses and conventions continued to be general in their character. He was not in thorough sympathy with "the party," it was said; or his manners on the bench were offensive; or his opinions on some point of national politics were tainted with some form of heresy. If he was put aside and a new man was selected to fill his place, the latter was commended to the voters in language handed down from the days of tenure during good behavior. He was praised as a lawyer of learning and integrity, in the enjoyment of a large practice, and as distinguished for his philanthropic labors or his charity; and if his politics was spoken of at all, it was dwelt on simply as that of a faithful adherent of certain great principles.

Now, the novel and startling feature in the late judicial election in Illinois is, that all the disguises by which the absurdity and deformity of the elective system have hitherto been veiled, even here in New York, have been thrown aside. No pretence is made that Craig is a better lawyer than his opponent, or that he is a good lawyer at all, or that he is any suaver, or that he is "sounder" on any great humanitarian issue. Nor can it only be said, in opposition to him, that he is a weak or subservient or intriguing man, or one likely to be influenced in his judgments by political pressure or personal favor. What is said both for and against him is, that he has been chosen to decide, in a particular way settled by the caucus which nominated him, all cases arising in a question affecting the property of a large number of persons, so that, as has been pointed out, all arguments before him by counsel will be simply empty form. Now, this is a new and more advanced stage of that process of judicial deterioration which the elective system brought in with it, and it is entered upon without disguise by one of the most intelligent communities in the Union—that, in short, which it is admitted on all hands two years ago adopted perhaps the best State constitution now in existence. It is hardly necessary to point out the evils which this unfortunate performance foreshadows. If the people of Illinois do not repent it, of course it knocks the bottom out of their whole political system. It makes their constitution worthless—for a constitution interpreted by the majority at every election is so much waste paper. It renders the writ of habeas corpus and all the other guarantees of personal liberty of little or no value to anybody assailed by a strong tide of popular passion or prejudice, and it shakes the legal security of all property held in sufficient masses to attract popular attention or excite popular hostility, and must consequently keep the capital of all honest investors out of the State. Nobody with an ounce of prudence would put money in a place where his right to it, or the amount of his gains from it, would form the subject of discussion on the stump once a year and be settled by a popular vote controlled by secret caucuses, and all investors at home or abroad will do well to keep out of Illinois till the State chooses to set up an independent judiciary. For aught anybody can tell, the next move may be against mortgagees, and we may see judges elected to rule that all interest on such securities must count as part payment of principal. Of course these wild-cat decisions would probably not stand in the United States Supreme Court, but no wise man would care to have his future staked on the

result of a controversy between this Court and the people of a State.

We have said that the action of the Grangers has shaken "the legal security" of property in Illinois. It is not, however, likely to deprive the worse kind of railroad managers and other operators of all the security they need. There is nothing this class dislikes and fears more than the existence of an upright and independent judiciary, and there is no class more favorably disposed to the elective system. They have of late years made a regular business of controlling nominations for the legislature, and they have of late years taken to controlling nominations for the bench. One of their first moves in this State, when they began their "raids," was to purchase two or three judges, and it was through the help of these judges solely that they were able to carry on their Erie and other frauds. The best defence of the community against them, as we have seen here, is a pure and incorruptible bench. This, however, cannot be had under the plan now adopted in Illinois. A judge who takes a nomination under the conditions imposed by the Illinois Grangers is necessarily a base man, and deliberately prepares himself for perjury. It is folly to suppose that a bench filled with such men would be corrupt only with regard to the "issue" on which they were elected. They would be corrupt in everything in which anything was to be made by corruption. A judge's honor is like a woman's chastity—a single stain destroys it. Therefore, after the farmers have provided themselves with a thoroughly compliant bench, they will find that it will rapidly pass out of their control, and into that of the oligarchy of moneyed intriguers who have already so largely taken possession of the politics of the country. They would doubtless speedily drive honest railroad men out of the State, but their places would be taken by worthies who, whether in caucus, court, or legislature, would beat the Grangers utterly, and "capture" the judges as fast as they were elected, and convert the bench into a sink of open and unblushing and indecent corruption, like the legislatures of New York and Pennsylvania. Perhaps, under the fostering hand of these men, we should at last see the judges at the close of the term laughing over indignant denunciations of their frauds by members of the bar, and pelting each other with paper pellets or blowing tin horns as they adjourned the court. We need hardly say that what has occurred in Illinois is profoundly discouraging to reformers. That the first move against a gross abuse should take the shape of another and still grosser abuse, is very disheartening. It is, of course, to be hoped, and may perhaps be believed, that it is a mistake made in the first moment of excitement, which may yet be retrieved, but on this point the local press is more competent to speak than we are.

FRANCE.—THE EVE OF REVOLUTION.

PARIS, May 23, 1873.

IT is a strange and not altogether a pleasant sensation to write on events which are extraordinary, still developing, and the result of which is covered with the dark veil of uncertainty. Such must be the sensations of the general during a long and confused battle. I remember that in the year 1867 I went in the dawn of morning to the celebrated battle-field of Sadowa. My coachman, a jolly Bohemian, observed to me that it was just a year since the King of Prussia, at the same hour—between five and six in the morning—had followed the same road. "The weather, sir, was just the same; the mist covered the whole plain." "Could you tell me," said I to my amiable driver, "what the thoughts were of the King of Prussia?" He could not, and perhaps the Emperor of Germany could not do it himself at this day—so many emotions must have dimmed those of that famous day in Bohemia. But I suppose that, without exaggeration, it can be said that to-morrow will begin a parliamentary battle which will be long remembered in France. It will be a sort of Sadowa, an historical turning-point, one of those events which shut one horizon and open a new one. The battle will be fought without steel guns and Chassepots, no dead nor wounded will be left on the battle-field, but there is not a house, not a home, in this great country where its result is not waited with anxiety, and where it will not be received either with exultation or with despair. What is really at issue is the whole future of France, and it is somewhat irritating to think that the result will not be decided by two conflicting armies, each animated by an ardent and devoted spirit, but by a little group of wavereers, of sceptics, of lazy or shrewd politicians, who will throw their force on one side or on the other. The "Irish Brigade" gained many a battle in the English Parliament; our Irish Brigade is a battalion of about sixty men who have no faith, no doctrine, but who are led by some invisible force, or rather by their innate instincts, sometimes towards conservatism, sometimes towards radicalism.

It could hardly be expected that after the election of Barodet and of Rane, the member of the Commune, after the defeat of all the conservative Republicans as well as of all the Monarchical candidates, the Chamber should not ask M. Thiers to give an account of his administration. He had said in his message, "The Republic will be Conservative, or it will not exist." The Chamber will tell him now: "M. Thiers will be Conservative, or he will not be President." M. Thiers had foreseen this tempest, and had taken in his sail; he dismissed two ministers—one, M. Jules Simon, a member of the Government of the 4th September, who was peculiarly objectionable to the Right, and another, M. de Goulard, who was detested by the Left; he comes before the Assembly with a Cabinet which is the very essence and substance of that Thiersian ideal, "the Conservative Republic." This Cabinet is wholly composed of men who have been what they are no longer—Orleanists, and who are now what they will perhaps not always be—Republicans. It was not enough to embody as it were in this small ministerial nucleus what M. Thiers considers as the government of the period—we have been served at the same time with the constitution of the future.

This curious document is well worth studying; it is the work of the firm "Rémusat, Thiers, Dufaure." These three men, putting their heads together, have borrowed from the United States Constitution just as much as could be found applicable in France. The Republican government in their theory will have three instruments: a Congress or Chamber of Deputies, a Senate, a President. The Chamber of Deputies will be elected by universal suffrage; only, as the last elections have been found too radical, the vote for individual candidates by *circonscription* or *arrondissement* will be substituted for the vote by general ticket (*scrutin de liste*); this system would give more influence to local grandees and less to party nominees. The general ticket is preserved for the Senate. Each department is to return three senators, who will be elected by universal suffrage and by a general ticket, that is to say, each elector, while he will be represented by only one deputy in the Lower Chamber, will be represented by three senators in the Upper Chamber. The Government has renounced the idea of having the senators named by the General Councils, as your senators are named by the State legislatures; this was thought to be too great a sacrifice to the Conservative spirit. Universal suffrage has become here a kind of superstition, and nobody dares to invoke any other force than the force of numbers. M. Thiers has turned the difficulty in this way; as he means the Upper Chamber to be essentially the conservative element in the Government, he has made categories out of which alone the senators can be chosen. Nobody will have the right to be a senator if he has not belonged to the Lower House for a number of years or to legislatures of former governments, if he is not a dignitary of the administration, of the army, of the navy, of the church, of the Institute, etc. This Upper Chamber, though elected by universal suffrage, will be, in consequence of these narrow categories, an aristocratic Chamber; it will not be, like the House of Lords, composed of noblemen, but of placemen, of the *élite* of the administrators and old politicians of the country. I don't know if in a country like France, where the old régime has left hardly any visible trace, a better mode could have been found for the organization of an Upper Chamber. I should prefer, however, to see the new senators elected by the General Councils as representatives of the department; or, as the department is too small a unity, I would have formed groups of three or four departments, and the General Councils of these groups, united in convention, should have named senators who would have represented a little province. In this case, there would have been hardly any necessity for making categories of eligible senators; a meeting of four General Councils would have been likely to name only men of great importance in their province, and therefore little inclined to radicalism.

M. Thiers has adopted the plan of a convention for the presidential nomination. He would have all the deputies, all the senators, and three delegates for each General Council of France meet together on equal terms, and have a session of eight days, during which they would name the President. This assembly would have as many as a thousand members, which would give some hard work to the wire-pullers; it would represent the people through the Lower Chamber, the administrative bodies through the Upper Chamber, and the provincial influences through the General Councillors. The President, in the new project, must be at least forty years of age. When Gambetta read this article, which seems directed against him, as he is only thirty-six years old, he said: "I will move an amendment to this article; the President shall not be more than seventy."

On the whole, the new project, in which you must see at once the growing influence of American ideas in France, is rather ingenious. Our statesmen have understood that there must be something more in the state than the expression of a constantly moving, growing, changing majority. The States furnish you a territorial basis for the representation of other forces, arising from history, time, tradition. Your senators have the character of ambassadors. Our departments are too small, they have no history of their own; the level of the Revolution has brought down the walls which separated our old provinces, which were natural divisions, founded on geology, on ethnography, on idioms. We must build up something new out of the departments, and, without altering the French unity, attempt to create some machinery which will not give absolute and complete sovereignty to mere numbers.

This new constitution of M. Thiers was presented to the Chamber on the second day of the session; it will perhaps be the legacy of M. Thiers's Government to the Chamber. Few minds have yet given any attention to its details; it has been characterized by some as a mere "chinoiserie" and by the English *Times* as an ingenious "article de Paris." Nobody seems to take it much *au sérieux;* the question of the day is the question of *Hamlet* —"To be or not to be." Three hundred and twenty deputies have signed an interpellation asking the Government of M. Thiers to give an account of its administration, and to-day the battle will begin. The Duc de Broglie will begin the attack, and M. Thiers himself will enter the lists. He is not wanting in courage, and even if his opponents try to leave him out of the debate, he will undoubtedly come forward, screen his weak Cabinet, and say: "Ecce, adsum qui feci." At the same time, he will say to his adversaries: "Strike me if you can, if you dare; remember that if I triumph, the Republic will triumph with me. I fall or rise to-day with her." I have spoken with many deputies during the last few days, and I find that the Chamber is so nearly divided that a very few votes will either upset or maintain M. Thiers. The majority for or against him must be extremely small. In either case, the prospect is perilous. If M. Thiers has a majority, he will owe his victory only to the votes of Rane, Gambetta, and such men, and will become more and more the instrument of radicalism. The Opposition, by uniting with the Extreme Left, which calls every attempt to make a constitution an "ignoble comedy" (these were the words of Gambetta at Nantes a few days ago), will hardly allow M. Thiers to realize his constitutional schemes. The Radicals are now essential to M. Thiers's safety in power, but they will not hear of a Second Chamber, nor of the constituent powers of this Assembly. They want a dissolution. In one word, M. Thiers can no longer govern without the men who wish to dissolve the Chamber and who ridicule all his constitutional projects. The Republican party follows him only on such occasions as he fights a duel with the Monarchists; he can no longer give complete satisfaction to anybody. He cannot be said to be in equilibrium between two parties; he is alone between two parties. If, on the contrary, there is a small majority against him, then M. Thiers will change his ministry, sulk like Achilles in his tent till the liberation of the territory, and abandon the whole political work to his new ministers; but this abnegation will not be long, and the crisis will only be deferred. In all his communications with foreign powers, M. Thiers has intimated that even an adverse vote of the Chamber would not force him out of the Government. There is, however, something so despotic in M. Thiers's character that he will surely not long submit to the polite and quiet tyranny of a ministry forced on him by a parliamentary majority. M. Thiers will probably be tempted to find his support, then, outside of the Chamber, in the popular manifestations of the great towns, in the press, in the movements of the multitude, in those invisible, dangerous, and uncontrollable forces which are represented by the word "revolution." All the world knows now the engagement M. Thiers entered into secretly during the Commune with M. Barodet at Lyons, with some other representatives of the great cities; France has now on its surface a hundred volcanoes, each of which can begin to smoke as soon as an electric wire is pulled at Paris. The Radical or revolutionary party never was better or more completely organized; it has a formidable minority in the Chamber, it has secret friends in power, fifty prefects at the head of so many departments, an immense number of subprefects. It has even generals in the army, judges and magistrates, any number of officers of police named during Gambetta's rule. May France not once more see "plus quam civilia bella."

THE AFTER-SEASON AT ROME.

Rome, May 20, 1873.

ONE may say without injustice to any body that the state of mind of a great many foreigners in Rome is one of intense impatience for the moment when all other foreigners shall have departed. One may confess to this state of mind, and be no misanthrope. Rome has passed so completely for the winter months into the hands of the barbarians that that estimable character, the "quiet observer," finds it constantly harder to concentrate his attention. He has an irritating sense of his impressions being perverted and adulterated; the venerable visage of Rome betrays an unbecoming eagerness to see itself mirrored in English, American, German eyes. It is not simply that you are never first or never alone at the classic or historic spots where you have dreamt of persuading the shy *genius loci* into confidential utterance; it is not simply that St. Peter's, the Vatican, the Palatine, are for ever ringing with English voices: it is the general oppressive feeling that the city of the soul has become for the time a monstrous mixture of the watering-place and the curiosity-shop, and that its most ardent life is that of the tourists who haggle over false intaglio, and yawn through palaces and temples. But you are told of a happy time when these abuses begin to pass away, when Rome becomes Rome again, and you may have it all to yourself. "You may like Rome more or less now," I was told during the height of the season; "but you must wait till the month of May to love it. Then the foreigners, or the excess of them, are gone; the galleries and ruins are empty, and the place," said my informant, who was a Frenchman, "*renaît à elle-même.*" Indeed, I was haunted all winter by an irresistible prevision of what Rome *must* be in spring. Certain charming places seemed to murmur: "*Eh*, this is nothing! Come back in May, and see the sky above us almost black with its excess of blue, and the new grass already deep, but still vivid, and the white roses tumbling in odorous spray over the walls, and the warm radiant air dropping gold into all our coloring."

A month ago I spent a week in the country, and on my return, the first time I went into the Corso, I became conscious of a change. Something very pleasant had happened, but at first I was at a loss to define it. Then suddenly I comprehended—there were but half as many people, and these were chiefly good Italians. There had been a great exodus, and now, physically, morally, æsthetically, there was elbow-room. In the afternoon I went to the Pincio, and the Pincio was almost dull. The band was playing to a dozen ladies, as they lay in their landaus, poising their lace-fringed parasols; but they had only one light-gloved dandy apiece hanging over their carriage-doors. By the parapet of the great terrace which sweeps the city stood three or four quiet observers looking at the sunset, with their Baedekers peeping out of their pockets; the sunsets not being down with their tariff in these precious volumes, I good-naturedly hoped that, like myself, they were committing the harmless folly of taking mental possession of the scene before them.

It is the same good-nature that leads me to violate the instinct of monopoly, and proclaim that Rome in May is worth waiting. I have just been so gratified at finding myself in undisturbed possession for a couple of hours of the Museum of the Lateran that I can afford to be magnanimous. And yet I keep within the bounds of reason when I say that it would be hard as a traveller or student to pass pleasanter days than these. The weather for a month has been perfect, the sky magnificently blue, the air lively enough, the nights cool, too cool, and the whole gray old city illumined with the most irresistible smile. Rome, which in some moods, especially to new-comers, seems a terribly gloomy place, gives on the whole, and as one knows it better, an indefinable impression of gaiety. This contagious influence lurks in all its darkness and dirt and decay—a something more careless and hopeless than our thrifty Northern cheerfulness, and yet more genial, more urbane, than mere indifference. The Roman temper is a healthy and happy one, and you feel it abroad in the streets even when the *scirocco* blows, and the goal of man's life assumes a horrible identity with the mouth of a furnace. But who can analyze even the simplest Roman impression? It is compounded of so many things, it says so much, it suggests so much, it so quickens the intellect and so flatters the heart, that before we are fairly conscious of it the imagination has marked it for her own, and exposed us to a perilous likelihood of talking nonsense about it.

The smile of Rome, as I have called it, and its intense suggestiveness to those who are willing to ramble irresponsibly and take things as they come, is ushered in with the first breath of spring, and it grows and grows with the advancing season, till it wraps the whole place in its tenfold charm. As the process goes on, you can do few better things than go often to the Villa Borghese, and sit on the grass (on a stout bit of drapery) and watch its exquisite stages. It is a more magical spring than ours, even when ours has left off its damnable faces, and begun. Nature surrenders herself to it with a frankness which outstrips your most unutterable longings, and leaves you, as I say, nothing to do but to lay your head among the anemones at the base of a high-stemmed pine, and gaze up crestward and skyward along its slanting silvery column. You may look at the spring in Rome from a dozen of these choice standpoints, and

have a different villa for your observations every day in the week. The Doria, the Ludovisi, the Medici, the Albani, the Wolkonski, the Chigi, the Mellini, the Massimo—there are more of them, with all their sights, and sounds, and odors, and memories, than you have senses for. But I prefer none of them to the Borghese, which is free to all the world at all times, and yet never crowded; for when the whirl of carriages is great in the middle regions, you may find a hundred untrodden spots and silent corners, tenanted at the worst by a group of those long-skirted young Propagandists, who stalk about with solemn angularity, each with a book under his arm, like silhouettes from a mediæval missal, and "compose" so extremely well with the picturesqueness of cypresses, and of stretches of golden-russet wall overtopped by the intense blue sky. And yet if the Borghese is good, the Medici is strangely charming; and you may stand in the little belvedere which rises with such surpassing oddity out of the dusky heart of the Boschetto at the latter establishment—a miniature presentation of the wand of the Sleeping Beauty—and look across at the Ludovisi pines lifting their crooked parasols into a sky of what a painter would call the most *morbid* blue, and declare that the place where *they* grew is the most delightful in the world. The Villa Ludovisi has been all winter the residence of the lady familiarly known in Roman society as "Rosina," the king's morganatic wife. But this, apparently, is the only familiarity which she allows, for the grounds of the villa have been rigidly closed, to the inconsolable regret of old Roman sojourners. But just as the nightingales began to sing, the august *padrona* departed, and the public, with certain restrictions, have been admitted to hear them. It is a really princely place, and there could be no better example of the expansive tendencies of ancient privilege than the fact of its whole vast extent falling within the city walls. It has in this respect very much the same sort of impressiveness as the great intramural demesne of Magdalen College at Oxford. The stern old ramparts of Rome form the outer enclosure of the villa, and hence a series of picturesque effects which it would be unscrupulous flattery to say you can imagine. The grounds are laid out in the formal last-century manner; but nowhere do the straight black cypresses lead off the gaze into vistas of a more fictive sort of melancholy; nowhere are there grander, smoother walls of laurel and myrtle.

I recently spent an afternoon hour at the little Protestant cemetery close to St. Paul's Gate, where the ancient and the modern world are most impressively contrasted. They make between them one of the solemn places of Rome—although, indeed, when funereal things are so interfused with picturesqueness, it seems ungrateful to call them sad. Here is a mixture of tears and smiles, of stones and flowers, of mourning cypresses and radiant sky, which almost tempts one to fancy one is looking back at death from the brighter side of the grave. The cemetery nestles in an angle of the city wall, and the older graves are sheltered by a mass of ancient brickwork, through whose narrow loopholes you may peep at the purple landscape of the Campagna. Shelley's grave is here, buried in roses—a happy grave every way for a poet who was personally poetic. It is impossible to imagine anything more impenetrably tranquil than this little corner in the bend of the protecting rampart. You seem to see a cluster of modern ashes held tenderly in the rugged hand of the Past. The past is tremendously embodied in the hoary pyramid of Caius Cestius, which rises hard by, half within the wall and half without, cutting solidly into the solid blue of the sky, and casting its pagan shadow upon the grass of English graves—that of Keats, among others—with a certain poetic justice. It is a wonderful confusion of mortality and a grim enough admonition of our helpless promiscuity in the crucible of time. But to my sense, the most touching thing there is the look of the pious English inscriptions among all these Roman memories. There is something extremely appealing in their universal expression of that worst of trouble—trouble in a foreign land; but something that stirs the heart even more deeply is the fine Scriptural language in which everything is recorded. The echoes of massive Latinity with which the atmosphere is charged suggest nothing more majestic and monumental. I may seem unduly sentimental; but I confess that the charge to the reader in the monument to Miss Bathurst, who was drowned in the Tiber in 1824: "If thou art young and lovely, build not thereon, for she who lies beneath thy feet in death was the loveliest flower ever cropt in its bloom"—seemed to me irresistibly a case for tears. The whole elaborate inscription, indeed, was curiously suggestive. The English have the reputation of being the most reticent people in the world, and, as there is no smoke without fire, I suppose they have done something to deserve it; but for my own part, I am for ever meeting the most startling examples of the insular faculty to "gush." In this instance the mother of the deceased takes the public into her confidence with surprising frankness, omits no detail, and embraces the opportunity to mention by the way that she had already lost her husband by a most mysterious death. Yet the whole elaborate record is profoundly touching. It has an air of old-fashioned gentility which makes its frankness tragic. You seem to hear the garrulity of passionate grief.

To be choosing this well-worn picturesqueness for a theme, when there are matters of modern moment going on in Rome, may seem to demand some apology. But I can make no claim to your special correspondent's faculty for getting an "inside view" of things, and I have hardly more than a picturesque impression of the Pope's illness and of the discussion of the Law of the Convents. Indeed, I am afraid to speak of the Pope's illness at all, lest I should say something egregiously heartless about it, and recall too forcibly that unnatural husband who was heard to wish that his wife would get well or—something! He had his reasons, and Roman tourists have theirs in the shape of a vague hankering for something spectacular at St. Peter's. If it takes a funeral to produce it, a funeral let it be. Meanwhile, we have been having a glimpse of the spectacular side of the Religious Corporations Act. Hearing one morning a great hubbub in the Corso, I stepped forth upon my balcony. A couple of hundred men were strolling slowly down the street with their hands in their pockets, shouting in unison, "Abbasso il ministero!" and huzzaing in chorus. Just beneath my window they stopped and began to murmur, "Al Quirinale, al Quirinale!" The crowd surged a moment gently, and then drifted to the Quirinal, where it scuffled harmlessly with half a dozen of the king's soldiers. It ought to have been impressive, for what was it essentially but the seeds of revolution? But its carriage was too gentle and its cries too musical to send the most timorous tourist to packing his trunk. As I began with saying: in Rome, in May, everything has an amiable side, even *émeutes!*

Notes.

GEO. P. ROWELL & Co.'s 'American Newspaper Directory' for 1873 merits all the praise we have given to the earlier issues of the same work for industry of compilation, clearness of arrangement, and typographical elegance. A "Sketch of the Growth of Journalism in the United States," based on Mr. Hudson's recent book, is prefixed to the Directory proper. It is entertaining, but we notice too many obvious errors in dates and names (*e.g.*, on pp. 17, 18, where we have marked four.)

—Mr. George E. Waring, jr., writes us, date of June 6: "By the side of the storied 'Frog Pond' on Boston Common stands an enormous tent, covering a novel and remarkable exhibition. The Massachusetts Horticultural Society has gathered from the private grounds near Boston, and from the most celebrated nursery of 'American Plants' in England (that of Mr. Anthony Waterer) a large collection of rhododendrons, which are now just bursting into bloom, and which, during the next twenty days, will be more gorgeous than any similar display of flowers we have ever had in America. Planted out (in beds and singly) in a way best calculated to show the manner of their use in garden decoration, are hundreds of the most perfect specimens of these plants. One standard, from Mr. Waterer, placed at an angle of the walks, has over eight hundred buds, which seem not to have been affected by the recent trip across the Atlantic, and it is worth all the trouble it has cost to secure it for this temporary use. The entrance to the main tent where all this gorgeousness is displayed is through a covered avenue lined with superb palms and other tropical plants, such as are rarely brought together. The exhibition, which has been arranged by Professor Chas. S. Sargent, under the auspices of the Society, will remain open until about the 25th inst.—there being substitutes to replace plants which shall go out of bloom, and keep up a full display. All who are (or are capable of becoming) interested in the æsthetics of gardening will be well rewarded for a trip to Boston Common. In deference to our national tastes, and by way of painting the lily, there will be 'music by the band' (Germania)."

—In the *College Courant* for May 31, President Tuttle, of Wabash College, gives some interesting statistics on the longevity of clergymen in the United States. He was moved to his researches in this direction by a desire to test a statement of Prof. Newton's, that mortality among this class is less than among men of equal ages in other occupations, and that "the actual *cost* of life insurance is less for them than for men in other occupations." President Tuttle made a laborious examination of Sprague's 'Annals of the American Pulpit' and of several denominational catalogues, embracing in all 2,442 names, whose sum total of years was 148,970. These subjects dated from as far back as 1575, 1638, 1642, 1683, 1685, for several of the leading denominations, and were generally brought down to about 1840. The average age of all of them was found to be a little over 61 years. Two reached the age of 103, one (a colored Baptist minister) the age of 101; sixty ranged

in years from 90 to 103, and only fifty-two died under the age of 40. "One out of every seven of the whole number was 88 years old or upwards at death. Between one-third and one-half of the whole were 70 years or upwards at death. Considerably more than one-half of the whole were over 60 years of age at death. Three-fourths of the whole were over 50 years of age at death. Seven-eighths of the whole were over 40 years of age at death." It would appear, therefore, as the writer points out, to be hardly worth a minister's while to insure his life at all, since his vocation does so much for him; and perhaps the statistics warrant the belief that mutual insurance within the denomination would be the cheapest to which the clergy could resort. One who studied this question narrowly would perhaps take the additional precaution to embrace Trinitarian Congregationalism, inasmuch as ministers of this denomination reach an average age of 65.8 years, the Baptists dying off at 64.1, the Reformed Presbyterians at 61.3, the Episcopalians at 59.8, etc., etc. And since all of us cannot be ministers, we may improve a hint given by President Tuttle when he shows, from the Bill of Mortality of Morristown, N. J., that out of 403 men deceased over 21 years of age, eighty-eight religious professors averaged 62.4 years, and all the rest only 48.9.

—Mr. Louis A. Garnett, manager of the United States Assaying and Refining Works at San Francisco, sends to the *Alta California* an interesting account of the new trade dollar shortly to be coined. He compares it closely with the Mexican dollar, to which it is to be superior not only in workmanship, but in quality, the comparison standing thus:

	Grs.	Fine.	Grs. p.s.	Value as comp. with our standard dollar.
New American trade dollar	420	900	378	1.0182
Average Mexican dollar	417.88	902.77	377¼	1.0162

There is also the further advantage of uniformity, the Mexican dollars varying in weight and fineness, and commanding different rates of premium according to their devices—a serious inconvenience in large business transactions. This dollar is not a unit in our currency system, but "simply a stamped disk of uniform weight and fineness, and was designed with special reference to our commerce with China and Japan." Under such conditions, it becomes of course an article of merchandise, manufactured for foreign use. The demand for it, like the demand for other merchandise, will depend upon whether profit or loss follows its export. Mr. Garnett gives the cost of coinage as 2½ per cent. If the coin is melted up on arrival in China, the expense of coinage is lost; and unless the United States Government or private shippers will bear this loss until the coin becomes current in the East, the demand for it will never appear. If it become current, and can be afforded to the exporter at a cheaper cost than the Mexican or bar silver, and in unlimited quantities, the effect will be to reduce the cost of exchange between the Western world—Europe as well as California—and the East, to the extent of the lessened cost. As shown by the correspondence in the *Nation* of March 20, the success of the coin in becoming current as a measure of value in China and Japan, would not change the course of Eastern trade or Eastern exchanges, as seems to be thought by the originators of the measure. All the silver produced in California and Mexico, in excess of their own wants, would continue to be exported as now; nor would it make any local difference, except a profit or loss to the United States Mint, whether it went away in bars of silver, in Mexican dollars, or in a fancy dollar of United States manufacture. The course of exchanges would continue to be governed, as now, by the ownership of the capital which carries on the trade. It may be remarked, in passing, that the extent of the use of the Mexican dollar in China is greatly overrated. It is fully current only at the foreign outports at the south. It is used for household and personal expenses at the northern open ports, and, to a very limited degree, in a few interior districts closely connected with foreign trade. It is quite unknown through the greater part of the Empire.

—The facts in regard to the Washington pedigree are very easily understood. George Washington was the great-grandson of John Washington, who emigrated to Virginia with his brother Lawrence. In 1791, Sir Isaac Heard, then Garter King-at-Arms, prepared a pedigree of the Washingtons, and sent a copy to our President for examination. Washington, with the precision and caution natural to him, stated that there was a family tradition that their ancestor came from one of the northern counties of England. Beyond this he neither knew nor professed to know anything. It was also a fact that the family in Virginia used a coat-of-arms. Sir Isaac conjecturally identified these two emigrants with the sons of Lawrence Washington of Sulgrave and Brington. Some years afterwards, Baker, in his 'History of Northamptonshire,' adopted this theory, and published the pedigree. From that time the pedigree was accepted as authentic, and was repeatedly published. In 1860, Mr. Simpkinson, Rector of Brington, published a book containing many interesting items relative to the Washingtons of that parish, whither the family went after selling Sulgrave. In 1866, however, Colonel Joseph Lemuel Chester, an American genealogist residing in England, was led to examine the essential point of this pedigree, viz., the identification of the emigrants to Virginia, and he completely destroyed it. In an article which is a model of careful investigation and analysis, Colonel Chester demonstrated that Lawrence Washington of Brington had sons, John and Lawrence, but that they could not be the brothers who went to Virginia about 1657. In the first place, the English John was knighted 21st February, 1622-3, married Mary Curtis, and had three sons before 1624. This Sir John Washington, Knight, was of Thrapston, County Northampton, and in October, 1678, his widow Dorothy made her will. It is of course impossible that *Sir* John Washington, who had wives Mary and Dorothy, and whose widow survived him, could be the emigrant *Mr.* John Washington, whose will of 1675 (Meade ii. 167) speaks of a first wife and two children buried on his plantation, and mentions a living wife, whom other evidences show to be Ann Pope. So in regard to Lawrence Washington of Brington, Colonel Chester proves that he was of Oxford, and a Fellow of Brazenose about 1624. He was lector and proctor there, and in 1633 he was presented to the living of Purleigh in Essex. He was ejected therefrom in 1643, but undoubtedly continued in a poor living in the neighborhood, though the exact locality has not been found. It is impossible to identify this clergyman with the Virginian planter. Of course this is but the briefest summary of Colonel Chester's article, but it is probably sufficient to show that Baker's identification was all wrong, and that in reality nothing was really known of the parentage of the emigrant Washingtons. Their pedigree is American only, neither better nor worse than that of the thousands of other families traceable to the first settlers.

—In striking contrast with the clear, well-reasoned, and weighty article by Colonel Chester, is the incoherent jumble of names presented in the ambitious essay on the same subject in the *Chronotype*, a monthly publication of the self-styled "American College of Heraldry and Genealogical Registry" in this city. It is impossible to criticise such an article seriously; it reads like a travesty on the work of sober genealogists. For example, Mr. Clements writes: "In 1632, Lawrence Washington, Knt., is said to have settled at Garsden. . . . There exists the clearest evidence that at this period Sir Lawrence was granted the living of *Pudleigh* [*sic*] in Devon." Now what is to be said of a man who so wantonly confounds Lawrence the clergyman with his grand-uncle Sir Lawrence of Garsdon, both being clearly shown on the same printed pedigree? Again, Mr. Clements states, on the authority of Berry, that a Lawrence Washington of Ballington, County Wilts, married Anne Merry, and had Martha, who married Arthur Berwick. Lawrence had a sister, Mary, wife of William Horsepoole of Maidstone, in Kent. This Lawrence, he thinks, came to America with "a connection, John." Elsewhere, Mr. Clements writes, "We think this John was a second cousin of Lawrence, referred to as the emigrant." The first criticism to make upon these statements would be that Mr. Clements cannot have investigated the subject properly if he is ignorant that the emigrants, John and Lawrence, were brothers, as their wills show. Secondly, he ought to know that Berry is by no means a good authority. Thirdly, the gazetteers do not record any parish of Ballington in Wiltshire or elsewhere. Fourthly, Berry's account agrees very fairly with Baker's pedigree of Sir Lawrence Washington of Garsdon, his son Lawrence and daughter Mary Horspoole. It is possible that Berry is right, and that Lawrence the son had two wives, though we require some corroboration of his statement; but the mention of this sister Mary Horspoole makes it certain that Berry was thinking of Lawrence, son of Sir Lawrence of Garsdon. Now all the peerages agree that this Lawrence of Garsdon had an only child, Elizabeth, who married the first Earl Ferrers, and was mother of Washington Shirley, second Earl Ferrers. Apropos of this Washington and Shirley marriage, let us give an extract from Mr. Clements's article:

"Earl *Farrars* [*sic*] who married Elizabeth Washington was a Shirley, and the Shirleys of the Peak intermarried with the Vernons of Haddon Hall. 'Mount Vernon' formulates these antecedents, and it accounts for Admiral Vernon's kindness to Lawrence Washington while the latter was in the service of his country under the Admiral's command at the siege of Carthagena."

This is a fair specimen of Mr. Clements's deductions. Wherever he finds a coincidence of names or an intermarriage in widely different branches of families, he proceeds to argue identities. In this case he probably cannot give as much information in regard to Admiral Edward Vernon's pedigree as we do in stating that the Admiral was son of James Vernon, Secretary of State, and was the uncle of Francis Vernon, Earl Shipbrooke in the peerage of Ireland. It is stated that the Admiral was descended from a branch of the family of Lord Vernon of Kinderton, and it is true that George Ver-

non of Sudbury (the grandfather of the first peer) married for his second wife Dorothy Shirley, sister of the first Earl Ferrers. But what sane writer would ever suppose that a remote relative of George Vernon was impelled to manifest a kindness to a Washington of totally unknown pedigree on the strength of his recollection of this marriage? On the contrary, what reason is needed to account for the name of Mount Vernon beyond the fact that Lawrence Washington served under the gallant Admiral? In his second article, Mr. Clements continues to string together the unprofitable results of considerable reading. He inserts on page 103 a pedigree of John Washington of Virginia, but he does not give his authorities. It is probably all wrong, and is certainly all unproved. The ancestry of the Virginian Washingtons is still a problem to be discussed by future genealogists.

—It is announced that Mr. Mill has left behind him a full autobiography with directions for its immediate publication, and also three complete treatises entitled 'Nature,' 'Theism,' and the 'Utility of Religion,' the first of which was to have been published in the present year. The last production of his pen was a tract for the Land Tenure Reform Association. This will at once be placed in the hands of that body for publication. The *Athenæum* hopes that the letters written by Mr. Mill to De Tocqueville may now be in possession of M. Gustave Beaumont's executors, and that the correspondence of the two philosophers may be given to the public. It is understood, says the *Pall Mall Gazette*, that the committee to secure a national memorial to Mr. Mill will include Mr. Gladstone, the Earl of Derby, the Duke of Argyll, the Marquis of Salisbury, Earl Russell, Lord Amberley, Lord Lawrence, Mr. Goschen, Mr. C. P. Villiers, Mr. John Forster, Mr. Stansfeld, Mr. Fitz James Stephen, Sir Henry Maine, Sir John Lubbock, Professors Cairnes, Huxley, Jowett, Tyndall, and Fawcett, Mr. Tennyson, Mr. Herbert Spencer, and others. It is said that Dean Stanley is willing to allow Mr. Mill's remains to be interred in Westminster Abbey, but that Mr. Mill's strongly expressed wish to be buried by the side of his late wife at Avignon may decide his family against this proposal. If so, the *Record* will be spared a good deal of pain. That journal says that it does not understand how the Marquis of Salisbury can allow himself to appear as one of the Mill Committee. "The chairman of a popular meeting in defence of the Athanasian Creed" makes a strange figure, the *Record* thinks, "in consenting to rear a national monument to the memory of a philosophic positivist."

—Mr. Leone Levi writes to the London *Athenæum* that the number of readers at the British Museum has diminished during the past ten years in spite of the enormous increase of population. In 1861, there were 130,410 readers—46 for every 100 inhabitants of London; in 1871, 105,006—or only 32 for every 100 inhabitants. He says the Museum is becoming less and less central in situation; the books in the common reading-room are of too promiscuous a character; and the catalogue consumes too much of the time of those who consult it. He recommends disburdening the Library of its vast number of duplicates, and fitting out with them branch libraries at well-selected centres of the metropolis. Then he would have, besides the common reading-room, a "series of special public reading-rooms, such as one for history, another for jurisprudence, diplomacy, and political economy, another for natural sciences, etc.," provided in each case with an officer conversant with the specialty, and a classified catalogue; and finally, in these rooms readers should have the luxury of taking books down from the shelves for examination. Probably the difficulties of classification experienced in catalogue-making would not prove practically an obstacle to the subdivision here proposed. The branch system has been tried with the greatest success by the Boston Public Library, and we may presume it not an extravagant fancy which anticipates the time when the main library will be connected by pneumatic tubes with its branches, thus putting what is called the Bates Hall Collection within reach of an indefinitely large circle of readers, without violating the conditions by which some of the most valuable books are restricted from leaving the Library building.

LIBERTY, EQUALITY, AND FRATERNITY.*

MR STEPHEN'S book is one which, however unwelcome it may prove to a large class of minds, was sure to come before long. Some such examination as he bestows on the political and social philosophy which has in all Western countries begun to mould both laws and manners, could not in days of free enquiry like ours be very much further postponed; and we confess that if shams are no longer to be tolerated, if illusions are no longer useful, if we are all hereafter to live on the "hard pan," and anything like a false bottom to our political or religious speculation is to be rigidly prohibited, Mr. Stephen has done a very valuable work. In fact, we venture to say that it will be found that in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the objection made to it by the school which he so mercilessly assails will be the very one which they themselves have made so light of when used against them by Christians—that his doctrines are dangerous, and likely to work injury "to the framework of society." Their pretensions to be able to supply the world with a rule of life which will enable it to dispense with the apostles and prophets, and indeed all forms of supernatural religion, and which will nevertheless get all the good out of human nature of which it is capable, and deliver human society from its manifold evils, have long offered a tempting object of criticism. Hitherto, however, they have escaped criticism from everybody but representatives of the old beliefs, natural-born tories, or else doctors of divinity. Mr. Stephen belongs to no one of these classes. He makes no pretence even to being a Christian; he confesses that he is by no means sure of the immortality of the soul. He believes that Christianity, either in the complete form in which the early believers embraced it, or in the mutilated form in which some modern humanitarians are trying to hold on to it, furnishes no proper basis for legislation and no adequate rule of conduct. In short, he is in no sense of the word a transcendentalist. But he is nevertheless full of scorn for what he calls the new "religion of humanity," with its three cardinal doctrines of "liberty, equality, and fraternity," which is offered us as a substitute for Christianity, and his examination of it is something which nobody who is interested in the social and religious problems of the day can afford to overlook.

His objections to it are fundamental. He says that its doctrines are not true, and, even if believed in, would not serve the purpose for which they are produced. He makes Mr. Mill's recent sociological books on 'Liberty' and the 'Subjection of Women' serve the purpose of texts for the discussion, not because Mr. Mill is a complete representative of humanitarianism, but because nobody else has put forward its claims on the respect and confidence of the world with so much force and ability, and because Mr. Stephen acknowledges that his own mind has been powerfully influenced by Mr. Mill's teachings. With regard to liberty in general, Mr. Stephen holds that it is in itself neither good nor bad, but indifferent; that before you can predicate anything of it you have to know the use that is going to be made of it; that it is like the hole surrounded by a pipe, the value of which depends on the pipe and on the substance which is to pass through it; that Mr. Mill's doctrine about social liberty is not tenable, because it is incapable of application. No such line as he proposes can possibly be drawn between the parts of human conduct which society ought to regard with indifference and those which it ought to disapprove or punish. A positive and prevailing opinion on conduct of all kinds society must have, or it would go to pieces for want of a moral bond. Any expression of this opinion, however faint, is coercion, and the difference between the coercion of opinion and the coercion of law—between, in short, persuasion and punishment—is simply one of degree. There is no real division between the domain of morals and the domain of law. Some acts society visits with simple disapprobation; for others, it hangs a man; but the distinction is based on expediency simply. Men are all "persuaded" as well as deterred by their fears. When you influence a man's decision by pointing out to him a slight class of evils likely to result from his pursuing a certain line of conduct, such as loss of money or the good opinion of his neighbors, you are said to persuade him; when you threaten to imprison or kill him, you are said to coerce him; but in reality the process is the same in both cases. The appearance of difference is caused by the fact that the instrument of coercion you employ in the one case is much more powerful than in the other. The notion that society can dispense with coercion, or, in other words, refuse to set up a standard of right and wrong in small things any more than in great, is chimerical. The carrying out of any such policy is sure in the long run to produce anarchy. The state is bound to teach morals; and if morals need a religious backing, it must teach religion. All pretence of indifference on this matter must prove fatal to its highest interests. It is useless to point to the relation of church and state in America as the example of the success of this indifference. "The way in which this arrangement is accepted as a final result" is, to Mr. Stephen, "a strong illustration of the manner in which people are disposed to accept as final the temporary solutions of great questions which are in fashion in their own day." He thinks it a temporary arrangement, and that a nation, in order to last, must be based on some theory of life and death and judgment, and not merely on a desire to be comfortable and make money. In other words, we have got rid of the religious difficulty here for the present, and already at some cost to our morality, but we have not settled it permanently. Mr. Stephen disposes of the distinction between "the spiritual and temporal power" by the same argument by which he disposes of the distinction between persuasion and coercion. He treats it as a relic of the early Christian distinction between

* 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. By James Fitz James Stephen, Q.C. 'New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.

"the church and the world" and the mediæval distinction between the Emperor and the Pope. As a matter of fact, the clergyman and the judge both coerce, but one draws his penalties from one source, the other from another. One says, "If you do so and so, you will be damned"; the other says, "If you do so and so, you will go to jail." The process is exactly similar in both cases. It is folly to denounce protection or coercion as the great source of human misery, as one school of philosophy does, and just as great to denounce liberty as its source, as another school does. It is like glorifying the centripetal at the expense of the centrifugal force, or *vice versa*. Human progress is the resultant of several opposing forces, some confining, some liberating, under the restraint of which we pursue the ends of living.

"Reasonable men pursue these objects or some of them openly and avowedly. They find they can greatly help or impede each other in the pursuit by exciting each others' hopes or fears, by promising payment for this and threatening punishment for that, and by leaving other matters to individual taste. This last department of things is the department of liberty in the proper sense of the word. Binding promises and threats always imply restraint. Thus the question: How large ought the province of liberty to be? is really identical with this: In what respects must men influence each other if they want to attain the objects of life, and in what respects must they leave each other uninfluenced."

As regards equality, Mr. Stephen maintains that to say that a law is unjust is the equivalent of saying that it is inexpedient; the term cannot be applied to a law in any other sense. You may say that a judge is unjust, but only if he fails to apply the law, according to his understanding of it, to all persons affected by it. Justice, therefore, calls for equality only so far as equality is expedient, and for a law to be expedient, the rights and duties created by it ought to be adapted to the situation of the persons who enjoy or are subject to them. It ought to recognize the facts of society, and recognize equality and inequality as they exist by nature. Rights and duties should be so moulded as to clothe, protect, and sustain society in the position which it naturally assumes. If inequalities naturally exist, as they do, such as age, sex, and difference of capacity, the proposition that the law should not take note of them is absurd. He applies this, with a variety of illustrations, to various social relations. Moreover, he says that the change from status to contract, which has been pointed out by Mr. Maine, has done little or nothing to eradicate this inequality. It has destroyed coercion in one shape, but has not prevented its taking its rise in another. Nor is the principle of obedience disappearing from society, as Mr. Mill would have us believe. Force lies behind all law, and it is exerted in our day through different machinery from that through which it was exerted in the Middle Ages, but it is still exerted. It has, however, assumed such overwhelming weight in the case of government, that it has only rarely to be put forth. It is doubtful, too, whether anybody in the Middle Ages possessed as much control over the life and comfort of his fellows as is now lodged in the hands of a great employer of labor.

In dealing with the doctrine of fraternity, or "the worship and service of humanity" at large, Mr. Stephen takes up for discussion the shape in which it is described by Mr. Mill in his essay on utilitarianism, where he defines morality as an active promotion of the happiness of the human race; and the sanction for this he finds in a certain state of feeling, which he calls "the desire to be in unity with our fellow-creatures, and happily one of those which tend to become stronger." This forms, Mr. Stephen thinks, one of the most strongly-held articles in the new creed. He objects to it that, while it is inconsistent with Mr. Mill's doctrines about liberty, it imposes on men a duty which nobody in reality is capable of discharging; for you cannot promote men's happiness without knowing in what it consists, and this you cannot know except in a small number of cases, or in a very rough, general way. Therefore, in default of knowledge as to what our neighbor's happiness lies in, we substitute our own notion of what it ought to be in. Indeed, in this matter, as in others, "we can no more displace ourselves than we can leap off from our own shadows."

"Milton's line about Presbyter and Priest thus applies precisely to Humanity and Self. Humanity is only I writ large, and love for Humanity generally means zeal for MY notions as to what men should be and how they should live. It frequently means distaste for the present. He that loveth not his brother whom he hath seen is peculiarly apt to suppose that he loves his distant cousin whom he hath not seen and never will see. Mr. Mill, for instance, never loses an opportunity of speaking with contempt of our present 'wretched social arrangements,' the low state of society, and the general pettiness of his contemporaries, but he looks forward to an age in which an all-embracing love of Humanity will regenerate the human race.

"On one who does not think thus the anticipations of those who do produce a singular effect. They look like so many ideal versions of what the world would be if it adopted universally the theorist's views of human life. Love for Humanity, devotion to the All or Universum, and the like are thus little, if anything, more than a fanatical attachment to some favorite theory about the means by which an indefinite number of unknown persons (whose existence it pleases the theorist's fancy to assume) may be brought into a state which the theorist calls happiness. A man to whom this ideal becomes so far a reality as to color his thoughts, his feelings, his estimate of the present, and his action towards it, is usually, as repeated experience has shown, perfectly ready to sacrifice that which living people do actually regard as constituting their happiness to his own notions of what will constitute the happiness of other generations. It is, no doubt, true that, in a certain sense, he does thus rise, or, at any rate, get out of himself. Sympathy for others, interest in the affairs of others, impatience of what he regards as the wrongs of others do become far stronger motives to him than they are to most men, and do affect his conduct more powerfully, but this in itself is no merit. It certainly gives no man a right to any other man's confidence. Nothing, as I have already pointed out, is a greater nuisance, or in many cases a greater injury, than the love of a person by whom you do not want to be loved. Every man's greatest happiness is that which makes him individually most happy, and of that he and he only can judge. If A places his greatest happiness in promoting that which he regards as B's greatest happiness, B never having asked him to do so, and A having no other interest in the matter than general feelings of sympathy, it is a hundred to one that B will tell A to mind his own business. If A represents a small class of men of quick feelings and lively talents, and B a much larger class of ignorant people, who, if they were let alone, would never have thought of the topics which their advisers din into their ears, the probability is that the few will by degrees work up the many into a state of violence, excitement, discontent, and clamorous desire for they know not what—which is neither a pleasant state in itself nor one fruitful of much real good to any one whatever.

"The man who works from himself outwards, whose conduct is governed by ordinary motives, and who acts with a view to his own advantage and the advantage of those who are connected with himself in definite, assignable ways, produces in the ordinary course of things much more happiness to others (if that is the great object of life) than a moral Don Quixote who is always liable to sacrifice himself and his neighbors. When you have to deal with a man who expects pay and allowances, and is willing to give a fair day's work for it as long as the arrangement suits him, you know where you are. Deal with such a man fairly, and in particular cases, if he is a man of spirit and courage, he will deal with you not only fairly but generously. Earn his gratitude by kindness and justice, and he will in many cases give you what no money could buy or pay for. On the other hand, a man who has a disinterested love for the human race—that is to say, who has got a fixed idea about some way of providing for the management of the concerns of mankind—is an unaccountable person, with whom it is difficult to deal upon any well-known and recognized principles, and who is capable of making his love for men in general the ground of all sorts of violence against men in particular.

"Besides this, the great mass of mankind are and always will be, to a greater or less extent, the avowed enemies of considerable sections of their fellow-creatures; at all events, for certain purposes and up to a certain point. Those who love the human race as a whole must take sides in these enmities, probably against both parties, and this will increase the original trouble. This introduces one vitally important question, at which I can only glance, but which believers in the service of humanity and in the religion of fraternity ought to solve before they can find standing-room for their religion. The question is this: Are the interests of all mankind identical? are we all brothers? are we even fiftieth cousins? and, in any event, have we not a considerable number of family quarrels which require to be settled before the fact of our relationship (if any) can be regarded in any other light than as a bone of contention?"

Now, what is to be said to all this? That will depend a good deal on the side from which the subject is approached. Those who, like Mr. Stephen himself, as we judge, approach it from the purely scientific side, and who examine questions of morals as one examines the composition of a gas, will find little or nothing in his position that can be gainsaid. To them this earth is a somewhat dismal ball, and the life we lead on it a profound and inscrutable mystery, and our religions, philosophies, speculations about things past or to come, are, like our arts and sciences and inventions, only so many devices for sweetening a bitter cup or making a thorny way somewhat less cheerless. To them, all beliefs are but contrivances for supporting man in his struggle with the inevitable and incomprehensible, and it is open to anybody to study these contrivances, either with or without reference to their utility; that is, we are at perfect liberty to consider their origin as well as their efficacy, or their efficacy only. Mr. Stephen belongs to the school to which their fitness is only a secondary consideration, and he occupies himself mainly in showing how much illusion enters into their real character. For instance, he thinks belief in God and in a future life is a powerful instrument in keeping the world even as good as it is, and that a society without that belief would necessarily be a very different society from anything which now exists; but this is to him no reason for refraining from casting doubt upon this belief. There is one passage in Mr. Stephen's book, however, which will furnish those who are more occupied about the practical than the theoretical side of morals with a good defence for much of their teaching, and that is "that speculation on government, morals, and religion is a matter of vital practical importance," and it is so because the conduct of the mass of men is powerfully influenced by their opinions on government, morals, and religion, although it is notorious that their practice always falls lamentably short of their professions. The people who teach the doctrines about liberty, equality, and fraternity, therefore, which Mr. Stephen derides,

may very well say that—absurd as it may seem to talk about freedom of conduct and thought, as Mr. Mill does, or about men being "born free and equal," as Karl Marx does, or about men and women being equal, as Mrs. Julia Ward Howe does, or about the necessity of loving the whole human race, as the Peace Society does—the experience of mankind and the history of all religions show that preaching has to be made very strong and extravagant to obtain even the smallest modicum of practice. To get a man to feel kindly towards his fellow-townsmen, we have had to descant day by day, for many generations, upon his close relations to his countrymen at large; to get him to stop hating Englishmen and Frenchmen, we have to urge him furiously to take even Mandingoes and Chinamen to his heart; to get even personal freedom for blacks, and decent consideration for the poor and stupid, has required centuries of declamation on the inherent equality of all human beings; and to deliver women from personal chastisement or degrading tutelage, we have to be assured, in season and out of season, that there is absolutely no mental or moral difference between persons of the two sexes. This, no doubt, is a clumsy mode of accomplishing the object, and it is natural enough that a philosopher should be disgusted by it; but we cannot deny that, such as it is, a large proportion of the moral progress made by the world has been achieved by means of it.

RECENT NOVELS.*

GENERALLY the novelist performs a task very like that of a fashionable sexton who gives his best attention to weddings, but in 'Not Without Thorns' we have all sorts of suggestions that he will very probably have to attend to the other duties of his business. How husbands are domestic tyrants, how wives are silly, how persistently they both fail to understand one another—it is all shown here; and, in a way, it is well done, with an exactness, a morbid accuracy, if we may use the phrase, that is noteworthy, but with a singular lack of imagination, which leaves the story a disappointing one. In spite of their cleverness, such frank confessions do not rise above printed gossip, though that is not an unattractive fault to a great many people. But others, we are sure, will feel, after reading this novel, as if they had been prying into their neighbors' affairs, and that is why we call 'Not without Thorns' distasteful, although rather interesting.

Not dissimilar is Miss Healy's 'Lakeville,' which appeared some two or three years ago in England, where it was highly praised. It gives a very good picture of social life in a Western city, for Lakeville is easily recognized as Chicago. It is full of love affairs; there is the girl who marries the rich man for his money, and afterwards suffers for it; there is the girl who falls in love with a moustached hero who flirts with some one else, so that a bitter wound is inflicted on the deceived one's heart which time and a second choice relieve. There is, too, a prettily written account of life in France. On the whole, the story is far from unreadable, although it deserves the same strictures as 'Not without Thorns.' Both of the writers draw their characters tolerably well, and evidently have given considerable study to the ways of girls and to the phenomena of love-making—the ways of ogling, smirking, gaudily-dressed girls being the favorite ground of the author of 'Lakeville,' who, we fear we must say it, is just a trifle vulgar.

Mr. Eggleston's 'Mystery of Metropolisville' is very good. We know few new writers who so well give us certain sorts of characters that are American without thereby losing their right to be considered human beings, and who at the same time have an interesting story to tell. It is not impossible, indeed, to find elsewhere single figures cleverly sketched, as, for example, *Hiram* in the Rev. H. W. Beecher's 'Norwood,' and Mrs. Stowe's *Sam Lawson;* but the setting is not what it ought to be. 'The Mystery of Metropolisville' is by no means the most entrancing story that was ever written. To a great many people it may present no interest whatsoever. They would prefer to read a rehash of London society novels, in just the same way as they would prefer to pass a summer in Europe to travelling through the Western States; but any one who cares for a simple story well told, for characters who are genuine people and whose talk is always amusing, will get satisfaction at the hands of Mr. Eggleston. The book is full of humor, observation, and a healthy spirit which is sure to leave a good impression. Mr. Eggleston has forestalled the remark which readily suggests itself, namely, that he would do much better if there were fewer marks of haste in his stories, and perhaps the vivacity of the book is due to that very incompleteness; still one would be inclined to say that without more care he will not rise above being what he is now, and that is the condition of a man who promises more than he has performed.

M. Edmond About cannot be said to have wrapped his talent in a napkin. Far from it. He has polished it in every possible way, and he whisks the napkin under his arm, and calls on every one to admire his handiwork. As an example, we have to-day a translation of his by no means unamusing 'Rouge et Noir.' It needs no long description, no fervent admiration, but it deserves mention as a bit of work that comes from a portion of the globe where competition prevents a man from falling into slothfulness. It is an innocent sample of French cleverness.

'A Fair Saxon' reminds us of the music written by one's friends who have heard a great deal of the good masters' works, and who undertake to play to us something of their own composition, in which we recognize a trace of this man or of that, and no note that bears any mark of the player's own personality. In Tyrone, the hero of the story, there is a certain resemblance to Trollope's 'Phineas Finn'; not the resemblance of plagiarism, but of a certain family likeness. For the rest, there are some very American Americans, and there is a Fenian diversion which lends excitement to the story. It lacks some of the faults which disfigured the same writer's 'Lady Judith,' but yet it is not a remarkable work.

'Clyde Wardleigh's Promise' is a tale of life in Philadelphia, with enough social complications in the plot to justify the pretensions of that place to be considered a metropolis. In an uneventful way a great deal of harm is done by people who fall in love with the wrong persons, who fall back on their dignity, which proves but a broken reed, and leaves them all miserable—all, that is to say, who survive the shattering of their hopes. As may be gathered, this is a painful story, and it is one in which it is not easy to find any positive merit. Melancholy is a state of mind which it is easier to feel than to express.

'Count Kostia,' by Cherbuliez, has been added to the Leisure Hour Series of Messrs. Holt & Williams. This is the story by which that clever author first made his name known about ten years ago. Like all those he has since written, it contains a plot which it would be an uncharitable deed to disclose, and it is written with a sort of skill which it would be injustice not to commend. There is quite enough improbability about the story to leave it on the border-land between romance and real life, and to secure from the reader that uncritical readiness for appreciative enjoyment which we grudge to those novels that pride themselves on their literal exactness. What we ask for in works of fiction is the possibility of their being true and the certainty of their being interesting, and those qualities are both to be found in this entertaining volume, which, by the way, is very well translated. We have already spoken so often of Cherbuliez's qualities as a writer that we will not repeat ourselves to-day; in 'Count Kostia' the reader will find the cleverness, which is this writer's main trait, without the inhumanity which embittered 'Joseph Noirel's Revenge.'

"September died. October wore her crimson and gold right royally for thirty-one days of gorgeous pomp and wonderful magnificence, and then came brown November, clad in russet, with withered leaves for a coronet, and a naked branch for a sceptre. And still Ruth lay upon the bed in the front chamber, not suffering as she had suffered at first, but just as helpless." The sentence just quoted is taken from a novel called 'Sibyl Huntington.' We give it merely as a sample of a countless host of stories which make the novel-reader doubt the wisdom of the Germans in putting up statues to the inventor of the printing-press.

The Kirby family, readers of 'Little Kate Kirby' will discover, got into all manner of trouble, principally on account of the hostility of the cold, haughty, and wealthy Westmairs. An imitation of the tender passion, while on the one hand it wrought additional confusion, likewise brought peace to their distractions, and, after a flirtation which was very much like a game of chess, all ends happily.

From these caricatures of human beings and human passion one can gladly turn to so true, so simple, and so interesting a story as MM. Erckmann-Chatrian's 'Les deux Frères.' It is told by the teacher of a village

* 'Not Without Thorns: A Story. By Ennis Graham, author of 'She was Young, and he was Old,' etc.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.
'Lakeville; or, Substance and Shadow. By Mary Healy, author of 'A Summer's Romance,' etc. With illustrations.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1873.
'The Mystery of Metropolisville. By Edward Eggleston, author of 'The Hoosier Schoolmaster,' 'The End of the World,' etc. With 13 illustrations.' New York: Orange Judd & Co. 1873.
'Rouge et Noir. A Tale of Baden-Baden. From the French of Edmond About By E. R.' Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger. 1873.
'A Fair Saxon. A Novel. By Justin McCarthy, author of 'Modern Leaders,' 'Lady Judith,' etc., etc.' New York: Sheldon & Co. 1873.
'Clyde Wardleigh's Promise. By Mary D. Naumann, author of 'Twisted Threads,' etc.' Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger. 1873.
'Count Kostia. A Novel. Translated from the French of Victor Cherbuliez by O. D. Ashley.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1873.
'Sibyl Huntington. A Novel. By Mrs. Julia C. R. Door, author of 'Farmingdale,' etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.
'Little Kate Kirby. A Novel. By Frederick W. Robinson, author of 'Christie's Faith,' etc.' New York: Harper & Bros 1873.
'Les Deux Frères. Par Erckmann-Chatrian.' Paris: J. Hetzel & Co. 1873.
'Johannes Olaf. A Novel. By Elizabeth de Wille. Translated from the German by F. E. Bunnett.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1873.
'A Chance Acquaintance. By W. D. Howells.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1873.

in what was the eastern part of France, among the Vosges Mountains, and describes the quarrel of two brothers who fall out from dissatisfaction with their father's way of dividing his property. One has a daughter, the other a son. The story, however, is not so much one of their loves as it is of the healing of the feud between their parents by the meeting of the children. This is set before us so delightfully as to call forth our thankfulness that the love of simplicity has not yet wholly died away among story-tellers.

Heine once said of a work, probably one in his own tongue, "I read the tedious book, fell asleep over it; in my sleep I dreamt that I went on reading; I awoke from fatigue—and this three times." Of a similar sort is Johannes Olaf,' a singular combination of unexpected, incongruous incidents, false sentiment, and repulsive immorality. The hero, who gives his name to the novel, falls in love with a poor girl with whom he establishes illicit relations, and these are narrated in a way that might well make German critics pause and look about them before they reproach French writers of fiction for their improprieties. In his intrigues he is aided by a girl, Franziska, who is in love with him, and who is represented as an otherwise respectable person. The woman who really fascinates him leaves him, and in the course of an adventurous life exercises a baneful influence on various other men of the story. After numberless vicissitudes, which we imagine are intended to represent something like Wilhelm Meister's career, Olaf becomes a mystical philanthropist whom Franziska, now married, still at heart adores. This, with murder, shipwreck, and sudden death, furnishes all the delectation which the reader can derive from the story.

Mr. Howells's 'Chance Acquaintance,' which appeared during the first half of this year in the *Atlantic Monthly*, introduces some of the people who had figured briefly in his 'Wedding Journey,' and weaves for them a love-story on Canadian ground, in a way that shows that one need not be an Arbuton to prefer the half-European flavor of that unamericanized part of the country to the less romantic scenery of the United States. But if the setting is partly foreign, the story does not lose in interest on that account, and the people who are brought before us are taken as types of two very different kinds of Americans. The heroine, Kitty Ellison, is a Western girl who has had none of the advantages of finishing schools, symphony concerts, and Lowell lectures, but has been brought up among sensible people who have had their work to do, and who, besides attending to that, had been sturdy Abolitionists at a time when slavery had more defenders than it has now. From the glimpses we get of her life, it is easy to see how well it encouraged the independence and individuality of her character, and the humor which is so prominent an American trait. The other actor in the play is Mr. Miles Arbuton, of Boston, who has had bestowed on him all that the heart of man could desire—wealth, good family, personal attractiveness of a certain sort, education, foreign travel, so that if young people had nothing better to do than to serve as examples of the truth of proverbs, it would seem as if here were a romance ready to break forth between two such different people. The lack of resemblance lies, too, much deeper than this. Kitty has all the charm which must belong to a young, pretty, kindly, sympathetic girl, while Arbuton has all the narrowness, coldness, and exclusiveness which are most disagreeable when they are found in contrast with what one would naturally expect from all the advantages he possesses, and, it must be said, with what one sees of such people in the flesh. With Kitty Mr. Howells has been remarkably successful; he has drawn a really charming girl, and how difficult and rare a thing that is to do every novel-reader can testify. All her part in the love-making, her innocence, her readiness to be pleased, her kindness towards Arbuton's foibles, her sensitive dignity, her charming humor, belong to a real human being, not to the familiar lay-figure which, one day practical, the next sentimental, goes through the conventional process of love-making with dull uniformity in the writings of the majority of novelists. The plot of the story is simply that of the wooing of this lovely girl by the cold Boston man, who despises America and things American, whose blue blood freezes in his veins at any reference to the South End of his native city. Many of the outside oddities of a shy, reserved man, and many of the peculiarities which distinguish the degenerate grandsons of Pilgrims, Mr. Howells has cleverly caught, but, to our thinking at least, has given us rather the distorted version of the hated Bostonian as he appears to us outside barbarians, than an accurate representation of even a very priggish man. We doubt if even in that home of the east wind there is a man who would carp at his sweetheart's dress ten minutes after she had accepted him, or who would really shudder when she tells him that his possible father-in-law was shot in Kansas. But we may be flattering Bostonians, and it should be said that the story is very prettily told, with its conclusion, which we forbear telling, successfully hidden till the last from the prying wonder of the reader. The many little touches of humor which every reader of Mr. Howells has learned to expect in his works, and which have given him his place as the best of the younger generation of American humorists, are to be found continually in this novel. The descriptions of the scenery, which must be familiar to many, are well done. In fine, we regard 'A Chance Acquaintance' as a step towards the production of "the great American novel." Kitty, alone, is enough to make any novel good. Every one will be glad that a man with the keen observation, the delicate humor, and the literary skill of Mr. Howells has chosen this new occupation for his pen, and we can all await with some impatience his next novel.

A Dictionary of the Derivations of the English Language, in which each word is traced to its primary root, forming a Text-Book of Etymology, with Definitions, and the Pronunciation of each Word. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.)—This dictionary is a 12mo of 400 pages, one of Putnam's Educational Manuals. Its size and proposed contents are well judged, and the printer's work is well done; but the derivations have been prepared by some one unskilled in the modern science of language, who has taken his materials from dictionaries of the old time. Of Grimm and Diez, or even of Webster or Wedgwood, we see no traces. Of course there are blunders and shortcomings on every page. One scrap from the feast of languages, picked up from Max Müller or some other popular essayist, finds a place in the preface. The dangers of mistaken etymology are illustrated from Horne Tooke, who says, it seems, that *truth*, Anglo-Saxon *treowth*, is derived from *trow*, Anglo-Saxon *treow*, to think, and therefore truth is whatever a man believes; from which forlorn conclusion the student of this dictionary is to be rescued by learning that *true* comes from "Skr. *drdha* [*sic*], solid, constant, from *dhue* [*sic*], to be fixed; so that truth is something fixed, settled, something to be built on or rested upon, etc." The book bears the sole imprint of Putnam's Sons, New York, but this sounds like the old country, where the *Saturday Review* keeps putting it to its readers that a thousand years ago *Anglisc* meant the Teutonic speech of Caedmon, and therefore *English* must mean that now. Moreover, Horne Tooke is no proper *Bugbear Americanus*. It is Englishmen mostly who make great eyes at him. He was a radical in politics as well as grammar, and stood by the Americans in the Revolution, and suffered for it. He was for that reason a great favorite in America. His 'Diversions of Purley' was at once reprinted in Philadelphia and made familiar to all our scholars. The stimulus which it gave to the philological studies of such men as Jefferson and Noah Webster is well known. It is one of the most common books of that date in the old libraries. And still, among the gentlemen, especially the country gentlemen, of Virginia and other Southern States, where the old family library has had scant additions from the later generations who eschew Yankee books, Horne Tooke is much read, and his whims about the grammarless tongue are abundantly repeated and discussed. Perhaps it should be ascribed to his influence partly that the Southern colleges have so readily taken up the historical study of English and Anglo-Saxon in these later times. The name is not given of the author who made our little dictionary, and who knows, in spite of Tooke, what solid Sanskrit *truth* has to rest on—in the preface; it is not repeated in the body of the work.

Fine Arts.

PICTURES OF THE FLEMISH SCHOOL.

RUBENS is never seen to greater advantage than in his bacchanalian subjects, and a small picture of his in that motive, now placed in the keeping of Mr. Page the artist, is an epitome of the most that the Fleming was able to do. It is an easel-painting on copper, perhaps fifteen by twenty inches, and represents a saturated Bacchus led by a youth and pushed by a satyr or Pan; the relief behind the figures is dark, and a good specimen of Rubens's dashing landscape, while the *ordonnance* of colors on the flesh and accessories makes it perhaps a better exemplar for the student than the master's favorite instance of a grape-bunch. The artist reserves his finest flesh-tones for the central figure, contrasting them richly with the fawn-colored fur of a creeping tiger at the left, and on the other side with his warmest tint in a piece of flying drapery from the satyr. The composition has a characteristic grace of its own, violently opposed, of course, to the grace of any Greek bacchanalian group; the personages have the exaltation of beer, not of Chian wine; but they roll through the landscape with a sense of sinuous motion impossible for art to excel—a motion suggested in the first place by the tiger's magnificent tread, most perfectly caught, and then carried out by the pose and muscular action of the figures. The Bacchus heaves an asthmatic torso covered with masses of yielding flesh, such as the Flemish painter may be said to have invented; beside the puffy and infantine leg of the chief figure is set the straining limb of the bacchanal who drags him, corded with

sinew; and on the other side the satyr lowers his forehead to buttress up the vine-crowned head of the divinity, which four distinct chins are not able to preserve in equilibrium. For the true Rubens quality—for solid and pure color struck upon the picture at one jet, for faculty in drawing at first-hand with the brush, and for expression of the untrammelled flow and ease of life—this specimen is superb. It seems to be simply the current expression by the painter of a day's delight, the overflow of a prime physical exuberance in springtime. There is no hint that a pupil ever touched it, in the manner so common with the grand mural subjects. It is in perfect preservation, apparently always hidden safe from the restorer, and a few white specks where the pigment has sprung from the copper only seem to give it a date and attest its immaculate state. It is a little reservoir of Flemish vitality.

As an act of homage to Rubens and his school, we think few Americans can show so monumental a work as that of Mr. Alfred B. Copeland, who has brought home a quantity of rarely good copies. Among these, which have been displayed at the Somerville Gallery, some are very large, and it is evident that years of toil must have gone to the whole elaborate testimonial of fidelity and love. "The Presentation of the Infant Christ to St. Jerome," after the work at Rubens's place of sepulture, is a rich report from one of the master's grandest and gustiest pieces of display. Its audacious pomp of color, pride of drapery, and whirlwind of motion—increased by the painter himself, who rushes causelessly into his picture in the flashing arms of St. George—have been felt with much sympathy, and copied without negligence. In diminishing-work, Mr. Copeland is equally happy, and his study of the "Last Communion of Saint Francis" is a piece of pictorial jewelry, resembling the original as a view through the wrong end of an opera-glass would do. In taking up another master, the copyist entirely changes his style, and there is a good effort at bold sketching, and at the painter's peculiar fluted drapery, in the "Fisher Boy" after Franz Hals; to follow so rapid a workman, as the student evidently sees, there is no use of mending and returning on yourself; the only way is to dash at Hals a great many times, on a great many canvases; and then, selecting your luckiest, and carrying it off to keep, you may be able to show the public some of that immense daguerreotyping power which made Hals, with Rembrandt, as a critic says, "dominate and get beyond the whole Holland school." In copying Hals and Rubens, we observe, Mr. Copeland tries with all his might to lose himself in their vim and storm, just as he does again in aristocratic elegance and symmetry with Van Dyck; it is good pupillage, perhaps, but it is not favorable to future individuality and self-respect. "It behoves a painter doing copy-work," says Henri Delaborde, "and doing it sincerely, to put something of himself into his task of assimilation, just as a musician can and should, without changing or adding out of his head aught to the composition of a master, inform us in his execution, up to a certain point, what he is feeling about it for his own part." There, we think, is a good proverb for any copyist at the point of drowning. Mr. Copeland's whole exhibition is thorough enough and imposing enough to start a good many questions about the propriety of making and acquiring elaborate studies of old masters, a subject now being discussed in France, and discussed with a good deal of satire, apropos of the new museum of such copies opened by the Ecole des Beaux-Arts.

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BY

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EXTRACTS.

"LIBERTY.—A narrower interpretation would be as follows: There is a period now generally reached all over Europe and America, at which discussion takes the place of compulsion, and in which people when they know what is good for them generally do it. When this period is reached, compulsion may be laid aside. To this I should say, no such period has as yet been reached anywhere, and there is no prospect of its being reached anywhere within any assignable time."

"Our own minds have become so much sophisticated by commonplaces about liberty and toleration, and about the division between the temporal and the spiritual power, that we have almost ceased to think the attainment of truth in religion as desirable if it were possible. It appears to me that, if it were possible, the attainment of religious truth and its recognition by legislation would be of all conceivable blessings the greatest."

"If prize-fighters were allowed to give foul blows, and hit or kick a man when he is down, they would hurt each other much more than they do, but their relative strength would be far less effectually tested. So with religion: what is wanted is not peace, but fair play."

"Shall we send our son to college? Shall we send our daughter to school, or have a governess? . . . On these and a thousand other such questions the wisest and most affectionate people might arrive at opposite conclusions. What is to be done in such a case? For something must be done. I say, the wife must give way. She ought to obey her husband, and carry out the view at which he deliberately arrives, just as, when the captain gives the word to cut away the masts, the lieutenant carries out his orders at once, though he may be a better seaman, and may disapprove of them."

"Each must act as he thinks best, and, if he is wrong, so much the worse for him. We stand on a mountain-pass in the midst of whirling snow and blinding mist, through which we get glimpses now and then of paths which may be deceptive. If we stand still, we shall be frozen to death. If we take the wrong road, we shall be dashed to pieces. We do not certainly know if there be any right one. What must we do? 'Be strong and of a good courage.' Act for the best, hope for the best, and take what comes. Above all, let us dream no dreams and tell no lies, but go our way wherever it may lead, with our eyes open and our heads erect."

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JUNE 9, 1873.

THE chief event of importance last week was the advance of the Bank of England minimum discount rate from 6 to 7 per cent. The decrease of bullion in the bank last week was £215,000. The continued increase of the discount rate does not seem to have had the effect which was desired—the prevention of the outflow of specie from the bank, and the withdrawal of gold from this country. Fortunately, the condition of our foreign trade is such that we have not been obliged to ship specie in order to pay our debts during the time that the bank rate has been raised. The Bank of France gained 2,750,000 francs in specie last week. The payment of 250,000,000 francs by France to Germany on account of the indemnity was promptly made on the 5th inst.

The money market at this centre has remained very easy at 6 per cent. and under. On Saturday, lenders had difficulty in placing their balances on call at anything better than 4 per cent., while very late in the day money loaned down to the nominal rate of 2 per cent. per annum.

Commercial paper is easy of late at 7 and 8 per cent. for prime names, with a very small supply on the market. We hear that extra choice names have been negotiated below 7 per cent.

The bank statement is unusually favorable, and the gain in reserve was such as to carry it up to $10,815,325 above the required 25 per cent.—a gain of $5,896,225 over last week. The principal gain was in specie—$6,502,800, which represents to some extent the large payments made by the Treasury on account of the called bonds. The following is the comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	May 31.	June 7.	Differences.
Loans	$277,958,800	$277,418,800	Dec. $540,000
Specie	19,482,000	25,984,800	Inc. 6,502,800
Circulation	27,447,100	27,434,100	Dec. 13,000
Deposits	208,136,500	214,475,800	Inc. 6,339,300
Legal tenders	44,332,300	45,308,000	Inc. 975,700

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	May 31.	June 7.	Differences.
Specie	$19,482,000	$25,984,800	Inc. $6,502,800
Legal tenders	44,332,3 0	45,308,000	Inc. 975,700
Total reserve	$63,814,300	$71,292,800	Inc. $7,478,500
Circulation	27,447,100	27,434,100	Dec. 13,000
Deposits	208,136,500	214,475 800	Inc. 6,239,300
Total liabilities	$235,583,600	$241,909,900	Inc. $6,326,300
25 per cent. reserve	58,895,900	60,477,475	
Excess over legal reserve	4,918,400	10,815,325	Inc. 5,896,925

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$239,822,200	$37,596,600	$277,418,800
Specie	23 562,900	2,421.900	25,984 800
Legal tenders	39,522,100	5.785,900	45,308,000
Deposits	185,011,400	29,464.400	214,475,800
Circulation	27,391,100	43,000	27 434,100
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	29 70-100 p.c.	27 82-100 p.c.	29 47-100 p.c.

The stock market, partly owing to the absence of leading operators at the West attending the election meetings of a number of important railroad corporations, and partly to the yacht race on Thursday and the Jerome Park races on Saturday, was very dull, and at times almost entirely neglected. A report that the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad Company had issued a large lot of new bonds, the issue of which was unauthorized, created a rush to sell the stock, which carried the price down to 37½. It was subsequently ascertained that the Company had authority to issue $1,000,000 in bonds, of which amount $400,000 were to be used at once for the purpose of tracking the road with steel rails, while the balance are to be held back for the present. The truth of the matter being made known did not improve the market value of the stock.

Three of the ex-directors of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company stated in a card last week that the recent report of the affairs of the Company was made entirely upon the authority of Mr. A. B. Stockwell, and that a full statement ought to be made public. The new board promised early in the week to make a full and correct statement, and it made its appearance on Saturday. It may be correct so far as it goes, but it certainly is not very full, inasmuch as it places no valuation upon the Company's steamers. The report (which we publish below) had no effect upon the market price of the stock, which was quite steady to-day above 40.

In the investment stocks we notice a further decline in Michigan Central to 99. Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy is dull at about 103½. Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western is strong, and has been in good demand all the week. To-day there were considerable sales at 105¾ to 105⅛. New Jersey Central has been dull, with the prices ranging between 105¼ and 103½.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending June 7, 1873:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101¾	102⅝	101⅝	102	10 ⅛	101½	101¾	101½	101	101½	100¼	101½	53,100
Lake Shore	91⅜	92¼	91⅜	92⅜	91¼	91⅜	91⅜	91⅝	91⅜	91⅝	91⅜	91⅜	44,700
Erie	63⅜	63⅝	62⅞	63⅜	62	62½	62¾	62⅝	62	62½	61⅜	62⅜	24,800
Do. pfd.	....	74	73¼	74½	....	74½	....	74¼	....	74¼	....	....	.....
Union Pacific	27⅛	28	27½	28⅜	27¾	28⅝	28¼	28⅝	28	28⅜	28¾	28¼	35,700
Chi. & N. W.	....	74	.....	.....	....	76	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Do. pfd.	84	85	....	85¼	84½	85	85	....	85	....	84	85	.....
N. J. Central	105¼	106	105½	....	105¼	....	105¼	106	106¼	....	.....	.....	500
Rock Island	109⅜	110⅜	109⅜	110⅞	109⅜	109⅞	109¾	109⅞	108⅝	109¼	108⅞	109⅜	33,000
Mil. & St. Paul	54⅜	55⅜	55	55⅝	54⅜	55	54⅜	54⅞	54⅜	54⅜	54½	54¾	5 600
Do. pfd.	....	73	72⅜	73½	73	73¼	7 ⅜	73	72⅜	....	.....	.....	1 400
Wabash	68⅜	69¼	68⅜	69	68⅜	69	68⅝	69	68½	69	68¾	68¼	7,100
D. L. & Western	104⅜	105	105	....	104⅜	105	105	....	105	105¼	105½	105	5 900
B. H. & Erie	2½	2¼	2	2½	2¼	2⅜	2⅜	....	2	....	.....	.....	4,200
O. & M.	41¼	42	41¼	41⅜	41	41⅜	40⅜	41¼	39⅜	41¼	37½	39⅝	84 500
C. C. & I. C.	30⅝	31⅜	31	31⅜	31	31½	31¼	31⅝	30⅝	31⅜	30½	31¼	15 500
W. U. Tel.	84⅞	85⅝	85¼	85⅝	84¼	85¼	84⅝	84½	84¼	84⅞	84	84½	53,200
Pacific Mail	39	40½	38¼	39⅜	39⅛	40⅞	39⅞	40¼	40¼	51	38⅜	40¼	224,100

The Government bond market has remained strong with a constant demand for bonds from shippers. The Treasury programme for June provides for the purchase of only $1,000,000 bonds—$500,000 on the 4th and 18th each.

The holders of the bonds of the St. Joseph and Denver City Railroad Company are to have a meeting in this city on Wednesday, the 11th instant. It will be recollected that it was this Company which defaulted upon its interest last February. The meeting may bring out some developments as to the manner in which Western railroads are built. At any rate, it is pretty sure to bring together a large gathering of people, many of whom can ill afford to lose the amount they have invested in this kind of property.

The following is the "full and complete" statement of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company before referred to:

STATEMENT OF ASSETS, MAY 31, 1873.

Cash in Bank		$31,940 87	
Cash in hands Howe Machine Co., London		28,000 00	
Drafts on U. S. Navy Department remitted by agents, and collections for freight due by New York agency		66 696 00	
$100,000 U. S. 5 per cent. bonds, hypothecated		115,500 00	
Due by Union Pacific Railroad Co		67,543 82	
		$309,680 69	
LESS—			
Due Panama R. R. Co.—call loan	$100,000 00		
" May bills for supplies unpaid	30,000 00		
" " " coal freights "	20,000 00		
" Panama agency drafts accepted	16,000 00		
" In May on account of contracts, for steamers and engines	123,000 00		
		289,000 00	
			$20,680 69
Cash in hands of pursers and agents, estimated			135,876 28
INVESTMENTS—			
500 shares Panama Railroad stock, value	$55 000 00		
2 085 shares California Dry Dock, cost	101 335 99		
			156,335 99
			$312,892 86
Call loan due by Isaac Taylor, unsecured, borrowed of the Company Feb. 1867, now in suit	25,000 00		
Notes, Howe Machine Co., endorsed by A. B. Stockwell, due, $100,000 each, July 1, Aug. 1, Sept. 1, Oct. 1, Nov. 1, Dec. 1, and Jan. 1, and Feb. 1, 1874, and $40,000 May 1—all of the above disputed	840,000 00		
		$865,000 00	
Coals, amount on hand, estimated	$1,150,000 00		
Outfits and supplies on hand estimated	350,000 00		
		$1,500 000 00	
*New steamers—estimated cost of eight, built and in process of building	$4.500,000 00		
Less amount paid on account of same	2,663,881 13		
		$1,836,118 87	
Repairing wharf at Aspinwall, estimated		75,000 00	
Amount for which provision is made, in payments of about $200,000 monthly		$1,911,118 87	

STATEMENT OF PROPERTY.

REAL ESTATE, ETC.—

The Company own a large amount of valuable real estate, wharf property, etc., etc., at San Francisco, San Diego, Oregon, Acapulco, Panama, Aspinwall, Hong-kong, Shanghai, Yokohama, Hiogo, Nagasaki, etc., etc., estimated by the report recently made $2,009,831 77

Total number of steamships, thirty-four.

The Company deem it unwise to append any valuation to these vessels, it being their purpose to have them properly appraised at as early a date as practicable.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS, EXPENSES, AND REPAIRS FOR THE YEAR ENDING MAY 1, 1873.

Gross Receipts		$5,785,210 63	
Total expenses, including all repairs, etc., etc		4 958 521 61	
			$826,689 02
Steamers lost during the year:			
America	$1,017,942 22		
Sacramento	600,000 00	Valued as per estimates last published.	$1,657,942 22
Guatemala	†60 000		
†Less Insurance	20,000		
	40,000 00		

* Of these the *Colon* is now in service, having sailed 10th May for Aspinwall, making the voyage—2,000 miles—in seven days; average consumption, 20 tons coal per day.

† 10,000 of this amount is in suit.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 19, 1873.

The Week.

THE New Orleans *Republican*, "the official journal of the State of Louisiana," publishes what purports to be a telegram from General Dick Taylor to Mr. Kellogg, the "Governor" of that State, dated Feb. 28, 1873, in which he says: "Act boldly and generously; the President will sustain such action. Do not listen to small office-holders. Act to make friends of good people. I speak by authority. You will be sustained." This the *Republican* calls "a bombshell in the Fusion camp," and says it "smashes to atoms" the story published by the *Nation* that the President had read General Taylor a message sustaining McEnery, which was afterwards overruled by Senator Morton. About this we shall only say that our informant professed to have received the story from General Taylor's lips, and we do not think anything short of General Taylor's own contradiction ought to convict him of falsehood. It is to be observed, too, that the telegram is a collection of moral apothegms, which it seems to us very unlikely that General Taylor would pay for sending over the wires. He is a kind of man who would, we should think, transmit by mail any gnomic wisdom he had to distribute. This is as much as saying that we have not implicit faith in Louisiana politicians, not having heard of any recent religious awakening among them. We shall, therefore, suspend our judgment till General Taylor's return from Europe. The *Republican* says "the President's mouth is closed by his position," so that he cannot contradict the story. This may be, but the Honorable Oliver P. Morton's mouth is not closed either by "his position" or anything else. Why does not he utter a few wise saws on the subject?

Another thing that should be recollected in connection with this matter is the fact that in the earlier stages of the Louisiana troubles Mr. Kellogg was reported, on authority never, so far as we know, discredited, to be ready to "fuse" the decent members of his own legislature with a certain number of the McEnery members, and so set up a government that should "make friends of good people"—to use the words of the General Taylor despatch. This, to quote the despatch again, would have been to "act boldly and generously," and would precisely have been to "not listen to small office-holders." Until General Taylor's return to this country and the publication of his own account of the matter, should any such publication ever be made, we for our part shall believe that General Taylor would have been glad to see the McEnery party recognized as the true majority of the Louisiana voters; that his mission to Washington was to exert influence in favor of that recognition; that, failing this, he favored the fusion which Kellogg was understood to be then willing to make, though the "small office-holders" gave him different orders afterwards; that whether or not he ever had the President's promise to support McEnery (and it is our belief that he had), he did have, if the now published telegram be genuine, the President's promise of support for the fusion project.

July is, of all the months in the year, perhaps the most disagreeable in the Southern States. This is not merely owing to the heat of the weather, but to the fact that in July various sums of money—interest on State bonds especially—become due, and there is no money to pay with. All sorts of devices are now being resorted to throughout the South to get over this difficulty. Some time since the Treasurer of the State of Texas gave notice that a number of bonds issued by that State had been abstracted from the treasury, and were in consequence repudiated. Apparently this scheme was too simple, for we hear now that the State has "receded from the position taken." From Louisiana, notice has been sent to Wall Street that the validity of some $250,000 of bonds issued in aid of the construction of a ship-canal is contested, on the ground that the issue was fraudulent and illegal. Meantime, in South Carolina the Supreme Court has under consideration a petition of Morton, Bliss & Co., of this city, filed to compel the State Comptroller to pay the interest on its bonds by levying "a *pro-rata* tax as required by law." Some of the taxpayers, however, have filed a counter-petition, alleging that $7,250,000 bonds have been fraudulently issued, and that the bonds on which Morton, Bliss & Co. claim interest are part of the fraudulent issue. There is also talk of repudiating the entire debt of North Carolina—some $31,000,000. Indeed, repudiation seems in some of the Southern States a foregone conclusion. Property has been taxed to such an extent that no more taxes can be laid on; yet they must be laid on to pay the debts.

A curious document is in circulation in Illinois—a paraphrase of the Declaration of Independence, drawn up by the farmers. The opening paragraphs are very similar to those of the original instrument; but of course, when the farmers come to the grievances they have to complain of, the list is rather different from that drawn up by the signers of the first Declaration. The history of the railroad monopoly in this country, they say, "is a history of repeated injuries and oppression, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over the people of these States unequalled in any monarchy of the Old World." "To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world." The facts are—first, that the railroads have, corruptly and for their own gain, secured the control of the legislature, the executive, and the judiciary; they have obstructed the administration of justice for the purpose of striking terror to the hearts of the people; they have brought oppressive suits and made oppressive arrests; they have virtually cut off our trade with distant parts of the world:

> "They have by false representation and subterfuge induced the people to subscribe funds to build roads, whose rates when built are so exorbitant that in many instances transportation by private conveyance is less burdensome. They have procured charters by which they condemn and appropriate our lands without adequate compensation therefor, and arrogantly claim that by virtue of these charters they are absolutely above the control of legal enactments. They have procured a law of Congress by which they have dispossessed hundreds of farmers of the homes that by years of toil they have built up; have induced others to mortgage their farms for roads never intended to be built, and, after squandering the money thus obtained, have left their victims to the mercy of the courts over which they held absolute sway."

These are some of the complaints of the farmers, who now, "appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world" for the rectitude of their intentions, etc., etc., hereby declare themselves

> "absolutely free and independent of all past political connections, and that we will give our suffrage only to such men for office, from the lowest officer in the State to the President of the United States, as we have good reason to believe will use their best endeavors to the promotion of these ends; and for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."

There is so much exaggeration about this, and so much vagueness as to the remedies proposed, that we fear it is likely to cause amusement out of Illinois. Every one knows that the railroads are extortionate and unscrupulous, but they have not shown any desire to establish a "tyranny" in the United States such as was established in the last century by the English crown. Their aim is a very simple one, and it is the same as that of the farmers. They are trying to make money. No doubt it becomes more and more for the interest of corporations, as they increase in power, to control the State machinery. But as yet they only have attempted to control the State machinery so far as it has been necessary for money-getting purposes. No railroad that we have ever heard of has attempted to levy war on the people, and,

therefore, the pledge of the farmers' lives and fortunes and sacred honors seems rather made for the sake of the pleasing associations connected with the words, than because they anticipate what Washington and his associates had real reason to expect in case of failure. We hear of no other important movements of the farmers except that there are several indications, contained in resolutions passed by local conventions, that they are beginning to wake up to the importance of free trade. In Stark County, for instance, they have resolved that:

"To restore health to our crippled commerce, and to get a reduction of transportation tariffs by land and water to the cheapest basis of economy, it is essential that the carrying interest should have cheap materials and supplies; we, therefore, declare that the tariff duties on all materials used in building and operating ships and railroads ought to be immediately removed, giving free trade in all such commodities."

The Chinese in San Francisco have had a little discussion with the Caucasian Board of Supervisors in that city, in which the latter body has been terribly mauled, and in fact, in the slang of the forum, left without a leg to stand on. It had passed a most injudicious order, which the Mayor to his honor vetoed, directing the hair of the Chinese prisoners in the county jail to be clipped—or, in other words, their pig-tails to be cut off—which is not only about as great an outrage as can be inflicted on a Chinaman, but is of course aggravated by the fact that a pig-tail is the result of years of growth. The appearance of the order called forth a petition from the Chinese merchants in San Francisco, in which they say that it is quite plain that public sentiment to them in this country is hostile, and that the desire to oppress and harass them is strong; but that repugnance of Chinese to the presence of foreigners in their own country is strong also, which has not prevented Europeans and Americans forcing their way into China under treaties won at the cannon's mouth; that if Chinamen supplant white labor in the United States, the introduction of foreign steamers on Chinese rivers has thrown out of employment a whole army of junkmen; while foreigners resident in China are not even subject to Chinese laws, and are bitterly hostile to the country and its institutions. They therefore propose that if Chinamen are so obnoxious to the people of this country that they have to be made the objects of oppressive, discriminating legislation, the present treaties between the United States and China should be abrogated, and each country be allowed to pursue unchecked its own policy towards foreigners, in which case all commercial intercourse between them would be suspended, the Americans would have to withdraw themselves, their trade and steamers, from China, and the Chinese in this country would cheerfully return home. This would relieve the Chinese statesmen from the serious social and political embarrassments with which the question of foreign intercourse threatens the empire, and enable them to return to the ancient ways, and save the Californians all trouble and anxiety about the 15,000 or 20,000 who annually reach their shores, and do so much of their hard work. We doubt whether the Supervisors will be able to provide an answer to this.

The Massachusetts Legislature has adjourned, after a very long session, during which it seems to have earned the contempt and disgust of the people to an unusual degree. To read the jeering insults heaped upon the heads of the unhappy members by the press, one might imagine that a modern legislature was a council of rather imbecile foreign satraps commissioned to govern the people by a distant conqueror. This Legislature distinguished itself by attempting to imitate Congress in the passage of a "salary grab"; but the yeas and nays were too much for the courage of the members, and it was defeated. It passed a bill giving State aid to the Lee and New Haven Railroad, which the Governor at once vetoed, the State having, in the opinion of most people, more right to claim something from the Lee and New Haven Railroad than that corporation had to demand anything of the State. The most important question of the session was that relating to the Hoosac Tunnel. This was settled by killing the State-ownership plan proposed by Mr. C. F. Adams, jr. There is now a fierce contest going on between the Butlerites and the enemies of Butler for the appointment of the United States District Attorney, the office having fallen vacant by the death of Mr. D. H. Mason. The struggle for this bit of spoil is made the more interesting by the fact that the result will be regarded by the smaller politicians as in some sort an omen of the result of the coming contest for the governorship.

The feelings with which a sick horse listens to a congress of buzzards on a neighboring tree may be supposed something like those with which timid Massachusetts men read their last week's *Saturday Evening Gazette*. "On Friday afternoon," says that journal, "fifty-nine gentlemen assembled in the Revere House, and sat down to a sumptuous feast by invitation of Colonel Jonas H. French." On his right was General B. F. Butler, and on his left was Dr. George B. Loring; and, after the cloth was removed, Colonel French called on Colonel Hoyt, of Athol, who made a few remarks. French, by the way, is a business partner of Butler's; Hoyt is the member of the Massachusetts House who was so outraged in his better nature by Mr. Sumner's resolution about the flags of the regular army; and Dr. Loring is known to everybody; or, if not, it is not for any fault of his. Mr. Hoyt's remarks ended with a sentiment which brought up General Butler, who "made quite a long speech, in which he mainly defended his course on the salary grab," saying that he was chosen to present the bill because he was the only member of the Committee on the Judiciary to which it was referred "whose term held over"; that he was not the author of it at all; that he was "at first greatly opposed to it"; that it was not the first bill of the kind, and so forth—all of which is not nearly so lionlike as the three-cent postage-stamp performance with which he set out this spring, when popular dislike of the Salary Bill had not made itself felt, and Butler thought he could be bold with impunity. This defence being over, "General Butler squarely announced himself as a candidate for governor. He would be glad to receive all votes, but should not feel unkindly to those friends who might oppose him, though his heart would beat a little warmer for those who favored him." This is something of a departure from his usual plan, which is to declare that he "never forgets a friend," while as for his "enemies" he splits them down the back and eats them, and is a terrible fellow generally.

Dr. Loring followed Butler. "He said all that he asked and expected was permission to reoccupy the chair of the President of the Senate." This we suppose is to be understood that it is quite a mistake to say that if Butler wants Loring to help him into the State House he must "fix things" in Essex County so that Loring can go to Congress from that District; but we have no exclusive information, and the local journals do not speak with any certainty. The *Gazette* goes on to say of Dr. Loring's remarks that "he fought shy of the governorship, never once mentioning Butler in connection with it"—which to those who know the blunt, manly openness of Loring will seem singular. Among the gentlemen present at this banquet were Judge Sanger, who is said to be urged by the Boutwell-Butler clique for the United States District-Attorneyship; Major Babson, United States Shipping Agent; Mr. R. G. Usher, United States Marshal; Mr. Thomas Russell, the Collector of the Port, "who came out strongly for Butler, and was explicit and sanguine on the subject," as indeed he ought to be, Butler having in one way and another secured the patronage not only of his own District but of one or two others. The meeting adjourned at about seven o'clock, "with three cheers for Ben Butler, the next Governor of Massachusetts," which, as the *Advertiser* thinks, betokens "a rough-and-tumble fight for the control of the State government." It adds that it believes the real reason of the Butler demonstration to be that his friends are anxious to begin work, that they have been waiting for somebody to furnish them a pretext by attacking their favorite, and that, as no one has gratified them in this respect, they have had to take the initiative themselves. "There is a great power in the State," it concludes, "which

does not choose to be dragged into a political scramble at this time, but must be consulted before any arrangements for the fall canvass are completed." This is very true, no doubt; but so it was two years ago, and it did not prevent Butler from very nearly carrying everything before him.

The lamentations of the *Times* over the partial failure of the reform movement in this city, as revealed by Mayor Havemeyer's appointments and a prospect of a reunion of the two Democratic factions, have drawn from the *Tribune* an explanation of the situation of which nobody can deny the correctness, and that is, that the Custom-house publicists have fallen into their own trap. They declared as soon as the Legislature met that the victory at the election had been won by Republicans, and it was the right and duty of Republicans to govern the city. All pretence of non-partisanship with regard to municipal affairs was laid aside. The Republican orators in the Legislature proclaimed openly that the Charter must provide for the establishment of Republican rule, and the *Times'* Albany despatches from day to day laid down the same great doctrine. The Committee of Seventy was accordingly thrust scornfully aside, and Messrs. Bliss, Davenport, and Murphy compounded the great instrument under which the city was to live. Such was their contempt for the enemy that the lobbying of it was left to young Mr. Davenport, who went up and took a permanent seat on the floor of the Assembly. The result has been that they failed in making the Charter just what they wanted, and failed in taking away power from the Mayor, but thoroughly roused his animosity by their crusade against him, and, what is worse, made such an open display of their desire to use the city offices for partisan purposes that they rekindled the partisan fervor of the Democrats also, and furnished them with an excuse for using the municipal offices for the benefit of *their* "great party." So the Police Board, the most powerful electioneering engine in the city, is now in Democratic hands. Tammany and Apollo Hall are said to be about to unite, and nothing is left for Murphy, Bliss & Davenport but to weep. Not only have they lost their game, but they have lost their reputation; for people thought that, if they were nothing else, they were good "managers"; but this turns out a delusion. The *Tribune* not inaptly compares their Charter to the mountain howitzer carried by a jackass, and intended to be fired over his tail, but which was rendered useless by his whisking round whenever the fuse was lighted. We ought to say, however, that we are satisfied that we did injustice to the Custom-house publicists in charging them with having kept "Hank" Smith in office. They did their best to have him left out, but failed even in this, their virtuous confederates in the Senate being determined on retaining the great man's services. He and Charlick must have many a good laugh together at the Police Board.

There is news from Japan which one might have expected for some time past, namely, that the finances have got into such disorder, and the debt become so large, that the ministers do not know how to deal with it, and have resigned. As Japan has been doing, or trying to do, the work of at least half a century in three or four years, remodelling not her institutions only, but her manners, and adopting the most expensive contrivances of Western civilization, and this in a country in which production had already in the most important fields—agriculture, for instance—been carried almost to perfection, it was hardly to be expected by anybody who thought seriously of what such a revolution meant that pecuniary embarrassment could be avoided. Moreover, it has been quite evident for some time that the national mind had been thrown off its balance and had got into the semi-delirious condition which is best described by the phrase "enthusiasm for progress." A good illustration of its effects was afforded by Mr. Arinori Mori's proposal to Professor Whitney, that his countrymen should abandon their language and begin talking English. The *Tribune* correspondent at Yedo, by the way, reports this gentleman as having been disgraced and recalled for irregularities in his accounts and disobedience to orders, and says he has gone to Europe and will probably remain there, being afraid to return home, where hari-kari awaits him. This has been contradicted, however, by later accounts, but there is apparently some foundation for the story at least.

The English papers received by the last mail have been again at work this week at the *Alabama* question, apropos of the publication of a correspondence between Mr. Fish and Mr. Bancroft Davis, in which Mr. Fish takes notice of some of Sir Alexander Cockburn's positions, and declares that the United States will bear them in mind for future use, which the London *Times* thinks absurd and immoral. It is no doubt somewhat absurd to avail yourself of a decision in your favor by a board of arbitrators, and, at the same time, declare that you will probably, at some future day, take advantage also of a contrary opinion expressed by a minority of the court; but it is the natural consequence of that other absurdity of Sir Alexander Cockburn's, in calling himself "in some sense the representative of Great Britain." He ought not to have been in any sense the representative of Great Britain while sitting as an arbiter. We trust Mr. Fish, having now given him tit for tat, the indiscretion on both sides may be forgotten. It is not easy for "the principle of arbitration" to survive such things. Mr. Bancroft Davis declares in his letter that the principal Continental papers approved of the "indirect claims." This is a mistake. No Continental paper of prominence did anything of the kind. Nay, more, we venture to assert that every leading Continental journal condemned them in strong terms, and that a large number of them, unhappily, occasionally use them still as an illustration of the low condition of American morals. Mr. Davis will do well to stop airing the "indirect claims," and calling on mankind to admire them.

Marshal MacMahon has surrounded himself with a highly conservative Ministry, one of them, M. Magne, the Minister of Finance, being an old Imperialist, while the Duc de Broglie takes the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Marshal himself has promised to re-establish "moral order" in the country, and to "uphold the principles on which society rests," whatever that may mean. M. Gambetta threw a bombshell into the newly formed Cabinet on the 10th inst., in the Assembly, by producing a circular addressed by M. Beulé, the Minister of the Interior, to the prefects, making minute enquiries about the provincial press, and suggesting the employment of subsidies and other means of corruption in order to control it. Strange to say, the telegraphic reports make no mention of "advertising patronage" as one of the instruments for keeping the press straight, and yet it is one of the most powerful, as our brethren here know, and as M. Beulé might have found out by sending over. M. Beulé, like a frank reactionary that he is, acknowledged the authenticity of the circular in the most unblushing manner; but this was a little too strong, even for the Right, we presume, for he has since resigned. What is in the future is still as uncertain as ever. All sorts of intentions are ascribed to MacMahon, though we believe he will attempt no change of his own motion; but obey the Assembly he undoubtedly will, and, if it resolves on a monarchy, a monarch he will set up, and the monarch he would soonest set up is probably Henri V. The revolution—for such it may be called—has apparently sobered the Left, who are much calmer since Thiers went out. Of course, another trial of a monarchy would be a great misfortune, as it would mark the entrance of the country on another of those dismal cycles which began in 1815, and ended at Sedan; but, until there is a French public active, thinking, and interested in politics, and confident of their ability to manage their own affairs, and willing to do without a great standing army, there can be no permanent republic any more than a permanent monarchy. Prince de Joinville, in a recent speech, says the Government is doing what President Lincoln told him he was doing all through our war, "keeping the tent from blowing down, and driving in the pegs as fast as they are pulled up."

A SUGGESTION ABOUT THE CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION.

WE think the Government, in dealing with what is called "the Vienna scandal," ought to reflect on its possible effects on the great International Exposition by which it is proposed to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence. Preparations for this are already being made on a great scale. A Commission is at work evolving plans and raising money, though we believe, as to the money, with but indifferent success. As yet, but little interest is manifested in the project by the country at large, but this is doubtless owing to the remoteness of the period at which the Exhibition is to take place, for, in our day, three years is a long time. We have little doubt that by next year popular excitement in it will begin to be roused, and the money, from voluntary contributions and stock-taking, begin to come in more freely. But it must be borne in mind that, no matter how much enthusiasm may be roused by the undertaking on this side of the water, its success will depend on the extent to which people of other nations take part in it. An International Exhibition in which foreigners do not exhibit is, *ex vi termini*, a failure. To make it really worthy of the event it is intended to commemorate, it ought to be as near perfection of its kind as the width of the ocean will allow it to be. That is, the building should contain, in great profusion and variety, the products of industry of every civilized country. Unless there is a fair prospect of this, the scheme should, before it is too late, be abandoned for one which can be carried out by American hands alone. There will be something very mortifying in issuing invitations to all the earth to rejoice with Americans over the achievement of their independence, and receiving only a partial or careless response.

Now, we mean to cast no reflection or imputation whatever on the Commission which has charge of the matter when we say that it is not a bit too soon for ostentatious carefulness about its operations to begin. Foreign craftsmen will not send their goods here unless they are assured of fair treatment in all things, and, above all, in the awarding of the prizes, and unless they are satisfied that they will not be made the victims of any species of sharp practice. It is humiliating to have to mention that just now the European public needs to have its faith in American honesty strengthened, but such is the painful truth. With regard to industrial expositions in particular, the American reputation has received a severe blow from this Vienna affair. It is not that people believe the Vienna Commissioners fair specimens of the American citizen, but they see, or think they see, in the "scandal" abundant proof that the American Government does not care what kind of men it puts in official positions. It is true they are used to the indifference to the national reputation displayed in the choice of so many of our foreign representatives; but, in all countries, strange fellows come to the surface in politics and diplomacy, and, at all events, the character and antecedents of a diplomat concern but very few persons in the country to which he is accredited. But when we come to the representatives of our art, science, and industry, it is a different matter. People expect these to be what they pretend to be, men of real distinction, sent abroad to meet other men of real distinction in the same fields. In short, to speak plainly, when the Austrians got up the Exposition, and invited other nations to send their products to it, they expected each nation to have its interests looked after by its leading artists, inventors, manufacturers, scientific men, etc. Common courtesy required that the invitation, if accepted at all, should be accepted under these conditions, and, most of all, by the United States, which makes it its boast and glory that the things it most cares for are the arts of peace, and the men it most honors those who have done most to broaden the horizon of human knowledge and increase the sum of human comforts. We have not armies or great monuments to show, but we do profess to produce the industrial man in great perfection.

The Commission which our Government sent out must, therefore, have greatly astonished the Austrians. That we should not have cared much for their feelings was explicable on various grounds, or if we had declined to have anything to do with the Exposition, that would have been comprehensible too; but that, having made up our minds to take part in it, we should send over the curious band which General Van Buren led into the old city last month, is something which cannot be made plain to the Austrian mind. One would have to take a German in his childhood and instruct him carefully in order to enable him to grasp it, because behind it there lies a view of national life, and of the relations of the Government to the community, of which no German knows anything. It is quite true that there were many very respectable men on the Commission, but there was hardly one well-known name on it, and the oddest thing about it was perhaps the selection of its chief. Mr. Fish's letter of appointment, and the General's own pathetic and somewhat amusing remonstrances on the treatment he has received, reveal clearly the fact that he was chosen for the position because of the services rendered to the Administration on the stump during the last Presidential campaign. He refers to these services himself with the most delightful naïveté, being evidently fully convinced that they gave him an ample claim to his place. That he is a good stump speaker and has a powerful voice there is no doubt; but this no more qualifies him to represent us at an Industrial Exposition than skill in fly-fishing, while connection with American art, science, or industry he had absolutely none; knowledge of European art, industry, languages, or life he had none; judgment or tact or taste his letters suffice to show that he does not possess. It is therefore not at all surprising to find that he surrounded himself with a little party of disreputable German adventurers, and carried them back in triumph to homes that had once been too hot for them, and that they, having at last and perhaps for the first time got a chance at other men's pockets, should seek to provide for a rainy day. It is not necessary to charge General Van Buren with dishonesty to make his appointment appear a sad mistake. It was the result of gross carelessness on the part of the Administration, of which they have repented, and for which they are now seeking to make amends by appointing the men they should have appointed at first. But they have appointed them with as much flurry and haste as if they never before had heard of their existence, as if William T. Blodgett, and Theodore Roosevelt, and Le Grand Cannon, and Jackson S. Schultz were men who had suddenly been discovered, and had unexpectedly produced testimonials showing their fitness to represent America at exhibitions.

There is no denying that the affair has had an unfortunate effect on the American reputation, which the suspension of the old Commissioners does not remove, because it indicates a carelessness, as we have said, in making appointments which foreigners cannot understand, and, unless we take heed, the question will be asked during the next two years, whether it is likely that if we care so little who manages our department in a foreign Exposition, we shall care any more who manages our own; and whether there is not danger that foreign exhibitors coming here will find themselves handed over to the mercies of political sharpers, rewarding themselves for party services in the pending election, and ready to sell medals to home manufacturers in commemoration of imaginary victories over European competitors.

We are repeating here what already begins to be said. In doing so, we mean to cast no imputation on the present managers of the scheme of 1876, but we do mean to utter an earnest warning against even the appearance of jobbing, or the elevation of politicians with "big hearts" and capacious lungs into positions of trust or responsibility. If pains be not taken to guard against this, the whole thing will be a failure.

THE STOKES CASE AND THE NEW LAW OF MURDER.

AT every turn, the case of Stokes becomes more and more singular. Although there are not a dozen people in New York who believe him innocent; although the murder of Fisk was committed in the most open manner in broad daylight, in a place almost as public as the street; and although he has been convicted of murder in the first degree by a jury, his hanging seems almost as far off now as it

must have seemed to himself while he was still deliberating his revenge. The reason of his present respite is even stranger than the respite itself. The Court of Appeals has ordered a new trial, chiefly because the judge, in charging the jury, found it so difficult to explain to them what the crime of murder was that he actually laid it down as law that killing Fisk under the circumstances of the case (these circumstances being the very matter of dispute) was murder, unless Stokes was able to prove it something else. This extraordinary charge the Court of Appeals very justly says may have influenced the minds of the jury improperly, and they direct a new trial on this and other grounds. When we recollect that, ever since the introduction of the offence by Cain, murder in the first degree has been a common crime, it does seem strange that at this late day it should be one of the most difficult things in the world for a man trained by society for the express purpose, to describe it correctly to another in intelligible terms.

When we are not on the bench or on the jury, there is no difficulty about it. Even when we ourselves have killed some one, we generally know whether it was murder or not; probably, if the judge and jury who tried Stokes were now to meet at an informal tea-party, all thirteen of them would take very much the same view of the case that they did at the trial. Yet the judge at the trial charged the jury in a way which was plainly ridiculous. The subject of murder, as soon as it gets into court, is enveloped in a haze of mystery. What with "design," and "intent," and "malice aforethought," to say nothing of the "wilful" character of the act, the definition of the crime seems to be one of those things which no judge can find out.

There are indeed inherent difficulties in the subject, for besides the fact that "malice," as used in definitions of murder, has a meaning entirely different from that which it possesses in ordinary language, it is obvious that there can be no malice of any sort which is not "aforethought," and that any act committed with malice must also be "wilful" as well as intentional. Definitions, however, form but a small part of the difficulties of the subject. Few people not lawyers know the almost incredible confusion into which the law relating to homicide has been thrown by the multiplication of statutes in recent times graduating the penalty according to inferences touching the condition of the homicide's mind drawn from the circumstances attending the act. In New York, one statute after another has been passed, and one decision after another has been made, until a result has been reached which is far enough removed from that which the promoters of the statutory reforms in question intended: in ordinary cases, there is no intermediate offence between murder in the first degree, with the punishment of death, and manslaughter in the third degree, with a punishment of four years' imprisonment. We have not space to examine the statutes and decisions in detail; but the statement may be taken on the authority of Mr. Henry L. Clinton, a well-known criminal lawyer of this city, whose experience has proved to him so conclusively the imbecility of the law that he has just secured the passage at Albany of a new statute introducing important amendments. Mr. Clinton says:

"Juries generally, in cases where the intent to kill (if formed at all) is formed on the instant, have to determine between murder in the first degree, punishable with death, and manslaughter in the third degree, punishable with imprisonment in a State prison for not more than four years. In the latter case, the punishment is so light that it is a mockery of justice; in the former, it is so severe that humanity—as represented in the jury-box—is shocked at its infliction. The result is, juries very often disagree. Then, again, sometimes a jury will convict of murder in the first degree, while another jury, on substantially the same facts, will convict of manslaughter in the third degree. This deplorable uncertainty brings the administration of justice into contempt. In those cases where of all others the result should be most certain, it is most uncertain."

To remedy these evils, the last Legislature passed the law recommended by Mr. Clinton. The principal alteration effected by this amendment is the division of what has been murder in the first degree into two grades, the first of which is to be punishable with death, the second with imprisonment for life. The first of these classes is to embrace all murders "perpetrated from a *deliberate* and *premeditated* design to effect the death of the person killed, or of any human being"; all murders "perpetrated by an act imminently dangerous to others, and evincing a depraved mind, regardless of human life, although without any premeditated design to effect the death of any particular individual"; and all murders "perpetrated, without any design to effect death, by a person engaged in the commission of any felony." Murders in the second degree, under Mr. Clinton's law, are to be such as are "perpetrated intentionally but without deliberation and premeditation." This act is only to apply to offences committed after its passage. The case of Stokes will, therefore, not be affected by it; but in future cases of the same kind it will become of great importance.

The only part of this act which it is necessary here to consider is the distinction between "deliberate" and "unpremeditated" murders. The first doubt which suggests itself with regard to the working of the law is whether juries will be able to discriminate between instantaneous "malice aforethought" and "premeditated" "deliberate" malice. It might obviously be in some cases a very nice question whether the act would fall under one or the other head; in those cases, especially, which have become so common lately, in which the murderer, armed with a pistol—procured, it may be, for murder, or it may be for the fun of the thing—seeks an interview with his victim, and, in the heat of conversation, suddenly noticing a "peculiar movement of the arm," comes at once to the conclusion that the victim is "going to shoot," and, without the slightest deliberation or premeditation, kills him on the spot. This excuse has been made already in the Walworth case, and if it is to make the difference between hanging and imprisonment for life, we may be sure that in the next case of murder there will be plenty of evidence of thoughtlessness on the part of the murderer—that is, supposing it to be true, as Mr. Clinton says it is, that juries still cling to the old notion that men as a rule prefer imprisonment to hanging. If, as Mr. Bovee supposes, murderers always prefer to be hung, the only difference will be that juries, when they have become familiar with this idiosyncrasy, will have a strong predisposition to believe that all murders are done with deliberation.

Every one will admit, however, that the distinction between what is commonly called a "deliberate, cold-blooded murder" and a murder committed in a tumult of passion, is a distinction founded upon a real difference; these two kinds of murders affect the feelings of the public in different ways. The horror which is inspired by a succession of crimes like those committed by the Bender family in Kansas, and the general sense of insecurity caused by such crimes as the attempted assassination of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, in this city, are very different feelings from those caused by a murder arising out of a quarrel, or prompted by a sense of personal injury and insult, such as that which, during the rebellion, resulted in the shooting of Gen. Nelson by Gen. Davis. Nor is the distinction absolutely new. A statute similar to Mr. Clinton's was passed by the Ohio Legislature in 1835, under the provisions of which a conviction for murder in the first degree cannot be had (except in cases when the homicide is perpetrated by one engaged in the commission of a felony), unless it appears that the killing was done "purposely, and of deliberate and premeditated malice"; and it is also provided that, "if any person shall purposely and maliciously, but without deliberation and premeditation, kill another, every such person shall be guilty of murder in the second degree."

"Juries," Mr. Clinton says, "have no difficulty in understanding the language employed in this statute. Courts have encountered no difficulty in defining the difference between an intention with and one without deliberation and premeditation. In a case under this statute (State *v.* Turner), Judge Wright, in charging the jury, told them that in order to convict of murder in the first degree, they must be satisfied from the evidence: '1st, that the prisoner perpetrated the act *purposely;* 2d, that he did it with *intent to kill;* 3d, that he did it of deliberate and premeditated malice. To constitute deliberate and premeditated malice, the intention to do the injury must have been deliberated upon, and the *design* to do it *formed* before the act was done.' In the same case, Judge Wright charged the jury that, in order to convict of murder in the second degree, it must appear from the evidence: '1st, that the prisoner perpetrated the act *purposely* and maliciously; 2d, with intent to kill; and 3d, without *deliberation* and *premeditation.*' In another case (State *v.* Gardner), the same judge, in reference to

this statute, says: 'The difference between murder in the first and second degree, as expressed in our law, is found in this: to constitute murder in the first degree, the killing must be of deliberate and premeditated malice, while murder in the second degree is the killing *purposely* and *maliciously, but without deliberate and premeditated malice.*"

On the whole, the amended law, inasmuch as it will in a good many cases probably substitute convictions of murder in the second degree for ridiculous convictions of manslaughter in the third degree totally unwarranted by the facts, seems to be an improvement on the law as it was before. Mr. Clinton's act, besides its distinction between deliberate and unpremeditated murder, secures several other amendments, which we have no space to go into here. There is one point, however, which the law does not touch distinctly, and which is yet of daily increasing importance, and that is the practice, to which we just now referred, of carrying concealed weapons. This practice is, as every one knows a very common one, and is daily becoming more so in this city. So far as one can judge from the few cases that get into the courts, pistols are the favorite weapon; indeed, it has been openly stated in the newspapers, and never, to our knowledge at least, contradicted, that in a law passed by the Legislature at Albany in the pre-reform days against the carrying of concealed weapons, pistols were carefully omitted from the list of weapons it was forbidden to carry. The reason assigned for this exception was that it was absolutely necessary for the protection of life that people should be allowed to carry them. The carrying of pistols, however, has not yet had the effect of making life in general in New York secure, and it is capable of such proof as the nature of the subject admits that life in New York would not be any more secure if every man, woman, and child in the city went about their daily avocations all armed to the teeth with the latest and most improved sort of fire-arms. The practice of carrying pistols is peculiarly calculated to enhance the general insecurity, because the pistol is quite as convenient for purposes of attack as for purposes of defence. If a person is going to commit a murder, it is unlikely that in these days he will arm himself with a sword-cane. He is almost sure to purchase a pistol; if he is in the habit of carrying one, this is unnecessary.

The class of people who, in a large city, most commonly carry pistols, is composed of those very people whose habits, and pursuits, and lives predispose them to the commission of crime. Gamblers, youthful rakes who have fond recollections of Guy Livingstone's adventures and intend to better them, "policy" dealers, besides all sorts of thieves and other criminals—these are the people who habitually carry pistols and use them. Now, it cannot be said that a murder committed by one who goes about with a deadly weapon in his constant possession is the same kind of offence, even if it be committed on the spur of the moment, without previous deliberation, as an ordinary homicide. The reason why he carries a pistol is that he knows his habits are very likely to bring him into positions in which it will be convenient for him to take some one's life—not that of a particular individual, but to take life. He may therefore be said to be in a constant state of preparation for murder—a state very dangerous as well as alarming to society. It is obviously just as much for the interest of society to prevent large numbers of people going about armed as it is to prevent the storage of nitro-glycerine in the cellars of hotels. No attempt has yet been made to deal with this class of cases, and we see only one way in which it can be dealt with. When a homicide has been committed with a weapon such as a pistol—in other words, with a weapon habitually used as a deadly weapon—let this be prima-facie evidence of a criminal intent; let it be incumbent upon the person who has committed the act to explain to the jury how, why, and when he became possessed of the weapon, what his object was in carrying it, whether for self-defence or for what other reason. The jury would not then be bound to find him guilty, but might acquit him if he convinced them of the absence of criminal intent. At the same time, juries would be reminded, in a way they generally need, that people are not in the habit of carrying every day on their persons the means of death without at least a vaguely formed desire to take life. Such a law would operate as a wholesome lesson to the pistol-carrying class, and tend to make the carrying of concealed weapons a dangerous business.

REPORT OF THE CHIEF SIGNAL OFFICER, WAR DEPARTMENT, 1872.

THE appearance of the second annual report from the Signal Service was eagerly hailed by all interested in meteorology, and though disappointed at the brevity of its weather summaries, and at many imperfections, they are grateful that so much has been given them in spite of the distractions of official life and the thanklessness of pure information. The aggregates and averages of a year's reports from 64 stations distributed over this continent present some significant and instructive features, better worth considering by persons expecting to change locations for the sake of health, agriculture, or economy than any amount of isolated private information.

Before proceeding to quote from this report, it must be conceded that it contains so many obvious errors that every single statement must be accepted with some uncertainty, and all our conclusions and inferences must be qualified. Thus the latitude of Boston is reported to be 40° 20′, instead of 42° 20′; the longitude of Lynchburg is set down as 86° instead of 79°, and that of Louisville is incorrect by 1°. The average temperature for Oct in San Francisco is given at 65°, against 58° in Sept and 53° in Nov; this looks like an error for 55°. In a report for Mt. Washington on May 10, the barometer is said to have risen "40°" in three hours—a slip for 4-10 of an inch; and on May 20 it is said to have fluctuated between 34° and 37°; here *thermometer* was meant. We may give Gen. Myer credit for frankness in leaving these gross mistakes unamended, because we are thereby enabled to judge of the probability of numbers of lesser errors which cannot be seen with the naked eye. Furthermore, the statements concerning the "prevailing wind" are sadly careless, both in principle and application. The principle on which prevalence is estimated is not stated, but it is evident that pluralities alone are regarded.

An example will show how this method misrepresents. Suppose one wished to obtain testimony from this report as to how far North the trade-wind extended. He looks up two places near each other in latitude 30° to find the prevailing wind. In Lake City, Fla., this is given as SW for the year, and in Jacksonville as NE; yet, compared month by month, the winds are nearly the same in the two places; but in Lake City the trade-wind is scattered between several points of the compass, and thus loses its plurality. Again, in Shreveport, La., the months are nearly evenly divided between E, SE, and S; but S, having a plurality of 1, is termed the prevailing wind, instead of SE. Even the counting is not always correctly done, for in Leavenworth with 4 months SW to 5 NW the prevalence is assigned to the former.

But why waste half the value of an anemometer? For all climatic calculations, the important question is not how many *hours* does the wind blow E or W, but how *much* does it blow, *i.e.*, How many more miles of atmosphere pass one way than the other? Do the oceans affect the continent, or the continent the oceans? Cape May, as here reported, gives an uncertain reply. The anemometer, if consulted, would reply that the Pacific Ocean controls the climate of the land east of it, and that the continent controls the climate of the Western Atlantic; for, multiplying duration by velocity, the prevailing wind is everywhere (north of lat. 30°) from the west. The papers furnish the daily speed of the wind in miles per hour; but cannot the observers add for us the monthly and yearly anemometrical aggregates from each point of the compass? This would be worth knowing; but a mere plurality of months, when the monthly prevalences themselves are fortuitously reckoned, is entertaining reading indeed, but for scientific statistical uses it is a mockery. In the absence of help from the anemometer, the best that can be done with the report is to substitute yearly *averages* for prevalence. To illustrate averaging by some rather complicated instances: in Cleveland the monthly prevalences sum up NW 4, SE 4, NE 1, and SW 3; the first ten of these cancel each other, leaving in the field the 2 SW. Again, in Mobile, lat. 30° 42′, we find NE 2, SW 2, S 3, N 4, and NW 1. The first ten cancel, leaving 1 N and 1 NW, which average NNW. Making similar amendments throughout as a choice of evils, it appears from the report that of the 4 stations south of lat. 30° the 2 in Florida average NE and ENE winds, and the 2 in Texas ESE winds; the noticeable point being that all have north winds in winter.

The three stations in lat. 30° have been quoted. There are none in lat. 31°. In lat. 32° Shreveport and Vicksburg average SE, indicating that the trade current has been here crowded northward by the Cordilleras. Out of 52 other stations north of lat. 31°, only Omaha has an average from

the eastward half of the compass, and this exception, SSE, is undoubtedly the result of irrational counting. The same may be suspected of six places which report an average due south or north, though with several of these the circumstance may be accounted for by the station's being located in a valley running northwards, such as Burlington and Denver. It is to be hoped that the usefulness of the maps of the winds emitted by the Department may not be marred by the irregularities resulting from such cramped localities. Of the remaining 45 stations, 31 average nearly W, 3 decidedly N of W, and 11 decidedly S of W. There is not much that is worth noting about the locality of these. All the stations in the Mississippi Valley and on the lower lakes have their averages somewhat S of W; whereas many places among mountains and on the Atlantic coast record a little N of W. The three Pacific stations average as follows: San Diego W, San Francisco WSW, Portland SW. More important than these yearly averages are the differences between summer and winter, especially on the sea-board; on the Atlantic the winds are NW in autumn and winter, and SW in summer, thus rendering the cold colder and the warm warmer (Cape May is a type of this); on the Pacific the reverse tendency exists, though not so conspicuously, except at Portland, where the wind was reported NW during the 5 warmest months, and S or SE during the 6 coldest (1 month not reported).

A study of the monthly barometric reports discloses a datum more noteworthy from its sureness and universality than from its utility; at all the stations less than half a mile above the sea-level, the barometer averaged higher in winter than in summer (a result corresponding with the doctrine explained in the article on the November Wave [*Nation*, Dec. 26, 1872], that in summer the atmosphere in contact with the continents is constantly ascending, while in winter it is as constantly descending and flowing out over the oceans because then heavier than the air in contact with the water); whereas, at all stations more than half a mile high the barometer averages highest in summer. This suggests a wider law: these higher stations, being above the influence of the surface differences of temperature, are also more susceptible to the changes of pressure prevailing over the entire earth across the mountain barriers; and we infer that the aggregate terrestrial pressure is greatest in our summer, and this for the obvious reason that the sun is then vertical over continents half his circuit, while during the Southern summer he is vertical over oceans all day long, which oceans absorb his heat without increasing the tension of the air; for it must be borne in mind that the name barometer is unfortunate, because the instrument measures two interfused factors—weight, and elasticity or tension. Thus, the weight of the entire atmosphere is always substantially the same, while its elasticity is proportionate to its total temperature, and is greatest while the sun passes over the great deserts which are in the Northern-Eastern continents.

The statistics of rain report the most as having fallen in the Gulf States, which average 60 inches for the year—Mobile heading the list; next most, the stations on the Atlantic coast; thirteen stations on the Lakes average 31 inches; the stations nearest the Rocky Mountains average lowest. The Pacific stations report: San Diego 6 inches (all in winter), Francisco 31, and Portland 41. East of the mountains the most rain falls in the warm months, and the amount diminishes as the latitude increases. West of the mountains the amount increases with the latitude, and is almost exclusively in winter.

Perhaps the most striking exhibit in the report is that of the thermometer. In San Francisco the average temperature for August is less than half a degree warmer than February (56°), showing the uniformity of ocean temperature, as the prevailing wind during both months is SW. In Jan, the only month in the year when the wind there is not westerly, the average was 52°, the warmest month being 60°. The extreme difference between months, here only 8°, increases steadily as we look eastward from the Pacific coast, and attains its maximum just west of the Lakes; Duluth reporting Aug 68° against Dec 8°. Continuing eastward, we find this divergence diminished by the tempering influence of the lake water; thus, at Grand Haven the coldest month, Feb, records 22°, against 69° in Aug. These facts confirm the indication of the anemometer that the atmosphere moves from west to east in our latitude. The coldest average for the year (excluding Mount Washington, 25°) is reported from Duluth, 39°. The warmest yearly average is given at Key West, 78°. Next come Punta Rassa 74°, Jacksonville and Galveston 70°, New Orleans 69°, Lake City 68°, Mobile, Savannah, and Vicksburg 66°, Shreveport and Charleston 65°, Augusta and Wilmington (?) 63°, Memphis 62°, San Diego 60°, Nashville 59°, Norfolk 58°, Cairo and Knoxville 57°, San Francisco, Lynchburg, Louisville, and Cincinnati 56°, St. Louis and Washington 55°, New York 51°, Boston 49°. The warmest average for a single month is Galveston, 85°, in July; the coldest, Duluth, 8° in Dec. On the summit of Mount Washington, the average for Dec was only 5° less than at Duluth.

One of the appendices, 50 pages long, is occupied with statistics from Mt. Washington for the month of May exclusively (would that it were 600 pages long, covering 12 months!) These are curious, and will in several ways be very valuable, chiefly, perhaps, as furnishing crucial problems by which to test hypotheses concerning air-movements. The repeated reversals of direction of winds whose half-hurricane velocity is maintained throughout such apparent fickleness are simply amazing; we must assume that strata of wind blowing in different ways are superposed, and that these strata rise and fall past the summit; if cloud movements gave indications of this, the report should say so. Comparative reports are given for every hour of daylight, between the base and summit; and six times a day the phenomena from Portland are given for comparison of the weather at the sea-level. These tables are the most valuable part of the book scientifically, and would be more so if reports could be obtained from stations at intermediate altitudes, as the summits of Mounts Moosilauke and Starr King. There is one serious omission—the non-statement of two facts essential to interpreting the winds at the base of Mount Washington, viz., the "bearing" of the mountain from the vane, and the direction in which the valley slopes at the spot. Ten pages of diary, kept both at base and summit, are printed entire. They are interesting only from the matchless wildness of the scene attempted to be described with a hopeless lack of method and precision. A few preliminary definitions for the writer's own admonition would have rendered this journal as graphic as one of Turner's paintings of similar storms.

The details of the mountain observations cannot be advantageously generalized here. They must be studied in connection with the tri-daily maps of the baric areas, and interpreted by the movements of those areas. Of the residue of the Report there is not much worth saying. Accounts of expenses and specifications of instruments should only be told to the auditor; the "general public" is not in a situation to judge. In devoting thirty-two pages to a "Manual of Military Telegraphy," General Myer seems to forget that no citizen can co-operate with him without first enlisting. Twelve more pages are spent in exposing the "Cipher used for the Telegraphic Transmission of the Weather Reports." Instead of describing so much red tape (which doubtless saves time and money, and lessens the necessity of good-sense and thoughtfulness), amateur meteorologists (and who is not an amateur meteorologist?) would have preferred to be told what principles of weather-forecasting had proved most successful. We might have ascribed this omission to exalted discretion, had not "Paper N" been inserted, "compiled from various authorities," without comment, though containing the obsolete twaddle about "the great upper current or stratum of warm and moist equatorial atmosphere"—higher than the highest mountains, of course, for there is perpetual *snow* on them and vegetation not strictly equatorial. The reason why no principles of weather-forecasting are discussed in the Report probably is that none are used at the office, unless empiricism is a principle; it is certainly preferable to any principles not exquisitely apprehended, and it has given the Signal Service a high reputation for prophetic accuracy in popular estimation, and an average verification of 77 per cent. according to the Report. The method of prediction appears to be to assume that a storm will "follow its nose," *i.e.*, continue moving in its reported direction (and it usually does), and that it will bend where previous storms have bent. This method is sensible and modest—unless it professes to be scientific, and boasts of a success for which it has to thank the lately deceased discoverer of telegraphy. The mistakes which under an empirical method will always occur whenever circumstances are peculiar, might mostly have been avoided by an application of the laws regulating the movement of areas of low pressure. Two occasions of error have occurred frequently enough to be specified: first, the Office does not know that areas of low pressure are repelled by the isothermal of 32°; and, secondly, it does not realize how strongly the cold surface of the Atlantic attracts such areas in spring and summer; during the past month (May) it has several times predicted that a storm in New York State would travel eastward, bringing over southern New England SW winds and occasional rains. But instead of this, the winds have been easterly and the skies clear, because the storms bent southeasterly over New Jersey, leaving New England outside the area to the northward.

But scientific enthusiasm would be very uncomfortable at Washington, especially in the War Department, and we shall be better contented if we do not expect perfection from our new apparatus. A private enterprise could work at much better advantage. If a president of a large telegraph company should choose to organize a corps of observers and calculators, he could secure more skilful co-operation, and attain a higher degree of success. However, in spite of the blemishes which always accompany political shirking and American thinking, and which are therefore considered no disqualification in an American office-holder, the Report as a whole may be commended as one of the choicest products of modern civilization.

Correspondence.

A REPUBLIC'S INGRATITUDE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your notice of the late Chief-Justice, while contrasting his administration of the Treasury, during the late war, with the financial management of the War of 1812, you say:

"Indeed his action appears titanic, when we contrast it with the feebleness which in 1814 brought the Treasury to absolute bankruptcy, and threw the support of the Western Army upon the charity of a contractor, whose advances by the way have never been repaid to this day, and who paid for his patriotic credulity by being reduced from great wealth to insolvency, and dying in the debtors' prison in Washington, vainly memorializing Congress for justice."

The contrast thus suggested is just, and reflects great and merited honor upon Mr. Chase; but I think there are two historical errors in the above quotation.

From your article, I presume you refer to Colonel John H. Piatt, of Ohio, who on the 26th January, 1814, contracted with the Secretary of War to supply and issue all provisions that should be required for the use of the United States at all points where troops might be stationed within the States of Ohio, Kentucky, and Michigan Territory, from the 1st of June, 1814, to the 31st of May, 1815. Not long after this contract was made, a sudden revolution occurred in the financial affairs of the country which ruinously affected the contract with Colonel Piatt. The suspension of specie payments and other causes increased the price of provisions to more than double the rate of the contract. But Colonel Piatt, at great personal sacrifice, concluded to furnish supplies in accordance with his contract. In the month of December, 1814, two hundred thousand dollars of his drafts were lying dishonored and protested at Washington from the mere inability of the Government to pay. Both in law and in equity he was entitled to a release from his contract by this failure of the Government. But he continued to supply the army according to the letter and spirit of his agreement, though the treatment he received at the hands of the United States is a sad commentary on the reckless neglect with which the Government frequently treats its honest claimants. Still, you are in error in saying that his advances "have never been repaid to this day." An elaborate report was made on the subject by a Committee of the House of Representatives, May 3, 1823, in which the facts were fully set forth, and in the following year a law was passed authorizing the payment of $63,620 48, the balance due to Mr. Piatt's estate, as found by the Committee. Colonel Piatt died here in Washington, in 1820, and, as you say, died insolvent, but I think you are in error in saying that he "died in a debtors' prison."

Very truly yours, J. A. Garfield.

Washington, D. C., June 3, 1873.

[General Garfield correctly states the facts, as we understand them, down to the payment of the $63,620 48, "the balance due to Mr. Piatt's estate." But it is an error to suppose that the payment of that balance was for rations furnished to the *army*. Colonel Piatt had on several emergencies furnished rations for *citizens* and *Indians*, and the payment authorized by Congress in 1824 (the Act to which General Garfield alludes) was for the balance due for those rations exclusively. As to the army rations furnished by Colonel Piatt, Congress has always stood upon the letter of the written contract, although that contract was forfeited on the part of the Government and abandoned by both parties. We make this assertion on the faith of an affidavit we have seen in print by the late Justice McLean of the Supreme Court of the United States, in which he narrates how he, then a member of Congress, accompanied Colonel Piatt to the Secretary of War for the purpose of notifying him that no more rations would be furnished; and how Mr. Monroe disclosed to them the bankrupt condition of the Government, and implored Colonel Piatt not to abandon them, but to furnish the rations absolutely necessary to keep the Northwestern army in the field at any cost, and trust to the honor of his Government to make him whole. Judge McLean (and certainly no man could produce a more scrupulous witness) expressed in this affidavit his own bitter regrets that he had allowed Colonel Piatt to proceed without exacting from Mr. Monroe a formal obligation on the part of the Government. We should add here, that while Colonel Piatt was in extreme penury, the Government brought an action against him on some old account of his as commissary for an alleged balance of about $40,000 and had him arrested in a civil suit, and that Congress did then have the grace to interpose and pass an act (in 1820) allowing a portion of his claim for army rations to be set off against this, and the suit to be discontinued. But the balance then remaining due to Piatt, of about $130,000, as adjusted and settled by the Comptroller of the Treasury, has never been paid. As to his dying in the debtors' prison in Washington, we have no personal knowledge, but we have seen a memorial under oath from his family, which states that he died in Washington while under arrest for debt, and in the custody of the United States marshal.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PLUNDER OF PHELPS, DODGE & CO.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: There has been a very extensive discussion of the Phelps, Dodge & Co. case in your columns upon *one* side of the question, and if possible I would like to agree with your view of their *intentions*. The following point, however, has not been explained satisfactorily. The United States statute concerning fines, penalties, and forfeitures provides that any one who shall have incurred a forfeiture may prefer a petition to the District Judge, setting forth the circumstances of his case, and pray that the same may be mitigated or remitted. Thereupon the "said Judge shall enquire in a *summary* manner into the circumstances of the case"; the facts found are annexed to the petition, and transmitted to the Secretary of the Treasury. "*who shall thereupon have power to mitigate or remit such fine . . . . if in his opinion the same shall have been incurred without wilful negligence, or any intention of fraud in the person or persons incurring the same.*" Although this matter is discretionary with the Secretary of the Treasury, yet the practice is uniform to remit all forfeitures where there is no intent to defraud. I do not believe an exception to this rule can be pointed to. The Secretary is guided as to his facts by what the District Judge has found. Now, every one knows that Judge Blatchford in all cases gives the importer every advantage which the law allows, as he rightly should do. Now, can any sane man, in the face of this, say that Messrs. Phelps, Dodge & Co. felt confident in the innocence of their intentions? Are merchants in the habit of paying $271,000 where they can, if innocent, avoid paying more than $1,500, by submitting to an investigation? They could suffer no inconvenience in their business by doing so, for the papers relating to the matter had been *already seized*, and the proceeding provided for by the Act quoted is a speedy one. Nor can any ignorance on their part be alleged (and this is the excuse put forward for making the settlement), because their attorneys were Messrs. Wakeman and Latting and Judge Fullerton, all of whom are thoroughly conversant with the provisions of the revenue laws. In discussing this matter, let us put aside the character and standing of Messrs. Bliss and Jayne and of the informing clerk. It is low enough, doubtless, but it is indifferent to the question. Nor is the *amount* of the alleged fraud of such importance as would seem. The object in cases similar to these is not so much to defraud the Government as to *undersell the market*, and a very slight undervaluation will accomplish that object in some branches of business. I hope that it may be possible to explain this away, but it must be confessed it has an ugly look. (Statute referred to was passed March 3, 1797, § i. See 1 'Brightly's Digest,' 280.)

Yours, etc. L.

P.S.—I would call your attention to a very dirty trick alleged to have been performed by the Custom-house Ring in this connection. Having a grudge against Judge Davis, they succeeded in putting off the acceptance of Phelps, Dodge & Co.'s offer of settlement until January 2, two days after his term of office ceased. Their friend and co-patriot, Bliss, thus obtained Judge Davis's share of the spoil. So it is currently reported.

New York, May 29, 1873.

[There are various solid objections to the course suggested by our correspondent. The proceeding before the Judge is not a trial in the proper sense of the term, controlled by law; it is a sort of arbitrary enquiry, in which the importer has no rights, and in which, in case the decision goes against him, he has no further remedy. Moreover, the ultimate decision rests, after all, with the Secretary of the Treasury, who may abide by the Judge's finding or not as he pleases; in other words, the only appeal from the Judge's verdict lies to the attacking party himself, and it is a matter of familiar experience that in all these cases the Secretary is sure to stand by his subordinates, and it is the custom of the Judges to decide for

the Government wherever they learn that the Custom-house is desirous that they should do so. In fact, the question of fraud about intent is in practice never submitted to the Judge, except when the Custom-house and the importer have already come to an amicable agreement. It might, perhaps, be safe for one of the ordinary "brood of importers," as Jayne calls them—that is, an obscure or poor man—to go into a process of this kind, and trust to the Secretary's mercy. But Jayne's first report showed clearly that the Custom-house people had determined that the Dodges should not escape—the game was too large. Moreover, Butler and Conkling and other Republican magnates had been retained as "counsel" in the case, and it was clear that Jayne and his confederates meant business. Butler was in the pay of one of the possible recipients of the Dodge plunder, and he was at the same time "working" for Boutwell for the Senatorship in Massachusetts, so that the worthy Secretary was, of course, very doubtful about the wicked importers, and very severe, and would have been very sorry to let them off easy. The agreement to pay so large a sum was, we admit, weak and foolish, as it now appears; but it must be remembered that it was made by men whose nerves were shaken by the sight of the combination against them; who saw their good name perishing day by day; who were in total ignorance of the nature and extent of the charge against them—that is, of the character, or amount, or circumstances of the alleged "frauds"—because the worthy Jayne had filled a wagon with their books and papers half an hour after he made his accusation, and carted them off to a retreat of his own, where he and a few select friends were examining them at their leisure. An indefinite prolongation of this situation would of course have been ruin for any house. It meant the suspension of the business, and Jayne might have prolonged it indefinitely. The Dodges, therefore, did what most nervous men, with plenty of money, would have done under the circumstances, and what men do, in short, when they are carried off by brigands in Greece and Italy. They said, Let us know the amount you will take to give us back our books, and let us out of your hands, and we will pay it.

The notion that a fraud of $1,600 on a business of $30,000,000 would have enabled Phelps, Dodge & Co. "to undersell the market" is simply ridiculous. There is no use in discussing it. "The dirty trick" to which our correspondent alludes we believe was not played. Judge Davis refused to participate in the division of the Messrs. Dodge's property from the beginning. An honorable man can hardly go shares with a detective like Jayne in a job of that sort. We believe and hope that the affair will be investigated in Congress next winter. The act under which these things are done was really drawn up by these New York detectives, who despoil the merchants, and passed by Congress with little consideration. We believe, however, that one of the Senators (of that day) who was most prominent in procuring its passage is now very much ashamed of his work, and means to devote himself heartily next winter to the abatement of the nuisance.

The small amount of attention the subject receives from the public is one of the bad signs of the times. When a French writer or politician is arrested (we are now describing something which happens in Paris nearly every week) for some offence against the Government, his papers are seized and carried off at the same time, and he is locked up without being informed of the charge against him. Often, after weeks of confinement, and prolonged and minute examinations, every day, about his doings and sayings and associations, by a *juge d'instruction*, he is discharged without ever learning of what he was accused, and his papers and letters are restored to him without the slightest hint of what it was supposed they would reveal. No American or Englishman in Paris hears of such cases without a throb of indignation, without thinking of his habeas corpus and his bill of rights and his amendments to the Constitution, with his pocket-handkerchief to his eyes. Nevertheless, the papers and letters seized in this way in France are submitted for examination only to a magistrate sworn to do justice, and paid by a fixed salary, and having no interest in the case but a professional one. Now, the successful resistance to "general warrants" in Wilkes's case is one of the famous incidents in the history of the common law, and the doctrine laid down by the English courts in that case was solemnly embodied twenty years later in the Fourth Amendment to the United States Constitution, which declares that "the people shall be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause supported by oath or affirmation, and *particularly describing the place to be searched and the persons or things to be seized.*" Jayne, however, executes warrants by the dozen every winter, in which he makes no pretence of describing the things he is to seize. The law allows him to "descend" upon all a man's books and papers without specifying the thing he seeks, but for the mere purpose of hunting up materials for a charge, exactly as the French police do. But this is not all, nor the worst. In France, the papers are examined by a judge—that is, by an educated and generally honorable and, as far as money is concerned, wholly disinterested functionary. In America, they are examined privately by a common detective, assisted by a few other persons of more learning, but all bribed to find out proofs of guilt by a prospective share in the criminal's forfeited property, and who are under no obligation to tell the owner of what it is that they suspect him. We say deliberately that there is nothing like this to be found in the jurisprudence of any civilized country in our day, and that in view of it the apathy of the people is something really alarming.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE American Philological Association will gather together at Easton, Pennsylvania, the seat of Lafayette College, on Tuesday, the 22d of July, at three o'clock in the afternoon. Whoever wishes further information should address himself to one of the following-named gentlemen: Prof. G. F. Comfort, Syracuse, New York, who is the Secretary of the Association; Prof. R. B. Youngman, who is the Secretary of the Local Committee at Easton. The offices held by the two gentlemen indicate the character of the enquiries proper to be put to each.——Not less than four hundred persons have applied for admission to Harvard College at the approaching examinations. This is unexampled in the history of collegiate examinations in this country.——Part 13 of Stieler's 'Hand-Atlas' has been received by Mr. L. W. Schmidt. Greece, the Malayan Archipelago, and a fourth section of the United States (Southern California, Arizona, and New Mexico) make up the usual three maps. Petermann's *Mittheilungen* of May 8 has a timely map of the Russian campaign against Khiva.——We copied a too obvious typographical error of the *Athenæum's* in giving the proportion of readers in the British Museum per 100 instead of per 1,000 in our Notes last week.——The Boston Public Library has just finished, in a supplementary list, its catalogue of the Tosti collection of engravings presented to it by Mr. Thomas G. Appleton. A few copies have been printed on tinted paper.——Scribner, Armstrong & Co. publish in a separate volume the Index to Dr. Charles Hodge's 'Systematic Theology.' It is minute enough to be called a summary of the work in question.

—Mr. Edward Magill, President of Swarthmore College (a Quaker institution near Philadelphia, at which both sexes are educated), being surprised by President Eliot's recent statements concerning coeducation at Oberlin, addressed a letter on the subject to the head of the latter college. President Fairchild's reply has been published, and the substance of it is that he finds President Eliot to be laboring under some misapprehension with regard to Oberlin. He says the special "ladies' course," which by far the greater number pursue, was adopted at the founding of the school, whereas the admission of women to the full college (classical) course was a subsequent matter. Since 1837, when four first entered it, it has been pursued by numbers varying (by no discoverable law) from 10 to 36. "No special influence is used with the young ladies. They select their own course, with such advice as they choose to seek." The story of the matron who said she would not have her own daughter follow the classical course, is denied, on her direct authority, by President Fairchild. It appears to be a fact, however, that the girl did choose the other course. "Several of the professors have given their daughters the classical course, and others are arranging to do the same." But, says President Fairchild, "it should be understood that the ladies' course involves about five years of study, after a common-school education—*i.e.*, four years after one year of preparation." As for

reaction, he sees no sign of it among pupils or teachers at Oberlin or in any of the schools of the West which have adopted the system. At Ann Arbor "one of the professors told me that almost all the professors were opposed to the arrangement at the outset—now, not one."

—Harvard College is not the only place where the portentous woman question thunders at the gates. Indeed, the name of no inhabited place on this planet occurs to us at the moment as being entirely free from some phase of this delightful discussion. The latest news we hear of it comes from Simlah in the northwestern part of British India. In that mountainous region, the objection of some of the sex to being burnt alive, and the determination on the other hand of some of the more conservative sisters that no man should take from them the right to be burnt, long ago plunged Hindu society into convulsions. The result was the abolition of the practice in India, though, with great inconsistency, the Home Government freely permits it in the United Kingdom, as may be seen by the French journals. These periodicals, every month or so, narrate how the young Hindu wife of a distinguished gentleman, just deceased, who formerly was in the employ of the Indian Government, insisted when he died on burning herself at his country-seat in Yorkshire, and that, despite the persuasions of the relatives of the deceased, she caused a pile to be erected, and ascending it with astonishing tranquillity completed the sacrifice. At the present writing, the people of Simlah are deeply excited about what is called the Hindu Widow Unchastity Case. Or, rather, one-half the community is deeply excited, its feeling being one of joy, while the other half is stupefied with grief and affright. This is because the High Court has decided that a Hindu widow who takes a lover does not thereby forfeit her late husband's property. The majority of the court decided that as neither in the Sanskrit Scriptures nor the canon law could they find any absolute and express text commanding the disherison of a widow because of her living an unchaste life, the woman involved in the suit should keep the property in her possession. This naturally occasions the orthodox Hindus to ask of each other the old and oft-repeated questions, "What next? Where will this end?" and to answer them in the customary manner. As the forefathers of these Hindus, when they ordained that the widow should retain the property of the husband, by no means intended that she should enjoy herself with the proceeds of it, but, on the contrary, that she should expend it all in oblations for her husband's spiritual good, it will be seen that the party of order has ground for grave uneasiness. The decision of the court leaves to the lady her money and her lover, and meantime the situation of the unfortunate deceased, destitute of oblations and other ceremonies necessary to his comfort, may better be imagined than described. But, on the other hand, all the members of the party of advanced thought are greatly pleased. They point out that if the lady had remarried, as she ought to have done, and wished to do, she and the second husband, having thus shocked the susceptibilities of the orthodox, might very likely have been proclaimed outcasts with beat of tomtom, and forbidden approach to the sacred tanks; or if not, might have been privately cut off from access to the washerwoman and the barber, and deprived of all society and happiness in life except conjugal—and what degree of bliss the happiest married life could afford without the washerwoman and shaving is fully understood only by a pious Hindu gentleman.

—The relation between Hindu funeral rites (especially widow-burning) and the retrograde course of Hindu legislation in regard to the property rights of married women in India, has been treated of in a recent lecture by Sir Henry Maine, on the early history of these rights among all peoples. For a very interesting summary of this important discussion, we would refer the curious to an article in the *Athenæum* for May 31. "It is a remarkable legal phenomenon that the separate property of a wife seems to have been fully recognized in Hindu law at a period relatively much earlier than among the Romans; but a more anomalous and remarkable phenomenon still is that the institution, instead of having been fostered and developed, as in the West, has been mutilated and dwarfed by the later jurisprudence of the East." This partial emancipation and subsequent relapse (due to priestly influence) Sir H. Maine calls a surprising passage in legal history. To quote his conclusion, in the words of the *Athenæum*:

"Civilized society, in steadily enlarging the personal and proprietary independence of women, and even in granting to them political privilege, is only following out a law of development which it has been obeying for many centuries. Society, which once consisted only of families, recognizing individuality neither in its male nor in its female members, will not have arrived at the condition in which the recognition of individuality is complete, until it has fully and finally assimilated the legal position of women to that of men, and banished from the rights and capacities a classification resting on so unphilosophical a basis as sex; all propositions whatever, as Sir H. Maine observes, respecting classes so large as sexes being philosophically valueless and untenable."

—The *Athenæum* states that the late Mr. Grote was the author of a treatise tending "to invalidate the claims of natural religion to the support of reasonable men," and entitled 'Analysis of the Influence of Natural Religion on the Temporal Happiness of Mankind.' It was published in 1822, under the pseudonym of "Philip Beauchamp." The fact is of interest, taken in connection with the announcement of Mr. Mill's posthumous work on Theism. The *Athenæum* tells also of a correspondence carried on by Mill with Auguste Comte—"the most curious, perhaps, in which the former was ever engaged." Comte held that "the intelligence of women amounted at best to only a small instantaneous sagacity," to which, of course, Mr. Mill could not assent. The discussion lasted for some months, and was conducted in French, "a language which Mill talked and wrote fluently and admirably."

—We learn from the *Pall Mall Gazette* that the statement made forty years ago by Dumont, the disciple of Bentham, that he had aided the great Mirabeau in the production of his speeches, was probably a true statement, although it was scouted at the time. For M. Philippe Plan, a keeper in the Geneva Library, has discovered a series of unpublished papers written by Mirabeau himself which puts the matter nearly beyond doubt. These papers were in the collection of Reybaz, now in the possession of the Geneva Library. Mirabeau's letters to Reybaz make it certain that he received from Reybaz, in a state of complete preparation, many of the orations which, having learned them by heart, he afterwards delivered with all the fire and passion of improvisation. Now, it is well known that, like Reybaz, Dumont was in constant correspondence with Mirabeau and assisted him in journalism, and he was a man of so high character that in reality there has for some time been no uncomfortable degree of doubt as to the correctness of his assertion, and the "find" is welcome rather than necessary.

—The "Claimant" seems to be having rather a hard struggle of it in what he calls his contest "with the government and the purse of the nation." The prosecution have brought forward a number of witnesses by whose testimony it would appear proved that the claimant is in reality Arthur Orton, alias Tom Castro, formerly a humble resident of Wapping, and sometime a butcher in Australia. Besides the moral damage done by this testimony, the claimant's exchequer has suffered heavily during the long litigation, and in fact—were it not for an ingenious device to which he has just resorted—he would by this time have no money at all. Having first applied to the Government to supply him with funds, and his appeal having been naturally refused, he enquired of the judges who are trying him "whether it would be considered contempt of Court if he appeared at some of the theatres and simply read the answer of the Home Office to his memorial," for the purpose of raising money from the curious or sympathetic spectators. The Lord Chief-Justice declined to state in advance what the Court would consider contempt, and the claimant has since appeared at some of the East End theatres with his friend, Mr. Whalley, and has read the cold, heartless letter of the Government to crowded houses amid enthusiastic applause, while crowds have assembled in the streets to cheer him as he drives to and from the theatres. The people evidently regard his attempt to get possession of the Tichborne estates as a praiseworthy effort to break down caste. From the East-End point of view—and it is a point of view of which the East End is not the exclusive owner—the question who is legally entitled to the estates is a matter of little or no consequence. What is of consequence is that Tom Castro, who is one of the people—if not an East-Ender, at least, a butcher—really wants it, and so we may say, speaking *more hibernico*, that he ought to have it because he is not entitled to it. Perhaps those of the East-Enders who are of a more reflective and analytic turn of mind may also consider that as the real Sir Roger is at the bottom of the sea, and some one obviously ought to have the property, it is fairer that Tom should have it than that the antiquated system of rules invented by aristocrats and known as the Law should determine the succession. One of the Wapping witnesses seems to be of this sort. He said that since the commencement of the first trial he had been praying to God daily to give him grace to tell the truth. The truth was that he knew the defendant all along to be Arthur Orton, and, grace having finally been vouchsafed him, he has come out with it.

—It is not difficult, even for an observer three thousand miles off, to apply the term "revolution" to the late change from Thiers to MacMahon. To an observer on the spot, especially to one who had witnessed the siege and the Commune, it was revolution undisguised by its peaceful concomitants. The admirable Paris correspondent of the *Perseveranza*, having had this double experience, fell at once into his siege habit of paragraphic diary, with hourly entries, not knowing how soon he might be thrown back upon carrier-pigeons and balloons for the transmission of his letters. Writing May 25, his first reflection is that yesterday, the day of the change of Government,

was the second anniversary of the taking of Paris by Thiers; that on the 18th of May, 1871, in the suburb of Montmartre, he, the correspondent, had met bands of armed Communists shouting *A bas, Thiers!*—while yesterday afternoon, May 24, 1873, after the news from Versailles, the sergents-de-ville on the boulevards were busy dispersing a radical mob who cried *Vive Thiers!* and *A bas la Droite!* "I went to sleep," he says, "thinking that in this country he who does not become a sceptic in politics, and perhaps in other matters, is a lucky fellow." The morning brought another reflection, which was that hardly three years had elapsed since the surrender at Sedan, and here we have as the issue of a most momentous crisis a general of the Empire at the head of the Government, and a minister of the Empire in the ministry. He concludes that an Imperial restoration seems most probable of all: first, because the Empire by tradition attempted *social* progress; second, because its power was longest exercised, most recent, and most deeply rooted; finally, because its principal leaders are bolder and less scrupulous than those of the other parties.

—Numerous are the stories which begin to be told concerning Manzoni. Those which recall his life-long devotion to the principle of Italian unity are naturally prominent. He was the first *unitario*, and he never would admit of any compromise. Twenty years ago, when the condition of Europe and of the various populations of the Peninsula seemed to point rather to an Italian confederacy, Manzoni opposed it, saying that federation was an ugly utopia (*utopia brutta*), unity a beautiful one. At Milan, as one of the shining lights of Catholicism, he was often visited by French ultramontanes, who found conversation with him all very smooth till they began to "mix politics with religion," as we should say; that is, to argue for the inviolability of the temporal power. A certain French Benedictine priest who was thus denying Italy's right to Rome, was asked by Manzoni if he would have admitted the Pope's right to the temporal dominion of Avignon—of Paris. There was some petulance in the reply: "Oh! that's a different thing! France is France, and Italy cannot—" "But we too, my father," interrupted Manzoni,—"we too were born somewhere!" Long ago, when a young man, he undertook to write a history of the French Revolution, with which no person living had, perhaps, so minute acquaintance in all its details. As he grew older, however, he became more and more critical of his style, and wrote and rewrote almost endlessly, so that of the projected work, or, to speak more accurately, of a comparison of the French Revolution with that of Italy, there remains in a finished condition only the introduction and the first chapter. A hundred pages additional failed to receive the author's final touches; but we presume the whole will soon be published together.

FISHER'S REFORMATION.*

IF we would do justice to this work, we must allow Dr. Fisher himself to explain to us its purpose and methods. As a mere history of the Reformation, it would be too condensed for general readers, but it is intended rather to present to "*intelligent and educated* readers the means of acquainting themselves with the origin and nature, the principal facts and characters, of the Reformation"; while the historical student is guided to further researches by numerous notes and references. The book is also enriched by a good index, a copious chronological table, and a very useful "list of works on the Reformation," both as a whole and as a part of the history of separate European nations. The value of such a catalogue can only be duly appreciated by those who have themselves traversed this wide and intricate region of modern history.

But Dr. Fisher's work is by no means a dry summary of facts and dates, with notes and tables of reference; it is a philosophical commentary, clearly and often eloquently written, upon the causes, the inmost nature, and the permanent effects of that great revolution, at once political and religious, intellectual and spiritual, which not only determined the future of Europe, but laid the foundations of liberty and energy in the New World. The very success of the Reformation has somewhat obscured its own history; it has raised us almost too far above the plane in which the reformers themselves were moving; and it has given to us such a standard of morality, and above all of truthfulness, that we can scarcely do justice even to the very men to whom we are indebted for this standard by which we judge them. One of the most conspicuous characteristics of the sixteenth century was its almost incredible treachery, so that, outside the narrow circle of the reforming *divines*, scarcely one of the great actors in that stirring up could be trusted. The Pope himself could not be trusted to withhold material aid even from Lutherans or Turks when he believed that he could make use of the church's enemies for the purposes of his own ambition. The Reforming princes could never be trusted not to abjure the Reformation and sacrifice their Protestant subjects and allies whenever the Pope, or the Emperor, or the King of France, seemed either dangerously strong or dangerously weak. The most beneficial compromise was the result, not of a spirit of toleration, but of supposed political convenience; and while other opinions and creeds were in a state of perpetual flux and change, this one belief was permanent and invariable—that it is the right and duty of the ruler to persecute all those who refuse to accept the authorized religion. We find it very difficult to do justice to persecuting Reformers and to the statesmen who habitually made use of the awakening love of truth and loyalty to every honest conviction of the soul for the purpose of cloaking their own treachery.

The author has brought into prominence the fact, which was a principal source of the strength and a condition of the success of the Reformation, that it was a political not less than a religious movement. Mere opinions and beliefs, however just and sacred, can become dominant only by means of the organization of society. There were many "reformers before the Reformation," but their influence was unable to secure expression, positive or negative, in the laws and constitutions of states, and was therefore feeble while it lasted and soon came to an end. Moreover, whereas now we are in the habit of regarding the individual as the unit of which the state is a multiple, in the sixteenth century the state was the unit of which the individual was a mere fraction. For evil and for good, kings and emperors, no less than divines, had their share in the Reformation work. "It presents a twofold aspect. On the one hand, it is a transformation in the church, in which are involved contests of theologians, modifications of creed and ritual, new systems of polity, an altered type of Christian life. On the other hand, it is a great transaction in which sovereigns and nations bear a part; the occasion of wars and treaties; the close of the old and the introduction of a new period in the history of culture and civilization."

Dr. Fisher's chapter (chap. ii.) on the rise and decline of the Papal hierarchy is a very able and judicious summary of a long series of events at once connected together and illuminated by clear principles. It is a too conspicuous failing in Protestant historians that, for the most part, they do scanty justice to the vast and most beneficial influence of the Papacy upon Christian civilization. The Bishops of Rome have again and again been unable to perceive the inmost nature of the great work which they were called to perform in the development of the human race; and hence, by the rigidity of their rules, and a jealous adherence to "the letter" when it no longer adequately expressed "the spirit" of Christianity as a social force, they have striven to undo or to neutralize their own achievements. Yet that very same spiritual power which raised the church to supremacy, by which it conquered both the empire and the barbarians, which may be resolved into the practical and constant recognition of the supremacy of the divine law and of the brotherhood and unity of mankind in the divine family, this was the very same power which built up, out of the ruins of the empire, a system of independent nations, with their own territorial boundaries and special work, yet still constituting the larger divisions of one family, the larger members of one body. The church represented by and almost debased into a papacy could not perceive this, and set herself to oppose the growth of nations; therefore she was dethroned, like the primeval gods of the old mythology, by her own children. Yet even in the midst of this great revolution of society, the perils and sufferings of so vast a transition were greatly mitigated, if not by the papacy, by the church. The clergy, and especially the bishops, were the chief agents by whom the exuberant physical force of the barbarians was turned and softened. We may almost be inclined to ridicule the wholesale baptism of a horde of pagans; but it was really, and not only in a technical sacramental sense, a new birth—the symbol of new ideals, and an acknowledgment of the "unresistible might of weakness."

There were other "special causes and omens of an ecclesiastical revolution prior to the sixteenth century" besides the formation and consolidation of nations; such, for instance, as the various sporadic protests against excessive formalism, sacerdotalism, and rigid dogmatism, and also the revival of learning and "humanism." Dr. Fisher has done justice to both these sets of causes, while clearly exhibiting their comparative feebleness, and showing how they often seemed rather to impede than to further the Reformation. Mysticism, especially, is compatible with almost any *form* of religion, and perhaps dreams itself away into spiritual ecstasy most deliciously by the aid of a gorgeous ceremonial saturated with symbolism. "Humanism" was embodied in Erasmus, whose portrait is exceedingly well drawn by Dr. Fisher. "He was a typical latitudinarian," a "time-server on principle." He himself admitted that he could have been an Arian or a Pelagian, if the church had so decreed, and that he was not the stuff of which martyrs are made. His estimate of men and movements was æsthetic, not moral or religious. His aversion to evil scarcely amounted to hatred. He could find matter for mere jesting, as Luther complained, in the troubles of the godly.

*'The Reformation. By George P. Fisher, D.D., Professor of Ecclesiastical History in Yale College.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1873.

He was afraid for a long time even to read Luther's writings, lest he should be required to express an opinion upon them. Yet we must not forget that it is the very spirit of the Reformation—the utter truthfulness and unflinching courage which are its best results—which make it so difficult for us to understand or do justice to Erasmus.

All Dr. Fisher's portraits are good, Luther's especially and Calvin's. These men live for ever. The Reformation is what it is, in no small measure, because Luther was *surprised* into it. His intense longing for peace with God, which was satisfied by that free grace which requires from man nothing more than the response of trust—this emancipated him, of its own accord, from the ghastly tyranny of ecclesiastical pardons and indulgences, with all the dishonesties which were their natural fruit. Moreover, Luther's "justification by faith alone" was not a mere dogma, explaining the conditions on which alone Almighty God could pardon the sinner. It was no attempt—like Anselm's 'Cur Deus homo?'—to answer questions which lie far beyond the reach of human knowledge. The only reason for which Luther sought was to be found in the fact itself; God's love, if it really exists, must be its own justification; and Luther rested in these as ultimate facts of personal religion—the love of God and the responses of faith.

Calvin was a man of an altogether different type, intensely hated by his enemies and even by his merely theological opponents. Stern almost to cruelty, he was one of the most utterly honest and self-sacrificing of all the Reformers. Dr. Fisher admirably sketches his life, his doctrine, his relation to St. Augustine, his rule at Geneva. Calvin's, indeed, is almost the completest sketch in this volume.

The chapter (x.) "on the Reformation in England and Scotland" is perhaps the least satisfactory; partly, it may be, because the knowledge of the bare facts may be largely taken for granted, and the summary of them is therefore too sketchy. More attention, we think, might have been devoted to the reign of Edward VI., especially to its extravagant attempts at reforms for which the people were not prepared, and which rendered the reaction under Mary easier and almost welcome. The influence of extreme Reformers on the Continent is of course admitted; but Dr. Fisher scarcely says enough to explain the undoubted strength of the conviction in the minds of English statesmen and of the bulk of the nation that the objections of the Puritans were frivolous, and that the very bitter opposition to authorized reforms was both schismatic and unpatriotic. This is conspicuously true even of the objections raised by the Puritans at the Savoy Conference to the Book of Common Prayer, which, no doubt, were resented with a very haughty and irritating intolerance, but which could scarcely have been admitted without subjecting the church and its formularies to a very unwise supervision by a small and impracticable minority. In matters indifferent, the indifference itself is an abundant reason for maintaining the *status quo*.

CAMPBELL MORFIT AND HIS PURE FERTILIZERS.*

THIS book is noteworthy in itself, inasmuch as it is probably the first treatise of any magnitude that has ever been published relating to the manufacture of superphosphate of lime from the mineral phosphates. But for the American reader it has special interest, considered as a product of its author.

Campbell Morfit, according to Appleton's Cyclopædia, was born in Herculaneum, Missouri, in 1820. He was educated at Washington and Philadelphia, and became conspicuous in the chemical and manufacturing circles of those cities and of Baltimore, and later of this city. Besides articles in the scientific journals, he has published a number of books, several of which are, on the whole, decidedly creditable performances, making due allowance for the conditions and circumstances which affected the science and industry of this country at the times when they were written. His treatise on the 'Manufacture of Soap and Candles' (1847) in particular, and that on 'Chemical Manipulation' (1848), were well thought of in their day, and so were the 'Encyclopædia of Chemistry' (1848), and a 'Report to the Smithsonian Institution on the Progress of the Chemical Arts' (1851), which he prepared in conjunction with Prof. Booth. From 1854 to 1858 Morfit was professor of chemistry at the University of Maryland. In a word, twelve or fifteen years ago, he was a chemist of acknowledged experience and reputation in this community, to whom opportunities for emolument or advancement could hardly have been wanting. Just what his feelings about secession and the conduct of the war may have been is unknown to us, but it is a matter of public notoriety that, some little time after the war began, he threw up his American connections in disgust, and went to Europe, where, from that time to the present, he has supported himself by the practice of his profession, viz., the application of scientific chemistry to manufacturing practice.

It is impossible for a brother chemist not to sympathize with the career of the man during these years of voluntary exile, for the idea of living by one's wits in Europe in the capacity of industrial chemist was a desperate expedient, which ought to have ended long ago in disastrous failure. The chemical manufacturers of Europe are for the most part trained men well informed as to the scientific bearings of their profession, and it is but natural that such men, when in need of assistance, should prefer candidates who have been schooled at the great scientific centres, and whose practical skill has been gained either at their own works or those of their competitors. It would be hard to conceive a more hopeless task than that of an American chemist of the professorial type seeking to live by his wits in a European manufacturing district. There is the smallest possible chance in such a place of gaining one's daily bread by the "introduction" of "improvements" of problematical value relating to the manufacture of soda-ash, oleic-acid soap, and superphospate, such as in part at least constituted Mr. Morfit's stock-in-trade. But to a man of ability all things are possible, and it appears that somehow, by hook or by crook, he has managed to keep body and soul together by devotion to his profession, and now exhibits his vitality by the publication of a work which commands both sympathy and respect, and a good share of commendation. The book contains some excellent ideas of marked force and originality. It sets forth much sound doctrine and many details of valuable technical information. But the text is spun out unwarrantably by unnecessary repetitions, and by the interpolation of irrelevant matter. The type is absurdly large, and the price ($20) at which the book is sold is preposterously high, to judge either by what is customary in the publication of books relating to kindred subjects, or by the cost of manufacturing in reasonable shape a book which might have contained everything that is new or useful in this one. The reader will have no cause to complain that processes of manufacture peculiar to Mr. Morfit are slighted or given at insufficient length; but however much the details of these processes may try his patience, he will heartily go along with certain leading ideas relating to the propriety and necessity in these days of making absolutely pure fertilizers, and of making them economically for the consumers' as well as for the manufacturers' sake. These ideas are set forth with marked clearness and ability.

Powdered bones, as everybody knows, are an excellent manure, and bones that have been made soluble by sulphuric acid are still better. So, too, fossil bones, and other rocks of similar composition to bone, have great value as fertilizing agents after they have been made soluble by the action of sulphuric acid. In point of fact, the product resulting from the action of that acid upon the native phosphates is manufactured and sold in enormous quantities under the name of superphosphate of lime. But it happens that many of the phosphatic rocks are not easily or fully decomposed by the acid, and that most of them contain a large proportion of worthless and inert materials which not only interfere with the process of manufacture, and add enormously to the cost of transporting and applying the finished product, but open the door, as it were, for the perpetration of the most unblushing frauds; for the fertilizer made from bad materials may closely resemble that made from the best, so that it is in general hardly possible to distinguish between the two kinds of products except by analysis. Hence, it is only too often that the farmer pays out many of his sixpences for pounds of sand instead of the plant-food he asked for.

Mr. Morfit assures us that all this is wrong technically as well as scientifically and morally; and he teaches methods of manufacture by which both the waste and the risk of fraud may be avoided. He describes, by plan and in detail, processes by means of which all the phosphate of lime may be dissolved out from the powdered mineral, no matter how impure it may be, by means of muriatic acid, and then recovered by addition of ammonia gas, which is subsequently recovered in its turn, and used over and over again indefinitely. On treating the pure phosphate of lime thus obtained with sulphuric acid, there is got at once, without trouble, a superphosphate containing say 24 per cent. of soluble phosphoric acid. By slightly varying the process, a precipitate containing less water than the foregoing can be prepared, and from it it is easy to make a superphosphate containing 34 per cent. of soluble phosphoric acid. By leaching these high grade products with water, and evaporating the clear solution, there is obtained a dry soluble monophosphate of lime so nearly pure that it contains almost sixty per cent. of soluble phosphoric acid. There will, of course, be great advantage, both as regards transportation, constancy of composition, and definiteness in fertilizing action, in using such products as these instead of the so-called superphosphates of the American markets, which, as a general thing, contain no more than from 5 to 12 per cent. of soluble phosphoric acid. Since the methods described by Mr. Morfit require the free use of muriatic acid, they can naturally be best carried out at the great alkali works of Europe, where the acid needed for the solution of the rock is formed as a by-product

* 'A Practical Treatise on Pure Fertilizers. By Campbell Morfit.' 8vo; pp. 547. London: Trübner & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand. 1872.

incidental to the decomposition of sea-salt, from which the alkali is made, and can therefore be had in any quantity at a merely nominal cost. It will assuredly be a great gain for the farmer when the making of superphosphates in this way is thrown into the hands of a comparatively few large and responsible manufacturers, who will be able to sell the material at the lowest possible price, and be willing to warrant the good quality of their wares.

The idea that the making of superphosphates must be lifted from its present state of brutal empiricism to that of scientific accuracy is the key-note of the book, and the reasoning by which it is sustained is clear, cogent, and convincing. For his own part, Mr. Morfit would prefer in many cases not to go to the length of manufacturing a soluble superphosphate from his pure precipitated phosphate. He would rather seek to sell a pure precipitated di- or tri-phosphate of lime, insoluble indeed in pure water, but, as he urges, tolerably easily acted upon by the saline and acid waters of the soil. There can, indeed, be no doubt that for certain purposes the precipitated phosphate would be worthy the farmer's attention if sold at a sufficiently low price, just as now many farmers prefer to use in certain cases bone meal or even boneblack in place of the more costly superphosphate. But it is an error to suppose that any precipitated product can replace the soluble superphosphate. The merit of the latter undoubtedly consists chiefly, if not solely, in the fact that by virtue of its solubility the farmer is enabled to distribute, mix, and incorporate a phosphatic manure with his soil more thoroughly than can be done in any other way. The experiments of several observers have shown that the soluble superphosphate diffuses itself readily in a soil, and that it is there gradually absorbed and precipitated by the action of certain components of the soil in such wise that every particle of the latter, for a considerable space around each spot where a fragment of the manure was applied, receives and retains some particles of phosphate, precipitated, it is true (and commonly in the form of phosphate of iron or of alumina), but precipitated so finely and universally that the rootlets of the growing plant find everywhere a little of it ready for use. Now, since a dry powdered superphosphate can be distributed by mechanical means in the first place just as thoroughly as a dry powdered precipitated di- or tri-phosphate can be distributed, and since the chemical distribution, so to speak, which has been described comes into play after the mechanical distribution has been finished, it would plainly be impracticable to obtain anything like so complete a distribution by means of phosphates applied in the insoluble state, no matter how finely they may have been comminuted, as is easily gained by the use of the superphosphate. Hence we cannot but regard it as unfortunate that certain manufacturers of superphosphate have endeavored to convince themselves and the public that there is any possible standard of merit applicable to their wares other than the percentage amount of soluble phosphoric acid which is contained in them.

If the manufacturers wish to sell insoluble phosphates at a reasonable price, let them do so by all means. But the precipitated insoluble product should be sold by itself in such form that the farmer may be able to test its usefulness, and determine practically whether it be better or worse for him than the various insoluble bone products which can be bought in every market. But it is clearly improper to attach any but a nominal value to the precipitated product when sold as a contamination of the superphosphate proper. This last is bought by the intelligent farmer solely because of its solubility. It is to the last degree unfair, therefore, that he should be made to pay in this connection for a material which he does not want.

Mr. Morfit's book will do much good directly by teaching farmers and planters what they have a right to expect as regards the purity of superphosphate fertilizers. It can indeed hardly fail of exerting in this respect a powerful influence upon public opinion; and it will undoubtedly do good indirectly by exciting comment and discussion in the foreign scientific journals. The book will thus be the forerunner of other, and it is to be hoped in some respects of better, works.

Motherly Talks with Young Housekeepers. By Mrs. H. W. Beecher. (New York: J. B. Ford & Co. 1873.)—Mrs. Beecher's 'Motherly Talks with Young Housekeepers' is unusually well described by its title. Too many books of the general class to which it belongs talk to the young housekeeper most in need of advice as if she were a prolific young housekeeper, "a mother of six," and tell her after "taking twenty-four eggs" and one dozen quarts of milk and fifteen pounds of flour, to go on and produce some dish which would feed to repletion a household of vast size instead of being cleverly just enough for herself, the householder her husband, and the servant. And it is perfectly well known that if the inexpert young mistress ever attempts to "divide the rule" and take proportional fractions of the flour and eggs and tarragon vinegar and what not, the resultant product is sure to be forlornly unlike the promise of the cook-book. Recipes for uncommon and unrequired dishes, too, as well as for huge ones, the recipe-makers almost always provide in profusion, as if the young married ladies who are trying to supervise their own kitchen, who go to market themselves, and who need instruction about picking out tender fowls and how to know a hen-lobster and how to keep peas green, were the same ladies who have at command the services of French artists and are regularly in the habit of giving dinners of many courses. Mrs. Beecher appears to be of a more practical turn than most of her co-laborers in this field, and she shows as much by keeping it steadily in mind that she writes for young people who have not yet formed good habits, or indeed any fixed habits, of feeding themselves and their husbands; and also by remembering that these young people and their husbands are not persons of opulence and lavish expenditure. If her precepts sometimes seem a trifle too well adapted to families of scanty means, and with a taste for chromo-lithographs which they purchase in the interest of self-culture and patronage of art, why, at least the people whom such precepts will please form a larger class than those whom another sort of precepts might please, and a class whose culinary condition greatly needs ameliorating, and who will heed all that our author says—the good as well as the not so good.

Mrs. Beecher by no means confines herself to the market, pantry, and kitchen. Many miscellaneous details of the household economy she deals with; as, for instance, that there is a right and a wrong way of drying umbrellas; that furs should undergo and endure a certain test before they are purchased; that a certain simple application will remove ink-stains from mahogany; that there is a plain reason why lamps containing inflammable oil should be filled in the morning rather than at any other time of day. Yet these hints and the much more numerous recipes which precede them do not make up the whole of this sensible and useful volume, which in all contains about five hundred pages. A considerable part of it pertains to the moral order of the family, and gives advice as good and doubtless as important as that in reference to the soup and joints and the dishes for breakfast—dishes frequently neglected, but here treated of with faithfulness and respect. "What is a wife worth?" is one of the subjects discussed in this part of the volume—the implication being that a wife is worth our being civil to her, and forgiving her, and so on; and in the body of the essay this doctrine is insisted upon explicitly and at length, and in a way that may perhaps open many eyes now sealed. So of husbands also. "Grumbling" is another such topic; and others are "The Slavery of Fashion"; "Divided Family Government"—a topic so handled as to warn the two parents against being out of accord in their commands to the children; "Securing Good Servants"; how the faults of the parents come to light in the children, and are to be therefore regarded with sorrow as well as anger; "Waste not, Want not," and many others similar.

Altogether, we believe we do not know a better book of its kind than this one, considering the varied purposes which it has in view and the families to which it is addressed. These families are of course American, with the peculiar markets, kitchens, faults, and virtues of the majority of American families; and of course the precepts, culinary and moral, are not all of them calculated for any other latitudes and longitudes than our own, any more than the best of English housekeeping advice is perfectly adapted in all its particulars and principles to any countries but the three kingdoms. We say this, thinking at the moment of the excellent cookery-book by an Englishwoman, the late Mrs. S. O. Beeton, which Messrs. D. Appleton & Co. have republished. It is excellent for its great fulness and variety, its great and plain minuteness, and the sound sense and helpfulness of its advice upon many household matters lying outside the kitchen. There is something a little amusing to the light-minded American reader, and extremely exasperating to the woman's-rights reader of whatever sex, nation, or tribe, in the vigilant zeal which Mrs. Beeton inculcates upon the woman of the house in all matters appertaining to the comfort and happiness of the house's lord and master; and there is an easy air, as of one who has servants obedient to orders, in the English lady's prescriptions in regard to the duties of the cook, the housemaid, the waiting-maid, and so forth, which will fill the American wife's heart with envy if not with incredulity. But not the most light-minded husband, nor the most envious wife, nor very many of the woman's-rights women, would deny that the labor of collecting feasible and admirable recipes in large numbers has been done by Mrs. Beeton in a highly workmanlike and creditable manner.

The Other Girls. By Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.)—When Miss Anna Dickinson wished to teach us that society is mistaken in objecting to the marriage of white men with black women, she wrote a book in which a white man was represented as marrying a

black woman who, in point of complexion, was rather whiter than alabaster, and who not only had no trace whatever of social and intellectual qualities which are naturally associated in most people's minds with the thought of negresses, but was endowed with gifts and graces which it is not going too far to say would have redeemed a wagon-load of charcoal. This was one way of grappling with the question mooted. So also, when Miss E. S. Phelps wished to teach us that the world is mistaken in its method of dealing with prostitutes who have become repentant, or rather with women who, having lost their virtue, are in consequence not desired in wedlock or for purposes of general society, she adopted in her novel the plan of finding for such a woman a good angel in the person of an elderly lady who takes her into a Christian family circle and thoroughly reclaims her. As a matter of fact, we may say in parenthesis that she was sinned against and not sinning, and hardly needed reclaiming. But just as this result is reached, and we are looking to see what will be the career of the reclaimed one, our authoress makes her dress herself from head to foot in pure white, put up white curtains before her bedroom windows, and white coverings and "tidies" on the chairs, and then, having thus indicated her passionate desire and lament for her lost innocence, she is compelled to die of a broken heart. That this solution of this social problem is—barring the white—pretty much the solution hit upon by society; that "the only art her guilt to cover" is about the same in Miss Phelps's eyes and in Goldsmith's, appears to give Miss Phelps no uneasiness, and to make her not at all less confident than when she set out to redress abuses. Equally with Miss Phelps's and Miss Dickinson's exertions in social philosophy are Mrs. Whitney's exertions adapted to induce sorrow and terror in the hearts of those who desire to look upon "woman" with respect, who believe it a calumny that all women reason in a circle except a few clever ones who reason in an ellipse, and, finally, who think that women should be straightway admitted to the polls under the Fifteenth or some or any other Amendment.

The famous American-servant-girl question as handled by Mrs. Whitney is solved as readily as Miss Dickinson's marriage-with-negroes question, or Miss Phelps's reform-of-the-Magdalen question; but in spite of Mrs. Whitney's courage and good nature, it remains just as ready, we fear, for yet more solutions as the grislier questions raised and settled by her sister doctresses. To do Mrs. Whitney justice, she has not gone quite the length of Mrs. Stowe, who also has philosophized on this subject. Mrs. Stowe's line of argument would seem to have been that if nice-looking young natives would come up against the foreigner to the partial relief of the housekeeper, and would accept the duties and wages of table-girls, at least, if they could not quite put up with kitchen work, the chances were that the son of the house might take a fancy to them and marry them. The reader can imagine the pleasure with which this method of relief was hailed by the mothers of the sons. And perhaps he can imagine the swarms of American table-girls who forthwith thronged the American dining-room. Mrs. Whitney's scheme is set forth something as follows: Miss Bel Bree and Miss Kate Censerbox are two seamstresses who are thrown out of work by a great fire. They are both Americans by birth, and Miss Bel is an American of a very good sort. She decides that she will go out to service, and will secure herself a home better than many hall-bedrooms by helping to make a home for her employers, and she induces Kate to go with her. We shall not tell how, at the first interview with Mrs. Scherman, "Bel got her arm around little Sinsie," and neither Bel nor Kate asked "What's the privileges, mum?"; how the bedroom was not a hall-bedroom, but bigger, and soon was made cosy; how the kitchen was druggeted, and had a lounge put into it; how the nursery became happy for the children, and a rest from labor for the maids, who loved it and liked to be with the baby; how Bel became cultivated, because she saw all the magazines, and because Mrs. Scherman, in Bel's presence, asks questions of her guests about "Tyndall's essays and the spectroscope," which she herself knows all about, but with which she desires Bel to become acquainted.

It is all narrated in the book, and the upshot tells sufficiently how near we are to the new order, and, indeed, what a charming order it would be were it destined to come upon us. Bel becomes very cultivated, and finally a contributor to *First and Last*, a magazine of great refinement, and on the composition of her first poem—a little thing about spring—Mrs. Scherman, seeing that, hired servant though she was, "a lovely soul all alight with thought and gladness met her," bent down and affectionately kissed her brow. Bel has since had great success in *First and Last*, but she still remains with Mrs. Scherman, and as she irons her mistress's "damask table-cloths, and the ivy-leaf or morning-glory pattern comes out under the polish, some beautiful thought in her takes line and shade under the rule of labor," and Mr. Stalworth, editor of *First and Last*, "as benign as brilliant," says that her poems are stamped with her own name, being "breezy" and freshly delicious. Fifteen dollars apiece she gets for them. And as she irons and muses, she reflects on the prejudice which prefers work in the milliner's shop and the dressmaker's to the mutual friendship and concordant culture of the kitchen, the nursery, and the dining-room. Growth, she feels, and genial culture are what she wants, and the cook in a genial family is the woman to get them.

There is a deal of other matter in the book besides this literary servant-girl and civil and respectful mistress. There is the big Boston fire, the love-stories of several couples, the philanthropy and heart-aspirations of some more, much "insight" of a religious character, which we personally do not find edifying, and the main story, which also is a story of love. A curious notion of the Boston that is really educated and cultivated the foreigner must get from "chromos" of this kind, which are numerous. Yet this one represents a considerable circle, and one of much activity; and that it illustrates the thought and taste of this circle with a good deal of what may be called brightness must be admitted. That it should not please countless young girls and boys is inconceivable; and it is good enough to make the maturer reader wish that the certain something which is wanting had not been denied.

The Life of Franz Schubert. By Geo. Lowell Austin. (Boston: Shepard & Gill.)—This is a good-natured attempt to make us better acquainted with perhaps the greatest song-writer that ever lived. As a piece of book-making, it has the usual shortcomings of musical works: 1st. No reference to the sources whence the facts were derived. Whether the book is out of the inner consciousness of the editor, or is based on Kreissle's 'Life of Schubert,' published at Vienna some years ago, we cannot tell. 2d. It has neither table of contents nor index, which is much the same as a man's appearing on the street without hat or boots. 3d. It gives no catalogue of Schubert's works, although several more or less complete editions have lately appeared in Germany. It also fails to give us a lifelike picture of Schubert's way of life, the society in which he moved, or even a general idea of his personal appearance. In the critical résumé of Schubert's "character and works," Mr. Austin would have done better had he betrayed some consciousness of Brendel's able summary in his 'Geschichte der Musik' or Ehlert's picturesque eulogium in the 'Letters on Music,' or the far clearer analysis in Mr. Haweis's 'Music and Morals.' The latter says:

"Works belonging to the highest order of genius depend upon the rare combination of three distinct qualities: (1) Invention; (2) Expression; (3) Concentration. Speaking generally, we may say that Beethoven and Mozart possessed all three; Mendelssohn, the second and third in the highest degree; Schumann, the first and third; Schubert, the first and second. As fast as his ideas arose, they were poured forth on paper. He was like a gardener bewildered with the luxuriant growth springing up around him. He was too rich for himself—his fancy outgrew his powers of arrangement."

As a purely *musical* composer, Schubert was perhaps the peer of Mozart. His pianoforte pieces are in a high degree fresh, picturesque, refined, and poetic. In spite of its faults, therefore, we welcome Mr. Austin's attempt at bringing us nearer to so richly endowed a genius.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles. *Publishers.—Prices.*

Alexander (Rev. J. A.), Gospel according to Matthew Explained.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
American Annual Cyclopædia for 1872. Vol. XII.....(D. Appleton & Co.) 5 00
Art-Journal, No. CXXXVII., swd.....(Virtue & Yorston)
Atlantic Coast Guide.....(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 00
Bagehot (W.), The English Constitution, revised ed.....(Little, Brown & Co.) 2 25
Bachelder (J. B.), Gettysburg: Guide-book.....(Lee, Shepard & Dillingham)
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JUNE 16, 1873.

THE foreign news received during the past week was favorable. The Bank of England rate of discount was reduced from 7 to 6 per cent. at the regular weekly meeting of directors on Thursday, the Bank's having gained £421,000 in bullion. The payment of the 250,000,000 francs, on the 5th inst., by France to Germany, was reflected in a decrease of 54,000,000 francs in specie in the Bank of France. The feehng prevails that a permanent change has taken place in the flow of specie from England towards the Continent, and that the Germans are gradually releasing the large amount which they have held for recoinage. From Washington comes an intimation that the payment of $15,000,000 on account of the Alabama claims will be settled by our Government through the medium of the payment in London of the called 5-20's; or, in other words, the coin, which would otherwise have to be sent to this country, will be placed to the credit of the United States in London, and the money paid out in that city to holders of the called bonds. We notice that the Secretary of the Treasury has called in $20,000,000 more 5-20's for redemption, and this call was probably made against the $15,000,000 above referred to, both the indemnity payment and the bonds falling due in September. No official information, however, has yet come to hand regarding the transaction.

The money market has remained very easy, with rates ruling between 3 and 5 per cent.

The weekly bank statement is again favorable, particularly so in the handsome increase of legal tenders, which show a gain of $1,089,000 as compared to the amount held last week. The banks now hold $11,971,150 in specie and legal tenders above the lawful amount required, against $10,815,325 the week previous—a gain of $1,155,825. The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	June 7.	June 14.	Differences.
Loans	$277,418,800	$277,714,400	Inc. $295,600
Specie	25,984,800	26,967,600	Inc. 982,800
Circulation	27 434.100	27,402,700	Dec. 31,400
Deposits	214,475.800	218,171,100	Inc. 3.695 300
Legal tenders	45,308,000	46,397,000	Inc. 1,089,000

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	June 7.	June 14.	Differences.
Specie	$25,984,800	$26.967,600	Inc. $982,800
Legal tenders	45,308,000	46,397,0 0	Inc. 1,089 000
Total reserve	$71.292,800	$73,364,600	Inc. $2,071,800
Circulation	$27,434.100	$27,402,700	Dec. $31.400
Deposits	214,475 800	218,171,100	Inc. 3.695,300
Total liabilities	$241,909,900	$245,573,800	Inc. $3,663 900
25 per cent. reserve	60.477.475	61,393,450	
Excess over legal reserve	10,815,325	11,971,150	Inc. 1,155,825

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$239,684,900	$38.029,500	$277,714,400
Specie	24 817,900	2,149 700	26,967 600
Legal tenders	40.557,200	5.839,800	46.397,000
Deposits	188,514,800	29,656.300	218,171,100
Circulation	27,359,700	43,000	27 402,700
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	30 28-100 p.c.	26 90-100 p.c.	29 87-100 p.c.

The week opened with a very weak and bearish feeling in the stock market, which culminated, for the time being at least, in a general decline on Wednesday of from 1 to 4⅝ per cent. The stocks most seriously affected by the drop in prices were C. C. and I. C., Milwaukee and St. Paul common, and Western Union Telegraph, which, as compared to Monday's opening quotations, fell off 3⅝, 4⅝, and 3⅛ per cent. respectively. The balance of the list held up considerably better, but the decline was sufficient to carry Rock Island down to 107¾, Lake Shore to 90¼, Central and Hudson to 100½, and Union Pacific to 26¾. On Thursday the news came from London that the bank rate had been lowered to 6 per cent., and immediately things commenced to improve, with very good buyers in the market. The improvement which took place Thursday continued throughout Friday and Saturday, being most marked in Central and Hudson, Lake Shore, Western Union Telegraph, and Milwaukee and St. Paul. A considerable short interest seemed to have been made at and during the decline in Western Union, and the subsequent covering of this short interest aided materially in sending the price up to the quotations at the close of Friday. Lake Shore, with a five months' dividend earned, selling at about 90, was a temptation to good buyers, who seem to have availed themselves of the opportunity to lay in a supply. There has been, for quite a long time, many doubts expressed as to the Lake Shore road paying its dividend, and these doubts led people to sell the stock short. Now that the earnings of the road show so well ($1,680,968 last month, against $1,471,467 for the same month last year), and that the dividend day is so near at hand, the "shorts" have become alarmed, and have also been among the largest buyers of the stock.

In the investment stocks, such as Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy, and Michigan Central, over which there has been a cloud hovering for the past thirty days, an improved feeling prevails. These two stocks have suffered by reason of the action of the managements for the past five years in "not letting well enough alone," and going on building and leasing new lines of road, which has not met with favor among all of their stockholders. There is no doubt that these new lines or branches have been a drag upon the main roads; indeed, to such an extent as to use up a large amount of the net earnings of the companies. It will be remembered that the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy and Michigan Central both paid their last dividends in stock instead of cash. At present prices, however, both stocks are not dear, and with good management there is every reason to look for a long period of prosperity.

Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western continues firm at about 106, Delaware and Hudson Canal at 118½ to 119½, and New Jersey Central at 106½ to 107.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending June 14, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100⅝ 101⅛	100⅝ 101⅛	100⅛ 100⅞	100⅜ 101⅛	101¼ 102¼	101⅜ 102⅛	59,700
Lake Shore	91⅛ 91⅝	91¼ 91⅜	90⅛ 91⅜	91 91⅛	92¼ 92⅜	92⅛ 93⅛	58,200
Erie	62 62⅛	62⅛ 63⅜	63 63⅝	63⅜ 63⅝	64⅜ 65½	64⅝ 65⅝	31,700
Do. pfd.	74 74½	74⅜	74	....	73½ 74¼	....	....
Union Pacific	27⅜ 28⅜	26⅝ 27⅜	26⅜ 27⅜	27⅜ 28	27⅞ 28½	27⅜ 28¼	42,900
Chi. & N. W.	75½ 76	70 75	.... 75½	71 76	....	....	....
Do. pfd.	83⅜ 83⅜	83¼ 84½	84	84	83½	....	100
N. J. Central	05⅜ 107	106⅜ 10.	106½ 107	106½ 107	106¾ 106¾	....	100
Rock Island	108⅜ 10 ⅜	108 108⅜	107⅞ 108⅜	08¼ 109	108¼ 109½	109 109⅜	31,800
Mil. & St. Paul	53⅜ 54⅜	50⅜ 54	49⅜ 5 ⅜	50¾ 51⅜	50⅜ 51⅜	51¼ 53	112 600
Do. pfd.	72⅛ 72⅛	71⅛ 72	70¾ 71⅜	71 71⅛	72 72	....	2100
Wabash	67½ 68⅜	65 67	64⅜ 66	65½ 66½	66⅜ 67⅜	67¼ 68¼	19,100
D. L. & Western	105¾ 106	105⅝ 105⅞	105⅜ 105⅛	105⅜ 105	105⅜ 106	105¾ 105⅜	6.200
B. H. & Erie	2⅛ 2¼	2⅜ 2⅝	2¼ 2⅜	2¼ 2⅜	2¼ 2¼	2⅜ 2⅜	,700
O. & M.	37⅝ 38⅜	37 38¼	36⅜ 37⅜	37¼ 38⅜	38¼ 39¼	38⅜ 39⅜	99 400
C. C. & I. C.	29½ 30⅜	27⅜ 29⅜	26⅝ 28⅛	27⅜ 28½	28½ 29½	29¼ 29¼	29.400
W. U. Tel.	82⅜ 84⅜	81⅜ 83⅜	81⅛ 82⅛	81⅜ 84½	83⅜ 86½	85½ 86⅜	224,800
Pacific Mail	39¾ 41	39⅜ 40⅜	39⅜ 40½	39½ 40⅝	39½ 40½	39¾ 40¾	85,600

Government securities have remained strong, with a scarcity of bonds and a constant demand for what are on the market from the foreign bankers. The calling in of $20,000,000 5-20's before noticed has had the effect of strengthening quotations.

State bonds are inactive, with the transactions mostly confined to Tennessees, which are up to 79¾ and 79⅛ for the old and new issues respectively. Mr. Reverdy Johnson will shortly read in Baltimore his opinion as to the legal right of the holders of what are known as North Carolina special-tax bonds to procure the collection of taxes for the payment of the interest upon them.

Railroad bonds of the better class are in good demand at the Stock Exchange, and prices towards the close of the week improved. The default of a number of new railroads in the payment of interest upon their bonds causes more than the usual scrutiny to be exercised by investors in making purchases. The payment of July interest and dividends will cause a strong demand for first-class bonds and securities of all kinds, and the improvement noticed this week will undoubtedly continue for such as are beyond any doubt as regards safety. The New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company, in anticipation of such demand, have advertised, inviting bids for $2,000,000 of the 7 per cent. currency bonds of that Company until July 2, when the bids will be accepted or declined as suits the interest of the Company. As the $10,000,000 6 per cent. gold sterling bonds are said to have been recently negotiated in London at about 110 in currency, some idea can be formed as to the price which the managers of the Company expect to obtain for the 7 per cent. currency bonds now offered.

The favorable advices received from abroad, in addition to the large recent disbursements of gold by the Treasury, in paying off the called 5-20's, have been too much for the gold clique, who have been obliged to allow the price to drop to 116 against 118, the closing price last week. The falling off in the importations was not looked for; but, on the contrary, the clique, from all that we can learn, confidently expected continued gold shipments during the summer months as a means of paying our foreign debts. They seem to have been disappointed in all their calculations, and are undoubtedly left with more gold on their hands than they can market. It is to be hoped that they will have to keep it. At all events, it will require all the well-known ability of the clique managers to get out of their present position without great loss.

The imports for the week ending June 14 at this port amounted to $6,218,013, and the custom receipts for the week were $1,864,254.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 26, 1873.

The Week.

THE Secretary of the Navy has acted with discretion and promptness in the case of the survivors of the *Polaris* expedition. On subjecting them to examination by a competent board, it appeared that their original story was quite truthful in its main incidents; that Captain Hall's death was a perfectly natural one; and that a suspicion of foul play had no other justification than his evidently delirious utterances during his last illness. The Board exonerates Capt. Buddington, too, from all blame for the separation of the ship's company, and for apparent abandonment of those on the ice, when he clearly must have seen them as they saw the *Polaris*, the day after the catastrophe, both under steam and sail and at anchor. But they give him up as a hard drinker, not fit to be in command. After all the bitter feelings they have entertained, perhaps not unnaturally, Capt. Tyson and his associates, including the Esquimaux, have consented freely to join the expedition in search of their former comrades which has just been despatched by the Navy Department. One of the Esquimaux happily preserved Capt. Hall's writing-desk, and from a despatch found in it, written at the most northern point of his sledge-journey, as well as from the testimony of Meyer and Tyson, the geographical and scientific results of the expedition have been ascertained to be so considerable as to promise to have a decisive influence on future polar exploration. The body of water known as Smith's Sound in its southern expanse has been traced to within six degrees of the pole, and the continent of Greenland to a point between the 82d and 83d parallels. The favorite British plan of a land expedition along the eastern shore of Smith's Sound seems to be greatly strengthened by Capt. Hall's discoveries, and the pressure brought to bear upon the British Government for aid to carry it out will doubtless be redoubled.

The new Civil-Service Commission has made a report to the President prescribing nine additional rules to those laid down by their predecessors. They attempt in these to abolish the practice of direct personal solicitations or recommendations to office on the part either of private persons or of Government officials; to put an end to removals from office "for the mere purpose of making a place for another person"; to make the employment of women as "clerks, copyists, and counters, at $900 a year," dependent on the discretion of the heads of Departments (a modification of the rule expressly providing for their appointment); to examine applicants for anticipated vacancies; and to extend the facilities for entrance into the civil service by holding stated examinations in different parts of the country. All the proposed regulations must be admitted to be useful, and calculated to give greater strength and sincerity to the reform. They have, indeed, largely if not wholly grown out of the experience of the examiners thus far. The ninth rule is perhaps the most important of all. Experience having shown that so long as the examinations are conducted solely at Washington, the Government service must be recruited mainly from the residents of that city and of the neighboring State of Maryland, the Board of Examiners for the Treasury Department in their report last spring recommended substantially the scheme of Mr. Eaton and his associates. This groups the States and Territories into five divisions, adapted to the present state of the population, and in each district semi-annual examinations will be held at convenient centres after due notification by mail to all registered applicants. The result of the examinations will be announced in the same way, thus diminishing, as far as practicable, the expense of travelling and of waiting for the verdict.

On another point, the Commissioners, we dare say from prudence more than from conviction, are less advanced than the Treasury Examiners. The latter declared it to be their opinion that "no measure of reform will meet the evil or secure the remedy which does not ensure fair compensation, reasonable permanency, and a provision for old age." The Commissioners say: "We do not regard the question of the proper duration of the tenure of office or of clerkships as one with which civil-service reform, *as now inaugurated*, has any other than an indirect connection." Both Boards, however, are unanimous as to the good effects of the regulations hitherto enforced. Examinations for consuls were instituted in March of the present year, "and there is every reason to believe that incompetent persons will, in a great measure, cease to urge themselves upon that branch of the public service, and that those who pass the examinations will be competent to serve their country in a satisfactory manner." The Patent Office is also instanced by the Commission as having profited by the competitive system, of which a general consequence has been that the heads of Departments have had more time to attend to the public business.

We are informed by a correspondent that among the causes which contributed to the defeat of Judge Lawrence in Illinois was his answer to an address from the bar asking him to run, which Mr. Craig, by the bye, signed, in which he (Lawrence) plainly intimated his belief that lawyers were better fitted to select judges than farmers or other laymen, which is to a large extent true, but which the farmers took to be insulting. Another was his punishment of the Chicago *Evening Journal* for contempt in publishing an abusive article on him apropos of his conduct of a case then pending in his court. This arrayed a large number of the newspapers of the district in hostility to him. And though last, not least, he was denounced for his "aristocratic airs"—a phrase said to mean that he dresses neatly, and has a dignified manner in court. Craig, on the other hand, it is said, endeavored to meet the views of the electors on this subject by going to a farmers' meeting with a patched coat, and holes in the toes of his boots, but we are unable to say with how much success this device was attended. In the meantime, the railroads are preparing to let the farmers know what the new law means. Free passes and half-fare permits are to be abolished; free returns are to be refused to attendants on religious, literary, and political conventions; trains are to run less frequently, and freight cars are not to leave way stations till they are full, and so on, so that at present the prospect of a restoration of harmony is by no means good.

The new Illinois railroad law goes into operation on the 1st of July. Its effect will be, as shown by the published tariffs, a general increase of rates. The roads being obliged to establish absolutely equal rates for equal distances, and being prohibited from making any discriminations, of course take as a basis of calculation such charges as will be remunerative, and then increase these equally as the distance increases. The Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, for instance, has published a schedule, fixing a certain rate per mile for the various classes of freight, and then applying this rate by sections of two miles and a half up to twenty-five miles, and by sections of five miles for distances exceeding twenty-five miles. What the ultimate effect of this new system will be, no one seems to know. The Western papers are full of the most bewildering calculations on the subject, the natural difficulties of which are indefinitely multiplied by the fact that each one of the half-a-dozen States through which any railroad runs may pass a different law regulating freights. The Chicago *Tribune* says that it is a foregone conclusion that Ohio and Indiana will pass a *pro-rata* freight law before long, on prohibitory principles. Heretofore "through" freight passing over competing lines for the East has come through at low rates; if the rates increase with the distance, it will be obviously easy enough for Ohio and Indiana, by passing a law like that of Illinois, to prevent any Illinois grain getting to the East, through

their borders at least, until all their own is taken care of. The *Tribune* says: "If this cut-throat policy is to be tried, it is not at all improbable that it will lead to a demand upon Congress to interpret and establish its right to regulate commerce between the States, which could be exercised in this case only by virtually defeating the *pro-rata* principle as applied to through freights passing over several different States."

A public meeting has been held in New Orleans with a view of effecting a more perfect union between the colored voters and the white, and to this end the white men, under the leadership, as is alleged and again denied, of General Beauregard, have adopted resolutions making the colored man a number of promises, which may be briefly described as an agreement to treat the negro exactly as Mr. Sumner's Civil Rights Bill would have him treated, if that bill could be made a law, and then could be executed. It is proposed that the colored man shall have his half of the offices, of whatever grade; that his children shall go to the same schools as the white man's; that he shall "frequent at will all places of public resort" on the same terms as the white man, and no other; that he shall travel in the public conveyances upon terms of perfect equality with any and every citizen. And the whites, in order to make these rights "live and practical," bind themselves to urge their new views upon the owners and authorities controlling steamboats, railroads, theatres, cemeteries, banks, insurance offices, schools, and manufactories. In the light afforded by similar demonstrations in other parts of the South, these Louisiana overtures towards a new party of conservatism and liberality may best be watched awhile before any extravagant expectations are formed.

We are to have one or two "off-years" in politics, and as a consequence the Prohibitory question, so called, may very likely be in issue in several of our States. This lends particular interest to some statements recently made by the Boston *Journal* in regard to the existing temperance laws of Massachusetts, which are very severe, and very harshly administered by a body of State policemen. It was without any requirement of the constituencies, says the *Journal*, and without any call from public opinion, that the Legislature put all fermented liquors under the ban, as previously distilled liquors had been. Some of the results are curious. Here, for instance, is one, which can gratify few prohibitionists except those who truly hold the doctrine—which some deliberately preach—that, all things considered, the beer-house is not merely an evil, but a greater evil than the rum-shop itself. It is found, says the *Journal*, that the liquor-sellers, who a little while ago were ready to make common cause with the brewers in resisting the law, or were at least ready to receive aid and comfort from the brewers in doing so, have now greatly lost interest in the proposed crusade against prohibition. They think they are well enough off. The reason of this change of intention is, that as the beer-houses and breweries are easily watched and detected in illegality, and the spirit dispensatories can be watched only with difficulty and very imperfectly, the trade in liquors has increased so much since beer was prohibited, that the dealers no longer care to fight the prohibitionists. How long this will last is not predicted, but the immediate effect of the new law is said to be this marked revival of the use of the stronger drinks, and the consequent inevitable increase in crime and misery. The *Journal*, going on with its review of the political field, says that the prohibitionists, by "simply continuing the headstrong intolerance" which gave the State the beer law, can, if they like, make the whole campaign turn upon that one issue, and it foretells that in case they should so decide, prohibition will this autumn be buried beneath an overwhelming majority. And yet we suppose we are within bounds when we say that a good working majority of the voters in Massachusetts are satisfied to see the sale of spirits made very difficult, and probably would be willing to see it made impossible, though we do not believe any great number of them expect the latter. But, as between few sales and such a law as is now on the statute-book, enforced by the machinery used at present in its enforcement, we suppose there is nowhere on the surface of the earth a community of the size of the State of Massachusetts that would deliberately sanction it.

Miss Susan B. Anthony has been tried in the United States Circuit Court at Canandaigua for violating the law in voting at the last Congressional election in the twenty-fifth district. She was defended by Judge Selden, who offered himself as a witness, and testified that she had consulted him as to her right to vote before doing so, and he had advised her "that she was as much a voter as he or any man." He made three points in his argument: that Miss Anthony was legally entitled to vote; that if she believed she was, and voted in that belief, she was not guilty of a criminal offence; that she did believe it, and voted in good faith. Judge Hunt disposed of all this under the rulings in the Bradwell case. The right of voting is a right created by the State, and not by the Federal Constitution. The Fourteenth Amendment does not touch it, except to prohibit the denial of it on certain grounds, of which sex is not one, and the constitution of this State disqualifies women for voting. He also ruled, as might have been expected, that ignorance is no excuse for violating the law, and, as there was no dispute about the facts, directed a verdict of guilty, and sentenced Miss Anthony to a fine of $100, but, unfeeling man that he is, refused to commit her till she paid it. So she is left out in the cold, instead of enjoying martyrdom in jail. The opinion that the Fourteenth Amendment gave women the right to vote was originally propounded by Victoria C. Woodhull, though no credit for it has been given to that eminent jurist in any of the recent arguments. It must be clear to the friends of woman's suffrage now that there is nothing in it, that they had better give up reliance on quirks and technicalities, and devote themselves to working on public opinion. The change they seek is too momentous for them to hope that, even if made, it could long stand, if it were wrought by anything short of deliberate popular consent.

The "science of politics" is apparently getting into rather a foggy condition among some of our contemporaries. A few weeks ago, the *Tribune* denounced the French Assembly as "seditious" because of its opposition to M. Thiers, whom the *Tribune* apparently considered the rightful ruler of France, although it was the Assembly which not only created his office, but put him into it. We were considering how the Assembly could under the circumstances be "seditious," and were hunting the books in vain for a definition of this term which would cover the case, when *Harper's Weekly* plunged us into fresh perplexity by denouncing Marshal MacMahon, whom the Assembly had just appointed to succeed M. Thiers, who had resigned, as a "usurper." We were about to consider under what theory of government this could be, when reading a little further we found, if we rightly understand our contemporary, that the person entitled to supreme power in France to-day is Gambetta, and that he would be justified, if he got a chance, in chastising "the vain, hot-headed, unlearned, and impetuous MacMahon." It appears, too, that Castelar has something to do with the government of France, as a kind of partner of Gambetta, and, in short, the government of France is, as thus described, a perfect puzzle. Who is rebel and who is sovereign it would be hard to say.

The London *Economist*, which is, above all things, a sober and perspicacious paper, spoke last week of the exceeding difficulty, not to say impossibility, of getting at the state of opinion on political subjects among the French people, and the danger, therefore, of arguing from elections that either the Radical or Conservative cause is winning the popular heart. This danger we have ourselves frequently pointed out. There is something positively rattle-brained in talking of elections in the Departments as indications of the drift of popular sentiment, in the same sense and to the same degree as the State or town elections in this country. In France, seventy-five per cent. of the Departmental members are returned

through the favor and support of the local authorities, a fact which accounts for the indignation of the Right with M. Thiers after the late Radical triumphs; and this indignation, under the rules of French party politics, was perfectly justifiable. He retained in office a large number of Radical prefects and other functionaries, and allowed them to "work" for Radical candidates, and with the usual result. The Right determined then that there was nothing for it but to put the wires into the hands of one of their own men, and they now undertake to produce within the next year or two a marked desire for a king on the part of the French people. MacMahon is therefore making a clean sweep in the offices. Every prefect or sub-prefect tainted with Radical leanings is being dismissed. The maires cannot be got at, as all, except those of some of the large cities, are elective, and this will prevent the working of the machine from being nearly as effective as it was under the Empire, but still it will work. Some of the members of the Right are desirous of having the old system of appointing the maires restored, but this will hardly be attempted, and to the plan of restricting the suffrage entertained by others MacMahon is said to be resolutely opposed. But this much is certain, that within a few months, when things have been put in order, we shall see the Right fully as anxious for a dissolution as Gambetta, if not more so. The result may disappoint them, but their confidence in the old plan of manipulation is, like that of all other French parties, unshaken. One of the discreditable and symptomatic consequences of MacMahon's accession to power is the sudden collapse of the Radical orators and journalists. Two months ago their virulence was unbounded; now they are as calm as sages, and rely on pure reason, and cling to "legality" with the most touching fervor. The clink of the Marshal's sabre is evidently too much for them.

The visit of the Shah to Western Europe has a good deal of political importance, at least to Russia and England. The position of his territory in relation to British India has always made it a matter of considerable importance to Great Britain to keep him in the proper mood towards herself; and ever since the beginning of the century she has worked hard for influence at the Persian Court. The earliest diplomatic successes of the East India Company were obtained in overthrowing Napoleon's envoys at Teheran, and ever since then a desperate game of mingled brag and finesse has been going on in the same field between England and Russia, beginning in good earnest with the siege of Herat in 1838, when Russian officers were in the Persian camp aiding in the attack, and an Englishman inside directing the defence. Since then the British have pushed up to the Persian frontier rapidly from the south, while the Russians have made their way as rapidly, and with heavy loss to Persia, from the north. All that can be done by the rivals to impress the Shah's imagination in the East has been done, however, and now they are at their wit's ends to devise means of making an impression on him at home. It is conceded in London that nothing can be done in England to compete with the Russian military reviews, so the most is being made of the navy, of the bigness of London, and of the extent of British industry. The English game is likely to be helped somewhat by the Shah's tastes, which are said to be very pacific; but then there is, as some of the English papers confess ruefully, no way of concealing the fact from him that the Russian battalions can get at him in his capital, while the English fleet cannot.

M. Lesseps, who has lived not only to see the Suez Canal succeed, but to see the English, who opposed its construction most violently, use it more than any other people, is now busy with another enterprise of still greater magnitude—nothing less than the connection of the railway system of British India with the railway system of Russian Tartary; that is to say, he proposes to extend the Russian line from Orenburg to Samarcand, a distance of 1,500 miles, and the British line from Peshawur to Samarcand, a distance of 850 miles; or, in other words, to construct 2,350 miles, which, when finished, would bring Calais into unbroken communication with Calcutta. The length of the entire line between the two places would be about 7,500 miles, which M. Lesseps calculates could be traversed in one week. Now, the distance from here to San Francisco is 3,300 miles, and the journey takes a full week, at about twenty miles an hour. To make the journey to Calcutta in the time set down by M. Lesseps would therefore require forty miles an hour, and this through the wildest country and the most trying climate on the globe, which is not to be thought of. He calculates the preliminary expenses at $600,000, and the time required for surveys at two years. We may add that the surveys would furnish everybody fond of adventure plenty of it, and the climate, in which the thermometer sometimes rises from near zero to 99° in twenty-four hours, would try the finest constitution. But that the scheme is a grand one there is no doubt, and it is feasible enough if the English and Russian Governments can be got to agree about it. General Ignatieff, the Russian Minister at Constantinople, has given it his heartiest approval. M. Lesseps asks the Russian Government to guarantee him the preliminary expenses, and say on what terms a company can be organized. The completion of the work would doubtless settle the dispute between Russia and England, but it would settle it by making the Hindu-Koosh the Russian frontier, for which England is not yet prepared; besides which, the English plan of connecting India by railroad with London is the long-standing and much-agitated Euphrates Valley plan, which M. Lesseps' proposal may stimulate Great Britain into carrying out. The expense of guarding the Lesseps line from the Turkomans would at first be enormous, but they would gradually be brought to accept it.

The accounts of the Khivan expedition which have thus far found their way into the European papers have been very confused, and all but incomprehensible, but there now appears to be little doubt that the two principal columns out of the five, one under the immediate orders of the Commander-in-chief of the expedition, General Kauffman, effected a junction at Shurrakan. Kauffman came across from Djizak, about fifty miles northeast of Samarcand, starting on the 15th of March, and skirting the confines of Bokhara on his way, and receiving, it is said, supplies from the Khan, who is badly frightened. Reaching Khalata, he waited for another column, which came down from the north by the Bukan Hills, and the two, whose united forces were 5,000 strong, are supposed to have effected a junction about the middle of May, and to have then marched along the right bank of the Amu down towards Khiva, and crossed at Shurrakan. The latest news by Cable is to the effect that they had taken Hasarasp, a stronghold on the left bank of the Amu, distant less than forty miles from Khiva. Another column advancing along the western shore of the Sea of Aral, and striking through the Ust-Urt, is said to have received the submission and support of Isset Kutebaroff, the famous chief of the Chaudor Turkomans, and is to meet another column under the command of Colonel Lomakine, coming down along the eastern shore, at Urgu, the southern end of the Sea, and then push on together along the left bank of the Amu. Still another column was to start from Tjakishlar on the Caspian, near the mouth of the Atreck. This one was to follow the route described by Vámbéry as the "middle route," which he traversed himself, first north along the shore of the Sea, and then northeast between the Great and Little Balkan. This one was expected to reach Khiva sooner than any, but there is as yet no news of it. It will thus be seen that the Khan has probably been having a lively spring, and must have had difficulty in knowing which way to turn. The ease with which the various columns, which are said to amount in all to 14,000 fighting men, with seventy guns, are making their way as compared with previous expeditions, and particularly that of Perovski, which perished in the desert in 1838, is said to be due to two important contributions recently made by science to the art of war. One is the pipe-pump, an American invention, first used for military purposes by the British in the Abyssinian war, and which enables an army to draw water from the desert anywhere by a few hours' boring. The other is preserved meats, and other concentrated food, which enables a column to dispense with a large portion of the baggage-train.

BUTLER AND THE REPUBLICAN PARTY.

THE triumph of Mr. B. F. Butler in securing the appointment of Mr. Sanger, his candidate for the District-Attorneyship in Boston, inasmuch as it indicates that he will have the support of the Administration in his struggle for the governorship, is taken by many as conclusive proof that he will get the Republican nomination. Whether he will be elected is a matter on which there are of course two opinions; and it is a matter, let us add, of subordinate importance. If he gets the nomination of the Republican Convention, the event will have a good deal of significance for the whole country; his election, after getting it, would be something which, in the main, would concern Massachusetts only. But it is not yet admitted, by any means, by the shrewd observers in the State that he will get the nomination. The Boston *Journal*, which is a very sound authority on Massachusetts politics, is sure he will not, but the weight of its opinion is somewhat lessened by its belief that Butler was "decisively routed" at the Convention two years ago. That he was not "*decisively* routed" is proved by his reappearance in the same rôle this year, and it must also be said that few lookers-on could see how his defeat could be called a "rout" at all, considering how large a proportion of the Convention voted for him, how respectable was the constituency in which he made his attempt, and how thoroughly disreputable he had become before he made it. He was only defeated, after a canvass of extraordinary mendacity and violence, in a convention representing the Republican party at its very best, by 607 to 460, and this could hardly be looked on by such a man as he as a disaster.

Since then some things have turned in his favor. People have got used to the contemplation of him as a candidate for the governorship, and have grown a little tired of hearing him denounced and held up as a warning example. Moreover, his persistence and energy have naturally made a good many converts for him among those who are not burdened with much love of principle, and respect pluck and success a good deal more than character. Besides this, he has steadily grown in favor with the Administration. In the last session of Congress, he was instrumental in securing for the President a large and doubtless welcome increase of salary, and he unquestionably gained somewhat morally by the damage done to the more respectable Republican leaders by the Crédit Mobilier affair. He managed, too, to secure a hold on Mr. Boutwell by giving him the use of his machinery in procuring his election to the Senate. In fact, the mere continuance of such a man on the stage and in the public eye without apparent loss of hope or activity, is a sort of triumph. Then, too, "politics" have, in a certain sense, been growing up to him. He does not appear so eminent in badness as he did five years ago. Corruption has deepened since then, and corruptionists multiplied, and the money standard, which he makes no secret of using, has come into more general acceptance among politicians.

But then, on the other hand, the spirit of reform has sprung up, and developed a strength and activity unknown when he came back from the war. The memory of his services during the war, too, has grown fainter, and the popular gratitude for such services has become, as might have been expected, dulled by time and the rise of other objects of attention. No more striking evidence of the change could be afforded than the article on him in the *Tribune* the other day. No fiercer denunciation of him, and no more remorseless description of his typical character, as the personification of the coarse greed, the impudent dishonesty, the outspoken disbelief in good motives so prevalent among his contemporaries, has ever appeared anywhere. It says all the *Nation* said six years ago, but more strongly and vividly; but six years ago not a word of it could have found admission either into the *Tribune* or any other paper which supported the war. So that, though the world "inside politics" grows worse, the world outside certainly grows better, and Butler and his kind suffer accordingly.

If, therefore, he should be nominated, and even if he should be elected, we believe it will, as the Chicago *Tribune* has suggested serve the purpose of bringing the Republican party to shoulder fairly the responsibility of existing demoralization. Butler represents nearly everything which popular sentiment at this moment most strongly condemns. He was the prime mover in "the salary grab," on which popular indignation has so strongly fastened, and he is perhaps the foremost living master of the arts of "wire-pulling" and "manipulation," to which there is an almost unanimous inclination to ascribe all the evils of our politics, and which nearly all reformers begin or end by denouncing. He has grown in influence and, let us add, in audacity as the party has declined in moral weight, and as the material influences of the day have penetrated it. It has of late abandoned all pretence of serving any other purpose than of keeping the Democrats out of power, and for that particular business he is just as effective as anybody. Moreover, that disregard of law for which it has made itself remarkable, and in which many of its leading men have indulged, creates an atmosphere in which men of the Butler temper and habits thrive. He is the very embodiment of unscrupulousness, and has found himself carried up to influence by the growing respect for that quality, combined with the growing respect for money. In fact, all the tendencies which have shown themselves most markedly in the Republican party during the last few years have contributed in one way or another to his success. He is a finished Republican politician, the very flower of that *noblesse* which it has been busy ever since the war in producing, and which it is now trying to perpetuate, as a model for young men. The selection of him by the Administration, therefore, as its principal friend and agent in Congress, and in New England, is probably as marked an expression of disregard for the strongest tendency of public opinion as could have been made. If it should be followed by the selection of him for the governorship by a body which stands for the Republican party in a manner so distinctive and peculiar as a Massachusetts State Convention, we should have an end at last of the plan of "reform within the party" which has of late been used so freely to stop reform altogether. It would be no longer possible to throw the blame of abuses on bad individuals, or make high-sounding platforms take the place of real purification. In short, we should at last get hold of somebody who was answerable for the prevailing demoralization. At present this is impossible. As long as the party did not select an arch-rascal for high office, or formally approve of some outrageous piece of fraud or corruption, it has been hitherto impossible to bring it to book, or satisfy its friends that it had outlived its usefulness. If the Massachusetts Republicans should, however, swallow the morsel the Administration offers them, in the person of Butler, a great cloud will be lifted off the public mind, and the nation will at last have a clear idea of what it must do to be saved.

TRIAL BY JURY.

IF there be one institution which has done more than all others in protecting the individual rights and liberties of our Anglo-Saxon race, and in what is pretty nearly the same thing, maintaining the integrity of the "Anglo-Saxon judge," it is most certainly "trial by jury." The mediæval statesmanship which wrote down a safeguard for society at large in *Magna Charta* when it secured the right of representation, was not less profoundly wise when it placed beside this a safeguard for the individual man in the assurance that he should be deprived of life or property only through a verdict of his peers. Indeed, it is not easy to see how without both of these twin safeguards—the one affecting us legislatively, and relating to the mass; the other affecting us judicially, and relating to the individual—our civilization in America and England could be what it is to-day. The two, though apparently disconnected, are in fact component elements of one system—a system which covers generalities and particulars—providing, on the one hand, for the whole of society's rights and liberties; and, on the other, for the rights and liberties of society's smallest parts. The French parliaments of the Bourbons would not have fallen short of what our sense of civil

liberty requires more completely than the French judicial system; and if there are any instances in which more than in others our legislative and judicial systems, when they go astray, grate upon the public conscience or our common instinct of what is just and proper, it is when courts and juries strain the law to meet a particular case, or parliaments and congresses set themselves to administering individual justice. It will some day be more clearly perceived than it is now, that the unconscious philosophy of the Anglo-Saxon race determines that both the making of the law and its final application to the affairs of men shall be confided not to an order or a class or a profession, but to reputable members of society, who in the one case are our chosen representatives in legislative assemblies, and, in the other, our selected jurors in courts of justice.

In this country, we have not had many notable examples of the value of the jury as an agent for maintaining civil liberty. But if any man can doubt it, he has only to glance back a century at the magnificent battles which Erskine fought against the crown, and contrast the stubborn sense of right in the jury-box with the conduct of even great judges like Mansfield and Buller. If they and their predecessors before them had been invested with the absolute power and not less absolute discretion of a French tribunal, where would be the most valuable half of what we now call liberty? The bench, as we term it, the judges' work of our judicial system, is comparatively nothing so long as the solemn fiat, "*Guilty*," "*Not guilty*," "*We find for the plaintiff*," "*We find for the defendant*," can be pronounced only from the jury-box.

Moreover, in this small portion of the earth, the city of New York—a mere speck of the territory which the Anglo-Saxon race controls—though we have had only two or perhaps three judges whom society believed to be corrupt, yet how immense was the disturbance in our social currents here and elsewhere which these three men caused! Their injustice, wrongs, and judicial robbery, how absolutely ruinous were they becoming to our material and moral welfare alike! Yet their power to work mischief was substantially all on the outside of the jury-box. With twelve intelligent, upright men in the box who knew the difference between right and wrong, and were not altogether ignorant of the character of the presiding judge, any man, either as to his liberty or his property, might deem himself substantially safe so far as the trial went. From Bacon to Barnard, from Lord Chancellor Macclesfield to Ex-Justice Cardozo, the peculations of judges will be found to have been on the equity side of the courts. The Ohio and Kansas and Louisiana judges whose impeachments are likely to come before Congress, did not make their money or abuse their official power through the intervention of the jury system. Whatever its abuses or defects, it has proved a prop to hold up the integrity of the judiciary; and to abandon it because of abuses or defects in this day when so many debasing influences are assailing the administration of government, would be as wild as to abandon a representative form of government because the modern Congressman is shameless and ignorant, and has power to make a "back-salary grab."

Nevertheless, the last year witnessed a decided movement in both England and America against, to say the least, the form of the jury system. And now Earl Russell has proposed a similar change for Ireland. So far as form goes, it makes little difference to philosophers, but to the common mind form and substance are often pretty closely connected. The verdict of nine men may be as good as the verdict of any other number, but it will take a generation at least before men will attach to a verdict of nine the sense of finality which they have been taught to accord for generations, and indeed for centuries, to the unanimous verdict of twelve men. The tendency of the present day is not to attach too much importance to verdicts, but too little. It too often happens that society proceeds to retry the convicted criminal, and find extenuating circumstances and interpose doubts of its own, and amiable motives of the prisoner, and finally readmit him to intercourse with respectable men, as though he had never been found guilty by anybody whose decision was entitled to the slightest consideration. The arguments, too, in favor of a change have gone further than form, and are often attacks upon the system itself; and the tendency of the time being to sacrifice everything which seems slow or inconvenient, the jury system, always involving considerable personal inconvenience to somebody, and often seeming to stand in the way of a direct result, may now be in greater danger of being first broken in pieces, and then cast away, than is generally supposed.

It might be inferred from the similarity of the changes proposed on both sides of the Atlantic, and the identity of the time in which they are brought forward, that they are the result of a common discontent. On the contrary, they spring from almost opposite causes. The motive of Sir John Coleridge was simply to lessen the labors of the English juryman. Of erring verdicts and sentimental acquittals and divided juries, he had no complaint to make. They did their work well, but were required to do it too often. Some cases should not be imposed upon them, for such could be better disposed of by an accountant or a board of engineers. In others, the jury was a mere form; for the questions were questions of law, and the jury was detained for hours or days to render at last a verdict directed by the court. The old number of twelve too soon exhausted the jury-lists, and too frequently compelled the juror to lay aside his own affairs and come into court to dispose of other men's. All of the Attorney-General's arguments tended to the conservation of the jury-system, and to freeing it from needless abuses. With Earl Russell the motive is different, and, like the Bar Association of this city, he in effect declares that the old instrumentality stands in the way of the administration of justice. Can it be that in America and Ireland society is too demoralized to be entrusted with the right of trial by jury, and that we must resort to a modified form of it, or fall further back upon Government commissions or courts-martial? Trial by jury is an institution of the Anglo-Saxon race—a race which more than any other that exists excels in the elements of self-government, self-sacrifice, and self-control. In the form in which it has always stood, it throws upon every juror a direct, personal responsibility, which cannot be shaken off or evaded, be the verdict guilty or not guilty, for the plaintiff or for the defendant. There can be no subterfuges, no shifting the responsibility upon the other nine men's shoulders, and the verdict is not only the work of all, but essentially the work of each. Such a system could only be the product of a moral community, that is, of a community intent on justice and right, and able to furnish the jury-box with men of sufficient moral nature to lay aside personal ends and prejudices, and refrain from using their individual power on the jury to defeat a verdict. A community which does not love justice and bow to law, and which cannot furnish from its ranks jurors who can act for the common weal against the prejudices, or wishes, or sympathies of their own mind, cannot maintain trial by jury; and any step which tends toward an evasion of the juror's responsibility, or toward a panel of men unfit for jurors' duty, is simply a step towards giving the system up. The jury system is essentially a part of our system of self-government—that is, of government conducted by society through its representatives, instead of by ordained rules theoretically and practically placed above society to restrain it. And the Latin and Celtic and all other races which act generally upon impulses or sympathies or prejudices, are as unfit for the task of bringing in a verdict as for that of managing a state. Is it possible that the large admixture of these races in our society, particularly in our great cities, has unfitted us for ruling ourselves, and that the jury system is but an index pointing to the general decadence?

The point around which all the arguments against the jury system revolve is that of unanimity; and it is asked whether the truth is any more the truth for being declared by twelve men than by nine, and hinted that the requirement of twelve is nothing better than a bit of mediæval superstition. The men who established trial by jury along with the writ of habeas corpus, and the principle that society shall not be taxed without its own consent, were much too practical in their reforms to have been influenced by any such ab-

surdity. They knew as well as any reformer of the present day that a fact is neither more nor less for being declared such by twelve men than would be the answer to a sum in arithmetic. But they also believed that if a sum in arithmetic were given to twelve men, there would be no valid reason why nine of them should return one answer and three should return another. The theory of the system is that, if a suit be brought by the Government to take away a man's life or liberty, or by his neighbor to take away his money or land, the facts should be so well established beyond all reasonable doubt that the jurors will consent to them, whether the jury consisted of one man or a dozen. If the facts be not established so that any honest, intelligent man can recognize them, then they are not established at all, and it were better that nine guilty men should escape, and the land or the money remain where the plaintiff found them, than that life, liberty, and property should be handed over to a lottery of numbers.

As to the intrinsic merits of trial by jury, no one can deny that it has imperfections any more than he can question whether it be human. At this time and in this country, it is also undeniable that it has degenerated, and that it neither commands the confidence nor does the work that it once did. But these objections will hold against every other instrumentality of government, and they spring from the same abandonment of the duties of citizenship which has allowed the government to pass from the hands of the respectable classes to those of the ignorant and professional politician. We have heard a lawyer speak of the jury system as a third "relic" of barbarism which should have been swept away with slavery and polygamy; but we have heard more eminent members of his profession declare as the result of their maturer judgments, that the verdicts of juries were generally right, and that while men remember the units of those that were extraordinary, they forget the hundreds that are sensible and just. We have heard it asserted that a much larger proportion of referees' findings than of juries' verdicts are against the weight of evidence, and we know that some judges who have had a large experience in determining the facts, believe that when a judge acts as both judge and juror, he insensibly falls into the way of bolstering up his law with his facts, and of patching out his facts with his law. The jury system is indeed one of those checks and balances with which our system of government abounds. It prevents the utter abandonment of the administration of justice, civil and criminal, to a small set of professional men, holding office for long periods and often for life, and it not only circumscribes and defines their power, but it subjects them to the constant criticism of impartial citizens as no other system can. The parties who come before a judge are interested in his decision; the witnesses are more or less flustered by their own part in the proceedings; but the intelligent juror who sits through a trial can generally go home able to give his neighbors a pretty accurate estimate of the merits of the judge.

But let it not be supposed that a dozen ignorant, superstitious, unprincipled men can be made wise and virtuous by the necromancy of being pushed into a jury-box and sworn to render a true verdict according to the evidence, any more than a government confided to cut-throats can be made to promote the interests of mankind by the simple expedient of labelling it a republic. The excellence of trial by jury depends upon the same condition as the excellence of free government—the voluntary sacrifices of all intelligent citizens in the scrupulous discharge of all the duties of citizenship. If the idea continue that the whole duty of man in America is to make money, and his only sacrifice for his country is the paying of exorbitant taxes, then we must sooner or later hand ourselves over to a set of governmental guardians, and it will make little difference whether they be styled kings and emperors and hereditary nobility, or bosses and rings and professional politicians.

FRANCE.—AFTER THE REVOLUTION.

PARIS, June 6, 1873.

THE sudden fall of M. Thiers is one of those dramatic incidents which compose the never-ending history of the French Revolution. So long as the monarchical parties could not compound their differences, it was thought that he could not be removed from office. He was tied to it by the Rivet Constitution, which, theoretically, made his life as long as the life of the Assembly. The whole world was looking with curiosity on the old statesman who led all parties behind him, and who practised all the arts of political coquetry. At the beginning of the session, the *Times* wrote these lines: "Call it monarchy, call it republic, do what you like about a Vice-President, a Second Chamber, or any other constitutional contrivance; so long as M. Thiers lives, all will resolve itself into a government of M. Thiers." The personal government of M. Thiers is, however, come to an end; the "little giant" fell in an instant, without any noise, and it seems almost wonderful now that he could so long have filled France and Europe with the sentiment of his invincibility and his necessity.

France is more quiet now than she has ever been; none of the southern volcanoes—Lyons, Marseilles, Toulouse—has emitted even a single flame. Where are the electors of Barodet? They work quietly in their ateliers; they stop at the photographers' windows on their way home, and, instead of the grim and satirical face of M. Thiers, they study the enigmatic head of MacMahon, with his small, white moustache, and his placid expression. They know that this placid face can sometimes become terribly stern. The legend of MacMahon (for, in his case, history has already become a legend) speaks to the imagination of the people. "Ah!" said once Thiers to some of his friends, "if I only had red trowsers!" MacMahon entered Constantine, on the day of the assault, as a young lieutenant, one of the first. He conducted the column of attack on the Malakoff Tower, and, once in, he remained. Pélissier sent word to him that the bastion was said to be mined. He answered him thus: "J'y suis, j'y resterai"—"I am here, and will remain here." At Magenta, when the Emperor and his guard were on the point of being surrounded and made prisoners, the guns of MacMahon were heard. He had come without orders, and he turned a defeat into a victory. We find him again at Woerth, fighting with one corps against three German corps for a whole day, when he retreated to Châlons; and at Sedan, which was the last station of this way of Calvary, he was spared by fate—a shell struck him, and he could take no part in the last actions which preceded the capitulation. On his return from captivity, he found Paris in the hands of the Commune. He took it, street by street; his army saved the Louvre and its treasures; ever since, he has been living quietly at Versailles, organizing his new army, and almost every day spending a few hours at the Assembly. How often have I watched him there, always sitting in the second row of his box, behind some aide-de-camp, and looking silently on the great sea of politics.

How is it that a secret force has suddenly brought all the Conservative forces to act in his favor? What does he represent? Who is he? What does he mean? In times of great civic troubles, orators, politicians, statesmen are soon worn out; and it always happens that there rises at the end some enigmatic man, who never spoke when everybody spoke, who made engagements with nobody, who never made any promises. MacMahon is this man; his strength lies in this: he is not understood, he has not been fathomed. Some will tell you that, born of a race of princes who once wore a crown in Ireland, he has an unlimited ambition; that he considers the old dynasties of France as worn out, and that he believes that monarchical France needs a new dynasty; some, that he shares the Legitimist feelings of his wife, who is a Castries, and that he will never be satisfied so long as Henri V. is not on the throne. Others will tell you that he has never forgotten the personal kindness of Napoleon III., who made him Duke of Magenta, and that the divisions of the Bourbons and the Orléans fill him with disgust; that he means to be some day the protector of Napoleon IV.; that he hates, above all, the men who made a revolution in Paris when the Prussians were on the French soil. But who knows really? MacMahon never kissed the Blarney-stone; he keeps his own counsel, and has no advisers nor confidants.

In the crisis of fear, when the Commune in the shape of Rane made its appearance in the Chamber, all eyes turned to MacMahon. M. Thiers, blinded by his vanity, would never believe that the Conservatives could be afraid so long as he was in power. He might have saved himself by a few words, but he would never pronounce them. He had so often seen the Chamber rise and then subside, that he could not understand that this time the majority was in earnest. He not only misunderstood the temper of the House, but he did not see that the honor of France had been wounded by the election of Rane. The men who had shot innocent hostages, and killed French generals and priests, while the Prussians were at Saint-Denis, no longer concealed their projects. They said openly that they used M. Thiers as an instrument; he was the horse who should take them up-hill; once on the plain, they would unharness him and take new post-horses. This was openly said a fortnight ago; not only the Communists, but the Radicals

were laughing at M. Thiers's definitions of a Conservative Republic. In the elections, they came before the peasants, and bade them "Vote for us, for we are the supporters of M. Thiers," and the Conservative peasants gave their votes to Radical candidates. The prefects did not dare to denounce these false friends, or else helped them in their canvass, as they thought the Radicals would soon be in power. It had become a byword to say that France was drifting into Radicalism. All this time, M. Thiers was hand-in-glove with all the deputies of the Left, and between his so-called Conservative Republic and the Republic of Rane it was impossible to draw the line. Every electric shock felt at Belleville was felt at the Presidency. The country, and even the deputies of the majority, were slow to understand this dangerous state of things; the eloquence of M. Thiers threw a veil between the reality and public opinion; but the veil was torn by the last elections, and it was felt that the battle had better be fought at once.

The plan of campaign was simple. The Duc de Broglie, in the name of the majority, asked the Government how it was that Radicalism was in the ascendant in the Conservative Republic, and he showed, in eloquent language, the deep connection between Radicalism and the Commune. On the 24th of May, M. Thiers ascended the tribune for the last time as President. He returned to the Presidency, and nobody answered his long speech, which was a long apotheosis of himself. When the vote was taken, M. Thiers was lying alone on a sofa; he received the news by telegraph, as there is a wire between the Palace of the Chamber and the Presidency. So little did he expect the result, that, a few moments before, a telegram had been sent to the eighty-six prefects, thus worded, "Great speech of the President; received with applause; Government feels confident of the majority." M. Thiers thought that the Chamber would perhaps refuse his resignation; he sent it, but it was accepted by a majority of thirty. It was all over; the idea of remaining in power against the will of the majority had never entered his head. He was essentially a parliamentary gladiator, not a Cromwell nor a Bonaparte. What was he without a Chamber, where he could play with human opinions, passions, and feelings? He understood at once that his successor was chosen, even before he had spoken, and that the Chamber was tired of him. He tried, however, to disappoint it once more; he sent for MacMahon, while the urns were going round in the Chamber, and told the old soldier that France would be convulsed with civil war at the news of his defeat; that Germany would take advantage of the new situation. MacMahon was much moved, but said little. He came back to his own house, where the President of the Chamber already waited for him, in order to announce to him his nomination. MacMahon, standing before his mantelpiece, and looking very red, several times said, "No, no; he says that I cannot." "Marshal," said M. Buffet, "it is too late now. You promised us once to do whatever the Chamber should ask you to do. It is your duty to accept." The Marshal accepted.

All this time the Chamber was sitting. It was nearly midnight. Everybody felt that an immediate solution was necessary. The next day was Sunday; and if the power was still in abeyance, if there was no executive, a hundred thousand men would have *manifested* on the boulevards, and a revolution was imminent. As soon as MacMahon had sent in his acceptance, the deputies rushed back to Paris; it is said that as many as a hundred deputies of the Left did not sleep in their own beds. The terror of the journalists of the Left was almost ridiculous; they believed that MacMahon would make a sort of 9th Thermidor, arrest all the leading Republicans, and suppress all their newspapers. Nothing of the kind has happened yet; Paris is quietly enjoying the first fine days of the season. The Radical newspapers are acting like the spring, which comes in like a lion and goes out like a lamb. A sort of era of peace, of good feeling, has begun. The tide which was running in one direction is running now in another. The phantoms of the Commune, of the Red Republic, have vanished out of sight. "Viso milite quies," says Tacitus, in his energetic way. It would be useless to deny it; the Republic, as it happens invariably in France, has again fallen into the hands of a soldier, without any violence this time, without any *coup d'état*, by the legal and regular action of the parliamentary forces. The country seems to breathe more freely; a new page of history has been turned. Our fingers have left the torn page, spotted with blood and ink, rubbed by dirty hands; there is the white, virgin page—what are we to write on it? We don't know yet. The elastic character of the French people does not keep impressions long; it seems already an age since Thiers was in power, ever talking, ever active, irrepressible, ubiquitous. He is forgotten. His habitual courtiers were the very men who hurled him down from his high place. He went to sleep a great man, and he awoke a *brouillon*. Nobody seems to think of the future; "à chaque jour suffit sa peine." The old monarchical instincts of France have triumphed again; if we cannot have a king, let us at least have a marshal; let his *bâton* take the place of a sceptre.

Notes.

J. R. OSGOOD & CO. have collected in a neat volume, as a memorial of the late Stuart Mill, twelve sketches of his life and works by W. T. Thornton, Herbert Spencer, J. E. Cairnes, Henry Fawcett, Frederic Harrison, and other eminent English writers.——We have received from D. Appleton & Co. their 'American Annual Cyclopædia' for 1872. Those who have most occasion to use this work need not be told that it lacks the accuracy and authority of the cyclopædia which it supplements, and indeed that it is edited on totally different principles. For example, the review of literature during the past year is taken bodily (with due acknowledgment) from the *Athenæum's* summary—the work of many writers, whose names are here omitted. We observe in it a few errors not likely to have been made in the original, and infer the presence of others due to a too faithful copying. In short, this annual is a sort of cyclopædic scrap-book, chiefly valuable for the documents which it reproduces in full. Portraits of Greeley, Morse, and Alex. Stephens are bound up with the volume.——The sale of the Perkins library took place, just out of London, June 3–6, and will long be famous, not only for the aggregate amount realized (£25,743 for 865 lots), but for the prices fetched by the choicer books, and especially by the vellum copy of the Mazarin Bible (£3,400, equal to $21,400 in our currency) and the paper copy of the same (£2,690). The Shakespeare first folio brought only £585; Lydgate's 'Siege of Troy' (MS.) £1,300.——Harper & Brothers announce 'Court and Social Life in France under Napoleon.'——Max Müller's 'Introduction to the Science of Religion,' together with his two essays on False Analogies and the Philosophy of Mythology, will be published by Scribner, Armstrong, & Co.——'The Philosophy of Evolution,' by B. Thompson Lowne, is announced by D. Appleton & Co.——Roberts Bros. have in press 'Mokeanna,' by F. S. Burnand.——The proprietors of the New York Directory have purchased the premises No. 11 University Place, corner of Clinton Place, and state in their preface to the Directory for the present year that "among the conveniences of the new office it is proposed to add a complete library of directories, which will contain not only the entire series of the eighty-seven volumes of the New York Directories, but those of all the principal towns and cities of the United States, as well as of many European cities"; and they justly add that "this will be a library of unique character, and of great convenience for reference."

—Some of the prominent Oriental scholars of Paris, MM. de Rosny, Foucaux, Hovelacque, Oppert, and others, have organized an "International Congress of Orientalists," which shall hold a meeting each year in one of the capital cities of Europe. This year's meeting is in Paris, on the 22d of July, and is expected to last a week. The first four days are to be occupied with the discussion of questions relative to Japan—its language, literature, institutions, industry, political condition and prospects, and relations to foreign countries; after that, other Oriental subjects will be in order. The intention is to put forward each year one department of study, or one country, for especial treatment, while at the same time giving opportunity for everything that may be offered. All scholars, of every country, and all persons interested in the objects of the Congress and desirous to forward them, are invited to join the organization. The annual membership fee is only 12 francs; and for this is to be returned the volume of proceedings and papers which will be published after each meeting. The "National Committee of Organization" desire to add to their list of subscribing members as many American names as possible. These may be sent, with the first year's fee, to M. J. Duchateau, the treasurer, at No. 43 Rue Monsieur-le Prince, Paris; or to Prof. W. D. Whitney, of New Haven, who has been authorized to act as correspondent of the organization in this country.

—A correspondent reminds us that in the memorable field-day of the Social Science Association at Boston last month, President Eliot gave a clear though brief account of the work which Harvard College, following the lead of the English universities, is doing in aid of young women desirous of a better education. In the state of excitement into which the more inflammatory scientific ladies and gentlemen were thrown on that occasion, an explanation as clear as crystal and as long as the longitude would have stood no chance of being once looked at, and Mr. Eliot's brief remarks received not a moment's consideration. If we recollect right, not so much as an allusion to them was made in all the subsequent proceedings, and the newspapers, naturally enough, were so much taken up with Mrs. Howe and Mr. Phillips, and the flurry which they caused, *cujus et maxima pars fuerunt*, that they also neglected the subject. Some of them, to be sure, had already set forth the proposed scheme in their columns; but it cannot be too fully mentioned whenever proper occasion is given for bringing it to the notice of those whom it is intended to benefit, and we gladly comply with a request to assist in making public its details: In the last half of next

June, and annually after that date, there will be two examinations, held by examiners authorized by the Harvard Faculty, at which young women who have reached the age of seventeen years may present themselves for examination in various studies, and from which they may bring away, in token of their proficiency, a certificate which will be of the same kind of value as the diploma given to young men at the end of the college course. The preliminary examination will embrace the following subjects: English, French, physical geography, either elementary botany or elementary physics, arithmetic, algebra through quadratic equations, plain geometry, history, and any one of the three languages, German, Latin, and Greek. The certificate will be of the form following: "A. B. has passed (passed with distinction) (passed with the highest distinction) the preliminary examination held at — on the — of —, 1874, under the direction of the Faculty of Harvard College, and is entitled to proceed to the advanced examination." This advanced examination will be divided into five sections, in one or more of which the candidate may present herself. The five are these: Languages, natural science, mathematics, history, philosophy. The young woman choosing to be examined in languages, for example, may offer herself for examination in any two of this following list: English, French, German, Italian, Latin, Greek. So of the candidate for a certificate of attainments in natural science; she may offer herself for examination in any two of the following subjects: Chemistry, physics, botany, mineralogy, geology. Our correspondent sends us a circular, informing us that the examinations which take place in Boston will be in charge of the Woman's Education Association, a body of which the secretary is Mrs. Charles G. Loring, whose residence is at No. 1 Mt. Vernon Place, Boston. From this lady may be obtained copies of the circular just mentioned, and of a little pamphlet, published at twenty-five cents a copy, which contains numerous specimens of examination papers, and which will give intending candidates a very clear notion of the kind of work expected of them. We hear that the fee for the preliminary examination and certificate will be fifteen dollars, and the fee for the advanced examination and certificate ten dollars. The association is prepared to provide board and lodging at a moderate cost for those candidates who need such accommodation, and persons of small means may, by stating their circumstances fully to the secretary, secure such assistance as they need. Notices of intention to apply for examination must be sent in before the 20th of next April, and there are various other necessary requirements, as to all of which information may be had by application to Mrs. Loring.

—Professor Gray, of Harvard, has just performed a labor of love by writing a brief account of the late Professor John Torrey and the late Mr. William Starling Sullivant, two distinguished American botanists with whom his relations had been close and long continued. The pamphlet is printed by Messrs. Welch, Bigelow & Co., of Cambridge, and its contents form a part of the annual report of the Council of the Academy of Arts and Sciences. The death and the services of Dr. Torrey we have already noted in these columns, but as we read the narratives before us, we noted one or two things worth attention. Of these one is a pregnant remark of Dr. Gray's on Dr. Torrey's preparation of his 'Flora of the Northern and Middle Sections of the United States,' the work in which he "first developed his remarkable aptitude for descriptive botany and for the kind of investigation and discrimination, the tact and acumen, which it calls for." "It was the fruit," says Dr. Gray, "of these few but precious years which, seasoned with pecuniary privation, are in this country not rarely vouchsafed to an investigator in which to prove his quality before he is haply overwhelmed with professional or professorial labors and duties." A little further on, Dr. Gray speaks of Dr. Torrey's numerous and valuable collections for the completion of this work, and says that "it remains to be seen whether his surviving associate of nearly forty years [Dr. Gray himself] will be able to complete the edifice. To do this will be to supply the most pressing want of the science, and to raise the fittest monument to Dr. Torrey's memory." To do this will also require money, and one must hope that some of our rich men or rich women, covetous of the graceful tribute which the botanist can confer of naming a new plant or tree after the benefactor of his science, may place the means of publication at the editor's disposal. Dr. Torrey had all his life been working intermittently at this 'Flora.' "Even at the last, when he rallied transiently from the fatal attack, he took in hand the manuscript of an elaborate report on the plants collected along our Pacific coast in Admiral Wilkes's celebrated expedition, which he had prepared fully a dozen years ago, and which, except as to the plates, remains still unpublished, through no fault of his." As for his habit of working at all seasons, Dr. Gray notes that "the ordinary duties of his office [that of United States Assayer] he fulfilled to the last with punctilious faithfulness, signing the last of his daily reports on the very day of his death, and telling his son and assistant that he need not bring him any more." It is gratifying to know that his labors were a pleasure. Returning from Florida with a "grievous cough allayed, he was rallied for having gone to seek Ponce de Leon's Fountain of Youth. 'No,' said he, 'give me the Fountain of Old Age. The longer I live, the more I enjoy life.'" Perhaps to him, as to a clever woman of our acquaintance, the two fountain sseemed one, and "old age" he regarded as a mere "invention and figment of youth."

—Mr. Lewis Tappan, who died in Brooklyn on Saturday, 21st instant, at the age of eighty-five, was a younger brother of the more famous Arthur Tappan, whose biography he wrote in 1871. They were associates in business and in the various philanthropic movements of their day, especially in the crusade against slavery, the one being mobbed in his store, the other (Lewis) in his home in Rose Street, in 1834. The latter's interest in the welfare of the colored people of the United States continued active to the close of his long life, as a member and former president of the American Missionary Association, whose chief work since the war has been the education of the freedmen of the South. Mr. Tappan had accumulated a large and valuable library of works relating to the anti-slavery struggle, and we believe he cherished the intention of bequeathing it to the New York Historical Society.

—It can now not be long before the Government Commission appointed for the purpose last spring will begin to review the labors of the three United States surveys of a route for an interoceanic ship-canal between the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The Tehuantepec and Colombian surveys are closed; the Nicaragua expedition is on its return. We know certainly that the choice of a route lies between the rivers Coatzacoalcos, San Juan, and Atrato, and probably it lies between the two latter. Commander Shufeldt's report on the Tehuantepec survey, submitted to the Forty-second Congress, and since printed with maps and illustrations, prescribes a canal 144 miles long, with 140 locks, along a route (river Coatzacoalcos) which offers "no natural obstacles to the construction of the canal which engineering and liberal capital cannot overcome." The amount of capital needed is not stated further than that the canal "will probably require *national* resources to build it." The summit level would be 732 feet above the ocean, and to feed the canal would involve three miles of tunnelling and some heavy cutting in a work twenty-seven miles long. After all, the stability of both the canal and its feeder would be subject to the liability of earthquakes, which are of constant occurrence in that region, and Commander Shufeldt is obliged to confess that, under the circumstances, the work "can only be deemed practicable to the extent of its political and commercial necessity, measured by the progress of the age." Northers and southers, too, of great violence, menace tribulation to ships in their passage across the Isthmus. And finally, the State of Oaxaca, through which the greater and more costly portion of the canal must run, "has been for years in a condition of revolution and internecine strife," the various factions agreeing only in their distrust and dislike of foreigners.

—Commander Selfridge, whose operations have for two successive seasons been carried on in the territory of the United States of Colombia, appears much more confident of success by his route. Give him $70,000,000, and he will construct a canal connecting Cupica Bay (on the Pacific) with the Atrato River (emptying into the Gulf of Darien) that shall be only twenty-eight miles long, and require only eight locks to the summit level—128 feet. This level could of course be had only by tunnelling. After twenty miles of easily constructed canal, with a rise of only eighty-eight feet, in the valleys of the Napipi and Doguado rivers, tributaries to the Atrato, there will be three miles of open rock-cuttings, and three of boring, the dimensions of which are imposing: 60 feet in width by 124 feet in height. There seems to be no trouble about the water-supply. The descent to the Pacific will be very precipitous—128 feet in 5,000, made by means of a dozen locks. The Atrato appears to be a fine river, every way suited for commerce and for sustaining a large population on its banks.

—In regard to procuring the necessary labor for works of this character, Commanders Shufeldt and Selfridge agree in looking to the Chinese coolies as their only dependence. The former, indeed, seems to hope that the canal would attract from the United States the negro emigration once dreamed of by President Lincoln, and pictures "this land, now so desolate and deserted, peopled by Chinese on the southern slope, and by negroes on the northern, teeming with the products of every climate, and enlivened by human industry from the Atlantic to the Pacific." But "the main body of laborers would probably have to come from China"; and the Isthmus holds out every inducement for them to come—plenty of land, cattle, and fish, a congenial climate, and a sparse native population. The Colombian canal might have some of the preliminary clearing done by the *libros* or free negroes of that country, but for the rest must be constructed by the coolies

already so extensively employed on railroads and other public works in South America. Commander Selfridge thinks a force of 30,000 of them would be needed.

OLD-FASHIONED ETHICS AND COMMON-SENSE METAPHYSICS.*

MR. FITZJAMES STEPHEN, in a note on Utilitarianism appended to his recent volume on Liberty, Fraternity, and Equality, points out an analogy, as he says "often overlooked," between the enquiry into the nature of the difference between right and wrong and kindred questions in the domain of physical science.

"Take, for instance, such words as 'heavy' and 'light,' 'up' and 'down,' 'wet' and 'dry.' No words can seem clearer, yet experience has shown that it is impossible to use them philosophically, or to get any but the most confused, unintelligible results from the attempt to throw them into systems, until they have been interpreted by certain broad, general principles, which show their true relation to each other. For instance, till it was proved that all bodies attract each other under certain conditions, and that the earth is a proximately spherical body, revolving in a certain course, it was impossible to use such words as 'up' and 'down,' 'heavy' and 'light,' in a really scientific manner. The utilitarian answer to the question, 'What is the difference between right and wrong?' is an attempt, successful or otherwise, as it may be, to do for ethics what those who made the great elementary discoveries in physics did for the mass of observed facts, and for the expressive but indefinite words descriptive of those facts, which the unsystematic observation of ages had accumulated about the heavenly bodies and common natural objects."

This analogy, attentively considered, does more to clear up the obscurity which surrounds ethical investigations than any direct argument. A savage brought up without any knowledge of physics would be very much surprised at being told that a body which he was in the habit of considering light might also be considered from another point of view heavy, that the two terms were entirely relative, and that to speak of absolute lightness and absolute heaviness was to talk about that of which we knew nothing. In the same way, or rather in a way analogous to this, the anti-utilitarian, on being told that 'right' and 'wrong' are general terms indicating the instinctive habit of approval or disapproval generated in the minds of mankind by the observation of the effects of particular classes of actions, perceiving at once that the absoluteness of the cherished opposition between 'right' and 'wrong' is gone, jumps to the conclusion that the foundations of morality are threatened—a conclusion quite as illegitimate as would be that of any one who should imagine that because the general physical terms we have just cited are shown by examination not to be absolute, therefore it will be no longer possible to say that iron is heavy, a feather light, that a sponge full of water is wet, and a sandy plain dry, that birds fly up into the sky and swoop down when they seek prey in the sea.

Mr. Thornton is an anti-utilitarian. His old-fashioned ethics are anti-utilitarian ethics; he has no hesitation in ranging himself with those who believe in the intuitive origin of moral judgments, and his explanation of this origin is so much his own that it may almost be said to require an antecedent intuition to grasp it. He is a believer in two fundamental "natural rights," which are the source of all moral obligation, first, "absolute right, except in so far as the same may have been forfeited by misconduct, or modified by consent, to deal in any way one pleases, not noxious to other people, with one's own self or person; second, right equally absolute to dispose similarly of the produce of one's own honest industry, or of that of others whose rights in connection with it have been honestly acquired by one's self." To show the inadequacy of this as an explanation, it is necessary only to observe, first, that an absolute right which can be forfeited by misconduct, is not an absolute right at all; that misconduct means the doing of wrong, and that the meaning of this word "wrong" is the very thing we wish to discover. The limitation imposed by the exception "forfeited by misconduct" cannot possibly have any meaning until we know what misconduct is. Second, that "the produce of one's own honest industry" signifies the produce of industry pursued in subordination to the "rights" of others, and again takes us back to our old enquiry, which the rest of the proposition about the honest acquisition of the rights of others does not seem to us to advance at all. These general terms, "misconduct," "honesty," "rights," do nothing to solve the question propounded by Mr. Thornton; they are the question itself. There is the same difficulty with the phrase "not noxious to other people." The absolute right to do with one's self what one pleases, except so far as it is "noxious to other people," means the right to do with one's self what one pleases except so far as it interferes with the general happiness of other people, which is very much what a utilitarian would say; but Mr. Thornton, being an anti-utilitarian, we are compelled to believe that by "noxious to other people" he means simply "injurious to other people's rights." Any one who will take the pains to substitute the alternative expressions here suggested for Mr. Thornton's, may judge for himself how far these natural rights go to clear up the mystery of the difference between right and wrong.

The more strictly anti-utilitarian part of Mr. Thornton's essay is more valuable than that which is explanatory of his own beliefs. He attacks with considerable vigor the theory which makes the distinction between right and wrong coincident with the distinction between what is useful and what is injurious to the general happiness. An action, Mr. Thornton very truly observes, may be right in three different senses: "It may be right as being meritorious and deserving of commendation. It may be right as being that which one is bound to do, for the doing of which therefore one deserves no praise, and for neglecting to do which one would justly incur blame. It may be right simply as not being wrong—as being allowable—something which one has a right to do, though to refrain from doing it might perhaps be praiseworthy." We may add to this, that the amount of commendation or blame depends partly on the usefulness and partly on the difficulty of resisting the temptations which surround the performance of the action, whatever it may be. It is very useful to the world that each man engaged in the work of production should consume every day a certain amount of food, repairing the waste of tissue caused by his labor, and enabling him to continue the work necessary to keep the machinery of society in motion. No one, however, would think of commending a healthy man for eating three meals a day, because we all know that there is no difficulty in doing it. On the other hand, we do know that the appetite for drink is so strong in some men that considerable strength of will is required to resist the temptation to excess. Temperance, also, is a very useful habit, and accordingly approbation is always given by public opinion to the temperate man, in countries which we call civilized. There are many actions, too, which elicit the approbation of mankind which it is not easy, to say the least, to bring within the category of useful. The devotion of children to worthless parents has always drawn forth sympathy and praise, though it would probably be extremely difficult to convince a thoughtful utilitarian child, of a rational but not affectionate turn of mind, that the devotion of children "of the class" to which he or she belonged to parents of a worthless sort, was on the whole for the greatest happiness of the greatest number. Nor will the utilitarian theory furnish a complete ethical guide or *vade mecum* through the perplexities of life. No ethical theory will do this, because the subject is too intricate and complicated for any single formula. Mr. Thornton imagines a curious test-case, which, as he supposes, demonstrates the utter absurdity of utilitarianism, but which seems better fitted for quite a different purpose.

"Imagine," he says, "three shipwrecked mariners to have leapt from their sinking vessel into a cock boat scarce big enough to hold them, and the two slimmer of the three to have presently discovered that there was little or no chance of either of them reaching land unless their overweighted craft was lightened of their comparatively corpulent companion. Next, imagine yourself in the fat sailor's place; and then consider whether you would feel it incumbent on you to submit quietly to be drowned, in order that the residuum of happiness might be greater than if either you all three went to the bottom or than if you alone were saved. Would you not, far from recognizing any such moral obligation, hold yourself morally justified in throwing the other two overboard, if you were strong enough, and, if need were, to prevent their similarly ousting you?" To show that this is not so clear a case as Mr. Thornton supposes, it may be worth mentioning that two or three clear-headed utilitarians to whom we have put it, have answered, without any hesitation, that it was obviously the duty of the fat sailor to sacrifice himself. But Mr. Thornton does not tell his readers how, under his own system, the fat sailor would be able to reconcile with his ideas of duty an attempt to drown his thinner companions. The case admirably illustrates the dangers of casuistry. Moral rules have owed their origin, according to utilitarians, to the gradual observation of the results of "actions of a class." Thus, theft and murder have gradually become classed as immoral acts by observation of the fact that they led to bad results. This has been the gradual work of centuries of observation. If there had been no murder or thieving in the world, we should have no moral ideas on the subject. For the same reason, there cannot be said to be any moral rule applicable to the case of the fat sailor. Fat sailors have not been in the habit of finding themselves at sea with thin sailors in open boats in the extraordinary predicament suggested by Mr. Thornton. When a sufficient number of such instances have accumulated, the utilitarian would say, no doubt, there would be a moral rule applicable to this "class of cases." Casuistry is a weapon quite out of place for anti-utilitarians. It is only suited for attack upon metaphysical systems of morals, which possess fixed canons set up by the believers in them as the ultimate test of moral truth

* 'Old-Fashioned Ethics and Common-Sense Metaphysics, with some of their Applications. By William Thomas Thornton, author of a treatise 'On Labour.'' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873. 8vo.

The remaining essays in the volume are on the following subjects: "History's Scientific Pretensions"; "David Hume as a Metaphysician"; "Huxleyism"; "Recent Phases of Scientific Atheism"; and "Limits of Demonstrable Theism," part of which last essay is in verse. They do not contain much that is original; indeed, they are rather entertaining than original. It is hardly necessary for us to say that Mr. Thornton does not believe in what he calls "Huxleyism," considers "History's Scientific Pretensions" to be what Cobbett would have called "prime nonsense"; and has an opinion of Hume the character of which we may indicate by a single quotation: "Hume's affectation of profound ignorance on the subject" [of the possibility of a conception by the human mind of divine power] "must have occasioned unusual amusement in a certain quarter. The devil can seldom have had a more hearty grin at his darling sin than when witnessing this peculiar exhibition of the pride that apes humility." This is hardly the proper temper for critical discussion of Hume's merits as a metaphysician, however expressive it may be of Mr. Thornton's opinion as to where Hume is spending his hereafter. The essay on "Recent Phases of Scientific Atheism" contains a naïve confession on the part of Mr. Thornton that he has never read the works of one of the authors—Auguste Comte—whose scientific atheism he proposes to discuss. One noteworthy criticism, nevertheless, is to be found in the essay, apropos of the proposed worship of humanity. It is, as Mr. Thornton says, a chief article of the Comtist creed "that Humanity is in a constant state of progress, so that both the collective mass and the choice specimens of each successive generation of men must always be superior to the corresponding masses and specimens of all previous generations; but not the less is it an imperative injunction of the Comtist rubric that religious homage shall be paid not only to the collective 'grand être' of Humanity, but also to individual worthies of past ages," and the conclusion seems inevitable that inferiors will have to be worshipped by their mental and moral superiors. When we add to this the further difficulty of obtaining within any assignable time any general agreement among mankind as to the propriety of canonization in particular cases—when we consider how wide the difference among men is even in this enlightened age as to the merits of the foremost men of past generations—and when we reflect, too, upon the extraordinary canonizations that have been made in the churches in which canonization is in vogue, there certainly seems good reason to doubt whether the introduction of the religion of Humanity would work practically as Comte hoped; whether, two or three hundred years hence, our saints' calendar, instead of comprising only the names of such men as Comte and those like him would consider great and good—Confucius, Solon, Newton, and the rest—might not contain names of a very different sort. One man has quite as much right to canonization as another, and we may be sure that, after the church was established, there would not only be parties demanding the admission of Confucius, Solon, and Newton to the roll, but strong demonstrations would also be made on behalf of Loyola, Mohammed, and Brigham Young; indeed, if the matter were left, as it clearly ought to be, to popular vote, there would not be wanting places where, with a little wire-pulling and pipe-laying, the Brethren might be induced to bow down and worship before the images of James Fisk or William M. Tweed. It ought to be said, however, that the "religion" proposed by Comte has never been seriously adopted by those who call themselves Positivists.

THE MAGAZINES FOR JULY.

MR. LINCOLN is the subject of noticeable articles in two of the month's magazines—*Scribner's* and the *Galaxy*. In *Scribner's*, the Rev. J. A. Reed, a Western clergyman, discusses certain allegations made in Lamon and Herndon's 'Life of Lincoln'—a book which, more thoroughly even than Mr. John Forster's recent biographical writings, shows how deep and envenomed a wound may be dealt by the hand of a friend. Neither Landor nor Dickens had such cause for rising from his grave as might have moved the victim of Mr. Lamon's tribute of affection. It is within reasonable bounds to say that Mr. Lamon's work begins by endeavoring to prove that Lincoln was born a bastard and that it ends by endeavoring to prove that he died a hypocritical infidel, the middle of it being taken up by an endeavor to show that he loved women he never married, and married a woman whom he never really loved, who made his life wretched and for whom he soon utterly lost all affection. It is with the first two of these singular assertions that Mr. Reed deals, and whatever may be the reader's opinion as to Christianity's, or infidelity's, need of Mr. Lincoln's countenance and support, we think no one will lay down Mr. Reed's article without the conviction that it has effectually disposed of Mr. Lamon's case, and that it has definite historical value. As for the charge that Lincoln was born out of wedlock, Mr. Reed points out that nothing is commoner in the annals of the poor in a wild frontier country than the loss of such documents as records of births and marriages, and that failure to find such evidence of the marriage of Thomas Lincoln and Nancy Hanks was an insufficient basis for Mr. Lamon's ungracious assumption. But Mr. Reed is able to go further, and to produce specific record, of a certain value as evidence, that Mr. Lincoln's father and mother were duly married, so that Mr. Lamon's failure to find any record whatever was because he failed to push his researches far enough. Mr. Reed, hearing that the Hon. J. C. Black had in his possession a number of the Lincoln family papers, addressed him on the subject, and received a reply, which is given in Mr. Reed's article, and is in substance as follows: The record in question was made on a leaf of the family Bible; it was given him with a certificate of genuineness by Dennis Hanks; the record and certificate were sent to the Illinois Historical Society, and are now understood to be in the hands of Mr. Robert Lincoln, son of the President. It is altogether likely that of the total number of the last generation of settlers in the Mississippi Valley, a very large proportion would be troubled to find evidence at all more conclusive than this that they were of legitimate birth. The itinerant preacher, going on his circuit through the scattered clearings, made no memorandum except in his memory of the very informal ceremony by which he bound together a pair of his occasional parishioners; or the justice of the peace coupled two of his neighbors, and no note was taken of the transaction except that, whichever of the parties to it could write, laboriously marked down names and dates on the last leaf of the Apocrypha.

As for the second of Mr. Lamon's charges, Mr. Reed exposes its inaccuracy with much minuteness. We have not space to follow him through all his letters from numerous divines and laymen, friends of Mr. Lincoln, and acquainted with his earlier and later career. It seems plain enough that in his young days Lincoln had read such of the productions of Paine, Voltaire, and smaller authors as were floating about among the men of his acquaintance; that afterwards he became convinced of the inspiration of the Scriptures, apparently on evidence not very different in quality from that which had previously convinced him to the contrary; and that towards the close of his life he was a believer in the divinity of Christ, and had at least considered the advisability of making a public profession of his belief. Incidentally, Mr. Reed mentions that at the moment of assassination Mr. Lincoln was saying to Mrs. Lincoln that he wished to visit the Holy Land; that there was no city he so much wished to see as Jerusalem; and while the last word was half uttered on his tongue the shot was fired, and he became insensible. We do not know if this is anywhere else related.

In the *Galaxy*, the article on Lincoln is by Mr. J. M. Winchell, and gives a short account of three interviews which the writer had with the President. It is readable, but not important. At one of the interviews the President illustrated the sort of flexible firmness, to call it so, which was a marked feature of his character, and illustrated also, we may add, that willingness to spend a great deal of time and labor and suavity in the work of gratifying unreasonable men, whom a man of more decision would have sent to the right-about very quickly, and perhaps without detriment to the public service. More interesting than this narrative is that of the interview in which Mr. Lincoln avowed to the writer his determination to be a candidate for re-election.

Other articles in the *Galaxy* are Mr. Albert Rhodes's "Day with the French Painters"; Mr. Carl Benson's "Casual Cogitations," which is about translation as a proper business for amateur authors, and one in which they are likely to excel their professional brethren; a chapter of General Custer's "Life on the Plains," which in this number is exciting; four chapters of Mr. De Forest's novel; and Mr. Thurlow Weed's account of Lafayette's last visit to America. This last article is curiously redolent of old times, and young men should read it to see how enthusiastically patriotic their grandfathers were and how frankly hero-worship was performed fifty years ago. Mr. Weed tells us that while the Marquis was on board the *Cadmus* coming over, he made the acquaintance of a gentleman from Boston, of whom he enquired "the expense of living at the best hotels, and the expenses of travelling by stages and steamboats, of all of which his secretary made memoranda. From these data the General, aided by the Bostonian, made an estimate of what it would probably cost him to visit and travel a year in America. It is scarcely necessary to add that there was no occasion to refer to these memoranda, for his every wish was gratified, nor was he permitted while he remained among us, unless by stealth, to expend one dollar or one dime of his own money."

In *Scribner's* a fairly good article, illustrated with fairly good judgment, is written by Mr. Edward King. "The Great South" is the title of it, and in this first instalment it describes a trip from Kansas as far as Northern Texas. "Low Life in Berlin" is another article (illustrated), and another which will interest many people inside and outside the churches is one by "an Orthodox Minister" who writes very differently from what his prede-

cessor of twenty-four years ago would have done, and in what will be pronounced a very sensible way. A somewhat morbid interest attaches to Dr. Stephen W. Newell's account of his sojourn as a patient in one of our lunatic asylums.

A singular and pleasing contribution to the *Catholic World* tells a strange tale of the adventures of a South Sea Islander who earned for himself the title of King of Pitt. Pitt is a little islet lying to the eastward of New Zealand and usually uninhabited. The monarch of it earned his title by fleeing to it on several occasions from a life of slavery in his native island of Chatham, which had once been an earthly paradise, but which a band of man-eating New Zealanders had subjugated and ruled mercilessly. A horrid picture is suggested of the cruelties and tremendous miseries of which the smiling Pacific world has been for generations the scene. It is a fascinating subject, and our author is not without skill or rather not without happiness in his way of handling it. His style suggests the directness and accuracy of speech which his profession may have taught him, for he appears to be a naval officer; and also it has touches as of the fine writing with which those skies have inspired many travellers, and which somehow helps the illusion that we are amid the life which it describes. A little confusion and uncertainty in the thread of the narrative also assists this impression.

"Savonarola" is continued in the *Catholic World*, and so is "The Trowel and the Cross," the latter being as severe and orthodox as ever. In the book-notices also, a weak and rambling imbecile or two, heretics and the like, come up for just admonition.

Lippincott's has from the beginning been typographically the best of American magazines, and of late it has become nearly as good in other respects as it is in point of external appearance. Almost all of the July number is very good of its kind and nothing is bad. It opens with the reappearance of our old friends, Paul Flemming and the Baron of Hohenfels and the handsome but cool Miss Ashburton, whose acquaintance we made years ago in Mr. Longfellow's 'Hyperion.' Miss Ashburton, formerly the

"Maiden fair to see,"

as sung by the young German student in green, is now a married woman, having run away with her papa's courier; Paul, who is forty-eight years of age, though he gives himself out for forty-five, has become stout and rather gray; the Baron is not sentimental. Altogether, the young ladies will like the old "Hyperion" better, and the young ladies of twenty years ago will perhaps see more in the new one. The author is Mr. Edward Strahan. We must praise, too, Miss Margaret Howitt's "Home in the Tyrol," Mr. Ralph Keeler's "American Ambulance in Paris," Mr. R. M. Copeland's "From Philadelphia to Baltimore," Miss Margaret Mason's pretty verses, "Charity Cross," Mr. Black's "Princess of Thule," Mr. January Searle's "Passages in Shelley's Early History," which is more to be praised for its news than for its rather muddled way of telling it; Mrs. Davis's "Berrytown," and Mr. Harney's "Strange Sea Industries and Adventures." Evidently, much worse summer reading than this month's *Lippincott* could easily be found.

In *Harper's*, Mr. Benson J. Lossing begins a series of papers, illustrated by fac-simile autographs, on "The Signers of the Declaration of Independence." This first one contains a hitherto unpublished letter from John Adams, in which he sets down in his usual perfectly plain and unmistakable manner his opinion of several of his contemporaries. It was written from Passy on the 7th of December, 1778, at which time Mr. Adams, jointly with Benjamin Franklin and Arthur Lee, was a commissioner of the United States at the French Court. When he succeeded Silas Deane in that office, he found a want of harmony between Franklin and Lee, and, in consequence, he lost no time in advising that Congress should entrust its affairs in France to one person, "perhaps expecting," says Mr. Lossing, "that John Adams would be that person." However that may be, Mr. Adams informs his correspondent at some length of certain patent faults of the great Sage's—as his indolence, his dislike of saying a decisive yes or no as long as he could help it, the dissipation of mind induced by the visits of multitudes of people—faults which Mr. Adams thinks will cause the public business to suffer beyond description should the Sage be left in Paris as sole commissioner. As for Mr. Lee, that gentleman, as well as his colleague, "is in constant opposition to your Old Friend." Moreover, "his Ambition, his Desire of making a Fortune and of promoting his Relations," are all known, while as for Mr. Deane, Mr. Adams thinks it would be better if that gentleman had done less trumpeting of his own fame as "principal negotiator." Such conduct is sure to do no good, he remarks, but rather to sow division and strife; and in this particular case he cannot discover that such boasts have any foundation in fact. Mr. Lossing does not say to whom the letter was written.

"Recollections of an Old Stager" speaks of an affectation once common in Washington, and gives an illustration of it in a trick of Mr. Tom Marshall's, who alway desired his most elaborate speeches to pass for extemporaneous bursts of genius. He would seclude himself for days together, the report being current that he was spending his time in drunkenness; then suddenly he would reappear, and, going to the capital, make a brilliant speech, which would make everybody exclaim what a wonder Marshall would have been but for his unfortunate habits, the fact being that he all the time had been shut up with his books, working hard and hammering out his brilliant extemporaneous effort. Russian policy in Asia, Sicily and the Sicilians, the sailor ashore, the Republican movement in Europe, by Señor Castelar, and General Sherman's recent trip to Europe, are the subjects of some of the other papers in this month's *Harper's*, which misses Mr. Curtis, but otherwise is much as usual.

Life in Danbury. By James M. Bailey, "The Danbury Newsman." (Boston: Shepard & Gill. 1873.)—Within a year or two a small local journal published weekly in a Connecticut town has risen to the dignity of being put on sale at the news-stands in distant cities, and of being copied into the columns of all American newspapers that do any copying at all. This journal is the Danbury *News*, and nobody knowing much about American journalism would need to be told that a gentleman who should secure for his paper so much professional triumph would probably belong to the class of writers known as "American humorists." He has now gathered some of his productions into a volume, and offers himself to be tried by a higher standard than that of the scissors of the "mail reader." Mr. Bailey is, in fact, a genuine humorist. He is not of a rare type, and unless it is worth something to be made to laugh in a good-humored way at the commonplace haps and mishaps of "the neighbors" living in an entirely commonplace New England village community, he is not to be called a humorist of a very valuable or expensive type. If, however, it is worth while to be thus somewhat vulgarly amused, but amused nevertheless, Mr. Bailey's journal must be pronounced a beneficent influence. It is a beneficence similar to that of the jocoseness of the village wit, who is to be found equally "dry" or juicy, in every post-office, and at every country auction, and at every town-meeting, from Eastport to Stamford and from Hyannis Harbor to St. Albans. Most of our readers know this kind of wit and humor. We dare say many of them practise it in some of its varieties. It is sharply observant, as Yankee wit is sure to be; it is apt to be personal, as village wit always is; it is exaggerative, as to be American it must be; it deals with the most familiar incidents, as an untravelled and uninstructed wit must. Each and all of these qualities are illustrated in Mr. Bailey's little volume, and to his native store he adds certain treasures which he perhaps owes to a wide reading of "exchanges." We take for an example of this last an inferential kind of joke, of whose origin we are ignorant, though we first noted it in newspapers not of New England make. It sometimes is extremely brief, and highly inferential, for instance, as thus: "Another girl. Indianapolis this time. It was non-explosive too"—a jotting at first sight puzzling to the uninitiated, but which pointedly refers to the common accident of death caused by the explosion of a kerosene-oil lamp. In Mr. Bailey's book it appears as follows. The subject of discourse is the Danbury horse, an animal which is described as having a reputation above all the beasts of the field, his celebrity being due to the fact that he is an expert in running away. It is so well-founded that no native of Danbury ever thinks of trying to stop him; and, from what follows, we may readily infer what would be the result of such interference: "Once in a while a stranger attempts it, but there is a fund to furnish ice to pack his body with until his friends can come on, so there is no harm done." How cheap a joke often answers the "Newsman's" turn is shown in this same article on the horse, a line or so further on: "In a tight pinch, he would even run away from a position in the New York Custom-house." So, too, the aged Joe about pursuing the downward road till one becomes a New York alderman, or a member of Congress, or a "Christian statesman."

The horse, by the bye, is as much of a favorite with Mr. Bailey as the mule with Mr. Josh Billings. Mr. Bailey's grandfather had a horse, a small white one, which "would get up from a meal at Delmonico's to kick the President of the United States." His father once owned a yellow horse of remarkable kicking powers: "he never stopped to enquire whether a man was worth a million dollars or ten cents when reaching for him. He may have had some curiosity about it afterwards, but he never showed it."

"There was only one person that had anything to do with the animal who came out of that fiery ordeal unscathed. He was the hired man, and he owed his salvation to a misfortune. He was cross-eyed. He was a great source of misery to that yellow horse. The misformation of his eyes was calculated to deceive even smarter beings. The beast kicked at him a few times when he was evidently looking the other way, but that was just the time he was bearing one eye strongly on him, and he missed; and when he really was not looking was just the time the beast thought he was, and so it went

through the entire eight days, both stomach and heels yearning for a morsel of him, but never getting it."

A neighbor, Mr. Stiver, also owns a horse, which occasions the writer a deal of tribulation, and the description of this is entirely characteristic of the most constantly recurring phase of Mr. Bailey's fun-making. With all the vividness of truth, he sets forth the comical side of the thousand-and-one incidents of everyday life, and shows us the fun there is in ordinary things, until we laugh as we laugh when we see a boy slip into a puddle, or a man chasing his hat, or making a wry face over a thumb bruised by a tack hammer. As a perfect specimen, we quote the following picture, recognizable by every one who knows anything of the nature and habits of men, women, and hens. It is entitled "Driving a Hen":

"When a woman has a hen to drive into the coop, she takes hold of her hoops with both hands, and shakes them quietly toward the delinquent, and says 'Shew, there!' The hen takes one look at the object, to convince herself that it's a woman, and then stalks majestically into the coop, in perfect disgust of the sex. A man don't do that way. He goes out of doors and says, 'It is singular nobody in this house can drive a hen but myself.' And, picking up a stick of wood, hurls it at the offending biped, and observes, 'Get in there, you thief.' The hen immediately loses her reason, and dashes to the opposite end of the yard. The man straightway dashes after her. She comes back again with her head down, her wings out, and followed by an assortment of stove-wood, fruit-cans, and coal clinkers, with a much-puffing and very mad man in the rear. Then she skims up on the stoop, and under the barn, and over a fence or two, and around the house and back again to the coop, all the while talking as only an excited hen can talk, and all the while followed by things convenient for handling, and by a man whose coat is on the sawbuck, and whose hat is on the ground, and whose perspiration and profanity appear to have no limit. By this time the other hens have come out to take a hand in the debate, and help dodge the missiles —and then the man says every hen on the place shall be sold in the morning, and puts on his things and goes down the street, and the woman dons her hoops, and has every one of those hens housed and contented in two minutes, and the only sound heard on the premises is the hammering by the eldest boy as he mends the broken pickets."

Almost equally good is this dissertation on the idiosyncrasy of the wheelbarrow:

"If you have occasion to use a wheelbarrow, leave it, when you are through with it, in front of the house with the handles towards the door. A wheelbarrow is the most complicated thing to fall over on the face of the earth. A man will fall over one when he would never think of falling over anything else. He never knows when he has got through falling over it, either; for it will tangle his legs and his arms, turn over with him and rear up in front of him, and, just as he pauses in his profanity to congratulate himself, it takes a new turn, and scoops more skin off of him, and he commences to evolute anew, and bump himself on fresh places. A man never ceases to fall over a wheelbarrow until it turns completely on its back, or brings up against something it cannot upset. It is the most inoffensive-looking object there is, but it is more dangerous than a locomotive, and no man is secure with one unless he has a tight hold of its handles, and is sitting down on something. A wheelbarrow has its uses, without doubt, but in its leisure moments it is the great blighting curse on true dignity."

Of the same kind are the articles on "Waking a Boy," "The Hen" again, "First Sunday in a New House," "Amateur Tree Felling," "One of Man's Great Trials," which relates to shaving, "The New Boots," "The Family Hammer," "Rafting," and a dozen more, whose titles we see as we open the book at random. The last-named essay thus begins:

"Rafting is the prevailing popular amusement with juveniles this month. The boy whose parents own the pond is generally chosen captain of the craft. The raft quite frequently consists of a couple of boards the captain's father has laid away to season."

The book, as the reader will have seen, is not of the highest order of refinement; or, as we may more civilly put the case, it is all of a very honest lack of super-refinement; but of the pictures by Mr. H. L. Stephens, it is to be said that they are not only entirely false to the pictorial aspect of the life depicted, but that their utter vulgarity does Mr. Bailey's work grave injustice.

Walks in Florence. By Susan and Joanna Horner. With illustrations. 2 vols. (New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons. 1873.)—This work will find its place in the tourist's collection beside Hare's 'Walks in Rome,' though in a literary point of view it is a much less successful attempt to avoid the level of the ordinary guide-book. We miss those liberal extracts from poets, travellers, critics, novelists of all nations, which afford, in Mr. Hare's itinerary, such agreeable halting-places. And we should be glad to miss also occasional instances of bad grammar like the following: "He [Arnolfo] left a record of his original intention by still maintaining his six windows, the two last of which he brought nearer together *and are fictitious.*" The authors' industry and thoroughness, however, and the beautiful print of these volumes, merit the reception which is quite sure to await them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott (Rev. E. A.), Parables for Children	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 50
Allen (J. H. and W. F.) and Greenough (J. B.), Select Orations of Cicero	(Ginn Bros.)	1 75
Allibone (S. A.), Poetical Quotations	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Browning (Rev. H. B.), The New Theology	" "	
Burton (J. H.), History of Scotland, Vols. III., IV	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)	
Chapman (Dr. H. C.), Evolution of Life, 2d ed	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Detlef (C.), Must It Be? a Tale	" "	
Droz (G.), Babolain	(Holt & Williams)	1 25
Eubule-Evans (A.), The Curse of Immortality	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 00
Fawcett (E.), Purple and Fine Linen: a Tale	(G. W. Carleton & Co.)	
Field (Miss K.), Hap hazard	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Gostwick (J.) and Harrison (R.), Outlines of German Literature	(Holt & Williams)	1 25
John Stuart Mill: His Life and Works	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 00
Kinzie (Mrs. J. H.), Wau-Bun, the Early Day in the Northwest	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Lum (D. D.), The "Spiritual" Delusion	" "	
Macdonell (J.), The Land Question in England and Scotland	(Macmillan & Co.)	3 50
Phelps (Elizabeth S.), What to Wear, swd	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	0 50
Political Portraits	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Robin (E.), La Question Pénitentiaire, swd	(F. W. Christern)	
The Workshop, No. 6, swd	(E. Steiger)	0 50
Whitmore (W. H.), Origin of the Names of Towns in Massachusetts	(Boston)	

Fine Arts.

THE DI CESNOLA COLLECTION.

CABINET OBJECTS, STATUETTES, AND TOMB RELICS.

IF the grand variety and startling character of the statuary from Golgoi did not master the attention, there would be ample to fix it in the tomb-furniture obtained at Idalium. The diggings here belong to an earlier date in General di Cesnola's enterprise, having been commenced in the first part of his consulship, in 1866, four years before that luckiest of revelations which makes the year 1870 an epoch to be marked with white in the annals of archæology. The two sites are a few miles apart, in the middle of the island. Idalium, though a city consecrated to Venus, and yielding, as to "Idalian Aphrodite beautiful," a common epithet, has not yet revealed many relics especially characteristic of that goddess or statuary appertaining to her temple. It is the Idalian cemeteries, Greek and Phœnician, which have offered up their wonderful evidence in lamps, pottery, glass, and metal, rather than the shrine of Venus its ornaments. This evidence is still accumulating, according to the measures for continued search taken by the explorer; for, after the eight thousand tombs opened under his eye while the General remained in Cyprus, there is report of many others excavated since his return hither. The contents (amounting to eighteen hundred lamps, five thousand vases, and seventeen hundred specimens in glass) are nearly all at the Museum in this city. These relics are Greek or Phœnician in character, according to their derivation; for the explorer, besides striking upon the Greek necropolis, had the excellent fortune to penetrate below to a Phœnician cemetery (described by his friend, Mr. Hitchcock, as "some feet beneath") developing relics of a far hoarier antiquity.

The Greek glass from Idalium now arranged in the upper northeast room numbers 1,670 objects, and we are told that a hundred additional pieces have lately been accumulated by the consul's force of explorers. The glassware contained in this apartment would certainly be the bright and special attraction of any museum on the face of the globe. Its quantity, nationality, and preservation give it a character of interest which probably pertains to no other collection whatever. But what strikes the eye first, and affords even experienced visitors a new sensation, is its dazzling iridescence. Our memory and eye for comparison must be strangely at fault if any of the European collections can show a brilliancy comparable with that of these vessels, as now displayed in the glory of their fresh cleanliness and new surface. The outer scales of oxidized glass having been carefully removed, what remains is an immaculate exterior, decorated with all the colors which the influences of nature have been working for perhaps thousands of years to produce. The changeable hues of ancient glassware are probably due to mechanical displacement of the laminæ rather than to chemical change in the substance. The effect of decay, by reducing the ware to a finely scaled condition, disposed with a regularity corresponding to the gradual nature of the change, doubtless results in an arrangement of the minute plates like that in the substance of mother-of-pearl, the surface of fish-scales, the sheaths of beetles, and the minutely-plumed wings of Southern butterflies. Of this result, which the modern manufacturer would be but too happy to effect at any trouble and at any expense of fragility, we believe the Di Cesnola collection now offers the best display extant. It can hardly be described to those unfamiliar with the effect in question. The boundless array of objects, reflecting from broad or curved surfaces tints positively outside of all experience, confuse the most accurate observation. Broad dishes, marbled with hues like those of incandescence;

pots and jars and bottles, now plated over with strong surface-color like a coat of burnished metal, now sending light, pearly hints of variegated radiance from elusive depths; or cups fantastically pied with scales of iridescence over their own strong original colorations, are scattered around a considerable apartment, defeating all sense of strict estimation, and cheating the mind with the notion of a possible perfection in the manufacture only compatible, as it seems, with decay. Some of the platters look as if Turner had painted skies on them in his maddest mood, and had been allowed to use flames for colors. The general effect seems to suggest that all the sunsets that have glimmered over Cyprus since these crystals were lost in the earth had sunk into their hiding-place and permeated their substance. In a sober estimation of these remarkable cabinets, it is evident that they cast a strong light on the manufacture of glass by the Greeks in probably rather early times. Though generally devoid of much elaboration, the ware shows in every piece the aristocratic Greek mind, incapable of anything ungraceful, and finding a severe rightness of line even in work so hurried and capricious as glass-blowing. Most pieces are of simple inflated shapes, but by no means all are so. One small bottle, pressed in a square form, has a monogram of three Greek letters relieved on one side, quite like the lettering of modern ware; another discovery, not now in the collection, was a wine-cup with the Greek motto, "Be cheerful and drink well." These inscriptions, with bas-reliefs of Greek heads on others of the pieces, show conclusively the Hellenic origin of the deposit, and give it its lofty rank as a body of evidence to the Greek ability in glass-manufacture. Opaque glass of mingled colors is present in considerable abundance, and it is strange to see a usage of the substance so much like the Egyptian usage applied to elegant little amphoræ and other vessels of forms entirely Greek. Of opaque, twisted colors are the sticks—pistons they might be called—which fit into the bottles and are adapted to stir or draw out the contents. The dried ointment from the perfume-pots is collected in quantity, and still yields a fatty odor when burning.

The Greek necropolis of Idalium, among many other objects, showed a singular sort of stone pedestals two or three feet high, cylindrical and inscribed with mortuary legends, such as "Timon, the Good, Hail"; "Pacicrati, the Good, Hail"; "Artemidoros, the Hunter, the Good, Hail"; and one more metaphysical, "Eukianeos, do not trouble yourself that nothing is immortal!" More than one cippus of this kind has a niche worked into the side of the cylinder, containing a bust. We believe that stones not dissimilar in form to these can be found among the very various shapes in the burying-ground of Pompeii, and that the objects are tombstones. They have been taken, however, by some antiquarians for altars, and indeed the top is always dressed as a table, with a hollow in the centre where offerings might be burnt. These cavities are sometimes filled with large stoppers of ornamental form, and it is a significant fact that the figures of the covers in question are pine-cones. It is thus that the evidence from Cyprus, in our present state of knowledge, is perpetually tripping us up. In a comparatively modern cemetery, apparently subsequent to the time of Alexander, where every other indication is in a pure, daylight Greek, we find this emblem, precisely like the cone-attribute in the hands of the gigantic winged gods from Nineveh, and carrying us back at once to Chaldean observances. The same tantalizing continuities of evidence pursue us through the whole Cyprus collection, inserting a puzzle in the most unexpected places. The sincerity and simplicity with which they present themselves to the student are above all price, on the one hand; on the other, they complicate the data in the most intricate manner. We feel that, after the key is found, a thousand artless little proofs will be ready to assist in the unlocking; but while waiting for the key, anachronisms of the subtlest, most obstinate kind are abundant. The Chaldean sacred pine not only seems to cast its cones upon the tombs of Greek hunters, cynic philosophers, and other human varieties at Idalium; besides this, on the head of the fine colossus with the flying dove of Golgoi, a statue of such distinguished treatment, and which we are so fain to call a hermaphroditic Venus, the sacred tree of Assyria is seen, hardly modified, presenting itself as an embroidery on the front of the head-dress. Another indication, of much value in a dearth of epochal marks, is the coiffure. Among any figures of periods at all historical, this mark of fashion is a plain evidence of date; but here in Cyprus we greatly need it to fix a more radical question—that of sex. This is generally very hard to determine. The Egyptian wig, of many small plaits, is found in some of the figures, one of which, on that or other evidence, is imagined to be a female; the comparative width of hips and shoulders does not help us, all the older figures having a great excess across the chest; as a feminine mark, then, at first sight plain enough, we should therefore be glad enough to settle upon the long, effeminate ringlets, three on each shoulder, the veritable *boucles anglaises* which Doré would use in defining an Englishwoman. These, at first sight, seem incontrovertible. The bearded colossus with the fluttering dove, on the strength of them, is decided to be a female. Again, a ponderous sarcophagus, of which the General brings us only the lid, was found at Citium. It is in marble, is in the style of the Egyptian mummy-case, and corresponds with a few Sidonian coffins to be seen in the Louvre. The upper end is finished as a colossal face. Was it meant for the use of a man or a woman, a king or a queen? The profile is of decadence Greek; the brow is trimmed with enormous frisettes. It had been opened, by the bye, with some damage to the large square knobs or handles left in relief for the management of the lid, and a corpse of late Roman period economically sepultured there. The sex of the original occupant, however, all other indications agreeing, seemed to be decided by the six straying ringlets brought forward and descending quite over the breast, and we might almost imagine the sarcophagus made for the wife of Evagoras. The Phœnician ringlets, in fact, accompany many figures clearly feminine. The fine water-jug, finished with a head of Astarte, and pouring the contents from the two breasts as spouts, is thus coifed. They are found tossing on the shoulders of the spirited little priestess who dances to Venus with all her might, holding a mirror and catching up her skirt, enwreathed, sandalled, and bejewelled. This gay little figure, in white limestone, dancing on a platform supported by human heads, is shown by its free posture, though draped in a fashion imitated from archaic style, to be of late work; but it retains the traditional ringlets, so appropriate to its decorative character, and so essentially feminine. So far, the evidence is consistent, and we cling to the peculiar coiffure with some reliance as a guide to sex; but our confidence is overturned when we find the same straying locks escaping from the very jaws of the Nemean lion to lie upon the shoulders of the great Hercules, the most elaborate, typical, masculine, muscular statue in the collection.

The prehistoric tombs found beneath the Grecian cemetery of Idalium are among the most suggestive remains left us by antiquity, but scholarship is quite staggered in attempting to define their date. The pottery in them, preserved with this collection in opulent abundance, is often of a pattern almost unknown to European museums; some of red or black, with zigzags scratched through the glaze, appears to be of vast antiquity. Two little bottles are of glass, and form the chief prizes in point of archæological interest amongst that ware. Seen by reflected light, they are black; but held up and caused to transmit sunshine they redden, showing an early example of the royal Tyrian purple. A largely represented variety of ceramic is the pale drab pottery, decorated with brown paint, at first in lines, later in figures of birds, fish, and animals, one of which paintings on a bird-shaped vessel is thought to be the earliest known representation of the peacock. It is only kind to inform those gentlemen who seek for old-world influence in our own Peruvian art that coincidences are here for them, both numerous and striking. These animated figures are executed in an Asiatic style; but the vessels geometrically ornamented may be of a period coinciding with the earliest Pelasgic driftings of race. In the same receptacles with these, however, were found urns inscribed with Phœnician letters, one of which is read as the name of Baal. A class of the vases, of later character, is in the most pronounced style of ordinary "Etruscan," with artistic heads and ornaments, offering the antiquarian a terrible problem to get these Italian potters into the centre of an Anatolian island, executing their vases in the fashions that taught the Greeks. The Phœnician lamps are simple saucers, pinched in two places to form a spout. The Greek lamps, large in numbers but simple and cheap, have devices of great elegance in the designs with which they are stamped. Three or four Egyptian bowls, with paintings of bulls, a priestess, etc., are of great interest. Of a number of Babylonian seals cut in intaglio upon a rolling cylindrical bead of meteorolite, only one about an inch long survives shipwreck. The others found, with many gold coins and some beautiful glass, were lost in an Austrian ship, which sunk fifty miles off Tripoli on the tenth day after leaving Beirut.

A variety of painted dolls from the Phœnician part of the Idalian cemetery suggests a strangely simple civilization and a pre-Homeric antiquity. They are of clay, modelled with the fingers and daubed with paint. The subjects are mounted cavaliers, armed with shields, or horses attached four abreast to cars. At first taken to be children's toys, this view was modified when it was noticed that the cavalry subjects were always in adult tombs, surrounded by spear-heads or other arms; it seems probable that they are emblems of the profession of the deceased. One, however, a horse a foot in length, rolling on movable wheels, was found in a diminutive grave, and may have amused some baby in days before Hector parted from his child. As the yield of one grave, we have a procession of marionettes as follows: first, two donkeys carrying panniers; next, a horseman with a pair of amphoræ; a chariot with three musicians; three personages in as many cars; last, a table on which lies a sort of mummy, the face covered with a mask shaped like the head of a cow. This is a piece of representation almost as obvious as the frescoes of Egyptian

tombs, placing before our eyes the burial-rites of this island, with forms borrowed from Phœnicia, and notions of immortality imported from Egypt, at a period before Greek occupation.

Pure Phœnician art, of a quality perhaps as high as it ever reached individually, is to be seen in the bronze patera found at Idalium, with figures *repoussées*, showing eleven damsels doing homage to Isis Astarte, who smells a lotus. The principal heroine resembles the goddess, similarly armed, from Saida, of which M. Renan publishes the delineation in his current article on "Phœnician Art" in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*. Other articles in bronze from the site are a fork, perfectly fit for table use, and unique, so far as we recall; a strigil, a sickle, looking-glasses in the shape of covered boxes, a shield, knives, chisels, pincers, ladle, spoons, jewelry, and most of the articles appropriate to a surprised Pompeii, but of a date which makes Pompeii seem of yesterday.

Three inscriptions only, in the native Cypriote tongue, were known up to 1863. This collection shows thirty-six, awaiting the advance of linguistic science. Among the statuettes representing the Cyprian divinity, General di Cesnola discovers two distinct types, evidently both anterior to the earliest represented by Rawlinson, besides quantities of very fine terra-cottas from Citium, showing Artemis and her priestesses, inscribed "to Artemis of the Shore," with bearded Venuses, Cupids, and Cybeles, besides an Egyptian scarab six inches long, with a cartouche translated as of Thothmes III., the Pharaoh who imposed tribute here fifteen centuries before the Christian era.

These specimen curiosities may whet the taste of investigators. For a fuller list, we must direct our readers to await the preparation of the catalogue and the completion of General di Cesnola's personal narrative, which will be one of the most absorbing, as it will certainly be one of the most frank, manly, and genuine records of exploration ever published. As a man uniting culture and practical sagacity, this representative has served the higher interests of America better than any other assignable person could have served them, or than they have ever been served abroad before. We hope some prophetic sense of American appreciation was not wanting to keep up his courage, as, shovelling ancient cities into small baskets with barbarous spades, or sending stone colossi to the shore on a pair of camels lashed together, inspiring his workmen and bullying Turkish pashas, he pursued his heavy labor of science and illumination. That labor, it is for us to remember, has resulted in bringing to this far land the very junction and ganglion of historical fine art, placing in our hands, just as they meet, the clues of every influence that ever directed the progress of Greek plastics.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JUNE 23, 1873.

THE week has witnessed no very important changes beyond what were occasioned in the stock market upon the announcement of the death of Mr. Horace F. Clark, whose loss to the several enterprises with which he was connected is a serious blow. He was president of both the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern and Union Pacific R.R. Co., besides being largely interested in the Western Union Telegraph Company and other corporations. The Bank of England rate of interest remains at 6 per cent., while the bank gained last week the handsome sum of £993,000 in bullion, which goes to show that the action of the directors was well advised in reducing the rate of interest from 7 to 6 per cent. at the previous weekly meeting.

The money market has remained in its usual summer condition, with the rate ruling between 4 and 5 per cent. On Wednesday and Thursday there was some little demand for money, which carried the rate up to 6 and 7 per cent. for a time. Commercial paper sells easily at 6½ to 7 per cent. for choice names, with no great amount on the market, while there is a good demand for the best grades.

The weekly bank statement last week was slightly favorable as compared with that of the previous one, the banks having gained $195,225 in their net reserve of legal tenders and gold, and now stand $12,166,375 above the legal amount required.

The following shows the changes for the past two weeks:

	June 14.	June 21.	Differences.
Loans	$277,714,400	$278,903,800	Inc. $1,189,400
Specie	26,967,600	27,398,300	Inc. 430,700
Circulation	27 402,700	27.352.000	Dec. 50,700
Deposits	218,171,100	220,392,500	Inc. 2,221,400
Legal tenders	46,397,000	46,704,200	Inc. 307,200

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	June 14.	June 21.	Differences.
Specie	$26,967,600	$27.398,300	Inc. $430,700
Legal tenders	46,397,000	46,704,200	Inc. 307,200
Total reserve	$73,364,600	$74,102,500	Inc. $737,900
Circulation	27,402,700	27,352,000	Dec. 50,700
Deposits	218,171,100	220,392,500	Inc. 2,221,400
Total liabilities	$245,573,800	$247,744,500	Inc. $2,170,700
25 per cent. reserve	61,393.450	61,936,125	
Excess over legal reserve	11,971,150	12,166,375	Inc. 195,225

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	$240,125,500	$38,778,300	$278,903,800
Specie	25,122,800	2,275.500	27,398,300
Legal tenders	40.753,900	5,950,300	46,704,200
Deposits	189,832,900	30,599.600	220,392,500
Circulation	27,309,000	43,000	27.352,000
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	30 34-100 p.c.	26 88-100 p.c.	29 91-100 p.c.

We have to chronicle another dull week at the Stock Exchange, with prices irregular. The death of Mr. Clark, before referred to, had for the moment a depressing effect upon the stocks he was supposed to be interested in, such as Union Pacific and Lake Shore; the former sold down to 22, and the latter to 91 on Friday, but the prices remained current for a short time only, and at the close of business on Saturday both stocks were up to the quotations of Thursday. Pacific Mail has been weak, owing to the unfavorable reports as to the condition of the Company, which are said to be set afloat by the directors. Considerable talk has taken place regarding an issue of $6,000,000 bonds for the purpose of paying for the new steamers now building on the Delaware, and which, rumor says, the Company cannot provide money to pay for in any other way. Affairs are represented in the worst possible light, especially as regards the losing business which the Company is doing; and now, to make matters worse, it is reported that Mr. Stockwell proposes to stand on the law as to his obligation to pay the Company some $840,000 borrowed money, which is the balance remaining of the large amount loaned him by Mr. Stockwell, *President*, on the Howe Machine Company mortgage some few months ago. There are few friends apparently of the stock, and if the want of friends is all that is required to make a stock tumble, Pacific Mail has an excellent chance of following in the footsteps of Atlantic Mail, now selling at about one dollar a share.

A number of changes has taken place in the presidencies of leading railroads. Mr. Clark is succeeded for the present by Mr. Augustus Schell in the presidency of the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern, and by Mr. John Duff in the Union Pacific. Mr. John F. Tracy has resigned the presidency of the Chicago and Northwestern, and Mr. Albert Keep (brother of the late Henry Keep) has taken his place.

A dividend of 3½ per cent. has been declared upon both the preferred and common stock of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad Company. A 4 per cent. dividend was expected, but the death of Mr. Clark (who was to have advanced part of the money) prevented its payment. The reason assigned for borrowing money to pay the dividend is that the net earnings of the road have been absorbed in branch roads and extensions.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending June 21, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101⅜ 102	101¼ 101⅝	101⅜ 101⅝	101⅜ 101½	101⅜ 101½	101⅛ 102⅛	21,200
Lake Shore	92⅝ 93	92¼ 92⅝	92⅛ 92½	91½ 92	91 91⅛	92⅝ 93¼	47,000
Erie	64⅛ 64¾	63¾ 64	63 63½	63⅜ 63¾	63¾	64¾ 65⅝	18,300
Do. pfd	 75	73 75	73¾	73	.... 74½	74¼	....
Union Pacific	27¼ 28⅛	26¾ 27¼	24¾ 26¾	23⅜ 24¾	22 23½	27⅛ 23¾	126,300
Chi. & N. W.	.... 79⅝	71	72	72½ 74	....	....	1,200
Do. pfd	84	84	84½	84½ 85	84½	88¾	100
N. J. Central	106¼ 107	106¾ 106¼	105½ 106¼	105¾	106	106⅜ 106½	400
Rock Island	109⅛ 109⅜	108¾ 109⅛	108½ 109⅛	108¼ 108¾	108¼ 109½	109 109⅝	7,700
Mil. & St. Paul	52 52¾	51⅝ 52¼	51½ 52	50⅜ 51⅜	50⅜ 51½	51⅜ 53	13,500
Do. pfd.	....	71½ 72	71⅜ 72	71⅜ 71¾	71⅜ 71½	72 72¼	700
Wabash	67½	.... 67⅜	66⅝ 67½	66½ 69⅛	67 67⅜	63⅛ 68½	7,700
D. L. & Western	105½	105 105½	105 105½	105 105⅜	105 105½	93¾ 100	5,300
B. H. & Erie	2½ 2½	....	2¼	2⅜ 3	2⅜ 3	2⅜	3,300
O. & M.	38½ 39	38¼ 38½	37⅝ 38⅜	37¼ 37⅜	37¼ 38	37⅛ 38¼	45,700
C. C. & I. C.	28⅛ 29¼	28⅜ 28¾	27¼ 27⅜	26⅜ 27⅛	26⅜ 27⅜	27½ 23¼	12,400
W. U. Tel.	85¼ 86½	85¼ 85¾	85⅛ 85⅞	84⅜ 85¼	84¼ 85⅜	83⅜ 85⅜	113,500
Pacific Mail	39⅞ 40⅜	39⅝ 40	38⅜ 39⅜	37⅜ 38⅝	37½ 39	38 38¾	78,600

The fall in gold has weakened the currency price of Government bonds, and a dull market has been the result, holders being unwilling to sell at the decline, and the foreign buyers, being governed by the London and Frankfort quotations as well as the price of gold and exchange, of course cannot pay over the prices at which it will pay to ship them. An advance in prices in the foreign markets may be shortly expected to set the market active again, as well as to improve prices on this side of the water.

State bonds have been dull, the transactions being limited as usual to Virginias, Tennessees, North Carolinas, and South Carolinas. The opinion of Mr. Reverdy Johnson, of Baltimore, was read last week at a meeting of the holders of the special-tax bonds of the State of North Carolina, referred to in our last issue. The question was upon the right of bondholders to compel the appropriation of money collected on a special tax to the payment of interest on their bonds, for which the tax was originally levied. Mr. Johnson says:

"In conclusion, then, my opinion is that the bonds in question are obligatory upon the State of North Carolina; that her proper officers are bound to levy the annual tax provided for to meet the interest; and that the holders of the bonds who are not citizens of the State may compel them to do so by a writ of mandamus from the Circuit Court of the United States for the district of that State."

There is a good demand for the bonds of the old railroads in good credit but there is still considerable reluctance manifested in making investments in new railroad bonds, owing to the general belief that the next two or three years will be the turning-point with many of these roads, especially as regards those which have been built upon bonds alone, and are left with various amounts of floating debt contracted for the purpose of equipment and the thousand-and-one things all new roads require.

The gold premium has again yielded, and the price to-day fell to 115 from 116½, the highest point last week. The Treasury anticipates, on the 25th inst., the payment of the July interest, amounting to about $25,000,000 gold, and this, together with the continued falling off in the imports, has given a heavy tone to the gold market. The clique are understood to have been large sellers during the week.

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ERRATA.

Page 238, col. 2, lines 31, 32. Omit ["The one child . . . infancy, and "].

Page 286, col. 2, line 23. For "John Timbs" read "William J. Thoms."

Page 294, col. 2, line 24 from bottom. For "$1 20" read "$2 40."

Page 322, col. 2, line 34. For "February" read "April."

Page 326, col. 1, line 17. Insert "October" after "15th."

line 25. For "eight" read "six."

Page 356, col. 2, line 13 For "theory" read "glory."

Page 402, col. 1, lines 41, 42. For "100" read "1,000."

REGISTER OF BOOKS RECEIVED

DURING THE HALF YEAR.

Theology, Metaphysics, and Ethics.

Abbe (F. R.), The Temple Rebuilt.....(Noyes, Holmes & Co.)
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